AN EVALUATION OF FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMMES WITHIN TWO SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MASTERS OF COMMERCE

Department of Management

RHODES UNIVERSITY

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Your mentor is not necessarily your best friend.

Your best friend loves you the way you are –
Your mentor loves you too much to leave you the way you are.

Your best friend is comfortable with your past –
Your mentor is comfortable with your future.

Your best friend ignores your weaknesses –
Your mentor removes your weaknesses.

Your best friend is your cheerleader –
Your mentor is your coach.

Your best friend sees what you do right –
Your mentor sees what you do wrong.

-Anon-

DECLARATION

I declare that the work submitted within this thesis is my own produced only under the guidance of my supervisor.

I also declare that when information is provided from other resources, it is accredited to that source both within the text and within the reference list.

Signed:

Delyse Shelton

ABSTRACT

The benefits of informal mentoring are numerous and organisations have recognised these benefits in terms of organisational development. There has been an attempt to harvest these benefits through the introduction of formal mentoring programmes as a tool to fast track and then ultimately retain internal capability.

This research on formal mentoring programmes occurred within a qualitative paradigm and data was obtained through document analysis and interviews from five mentoring pairs in one organisation and four mentoring pairs in another. The data was then presented and analysed in terms of the models proposed in the literature.

The aim of this research was to evaluate formal mentoring programmes within South African organisations based on a framework provided by the literature. It was found that the literature proposed no formal evaluation model and thus, one was developed based on models of programme evalua tion and formal mentoring implementation models.

On the evaluation of the two formal mentoring programmes, it was found that there are some issues raised in the literature that are pertinent to both organisations but that there were also issues that were only relevant to one of the programmes. According to the research the differences in perceived success of the mentoring programme lay in the goals of the programme relating to the broader goals and culture of the organisation. It is recommended that future research investigate the impact of organisational culture on the effectiveness of formal mentoring programmes. The research also identified a need for supportive resources although this study did not assess the appropriateness and sufficiency of the resources. Organisations also need to implement effective evaluative practices in order to implement effective changes to the programme.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

NOTES:

The research avoided as much as much as possible to avoid using pronouns such as he/she. When necessary, only the masculine (he/him) is used in the text. Please note that in all cases, the feminine (she/her) is implied as well.

Similarly for purposes of the research, the word protégé is used instead of mentee. This was a personal choice of the researcher but the meaning of the two words is in essence the same. When necessary, the word mentee was used if provided in a quote from another author or from the participants interviewed.

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CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This research is situated in the area of people development with specific focus on the development of employees through the use of formal mentoring programmes. It has been conducted within the qualitative or constructivist paradigm. Although there is a wide range of literature on both informal and formal mentoring, there is very little that evaluates how programme characteristics affect programme effectiveness (Hezlett and Gibson, 2005). This research serves the interest of the organisations involved in that it evaluates two formal mentoring programmes from the perspective of the organisation. Although other stakeholders may have different points of view about an evaluation study however, this is a matter for future research.

1.1.   THE DEFINITION OF MENTORING

The concept of mentoring has its origins in Greek mythology when Odysseus went to fight in the Trojan War and left his old and trusted friend, Mentor, in charge of his son Telemachus to raise him to succeed his father as a wise leader (Friday and Friday, 2002; Oliver and Aggleton, 2002; Friday, Friday and Green, 2004). As a late 20th Century concept, the definition of mentoring is still under debate (Kartje, 1996; Friday and Friday, 2002). Kartje (1996: 115) suggests that a possible reason for this "has been the different arenas in which research on the phenomena has occurred". Because definitions are socially constructed and contextually bound, it is important to find a definition that will be most appropriate for a specific study.

To date, mentoring has been evident in all fields such as adult development, business and education. These areas all have different goals and methods by which they define the mentoring relationship and it is for this reason that a universal definition is unattainable (Kartje, 1996). Above this, it is only in the past few decades that mentoring has taken on any real significance within the organisational setting and although it has spread rapidly, the definition "still awaits a shared understanding" (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002: 6). The

researcher therefore must define mentoring within the field that the study is being developed in a way that adequately encompasses the context within which the study is set.

Cook and Adonisi (1994: 110) define mentoring as "the spontaneous development of a relationship between an older and wiser manager and a young and promising person". This definition does little to explain the actual concept of mentoring as it fails to highlight the events that occur *after* the development of a relationship. It suggests that something else occurs once a relationship has been established. The definition also specifically states that the development of a relationship is spontaneous yet (as will be discussed later) this is not necessarily so. Even from the origin of the term, this was not true as Odysseus, a third party, initiated the mentoring relationship. Perhaps the statement that "mentoring is a guidance process" (Friday and Friday, 2002: 153) could be added to the definition of Cook and Adonisi (1994) to overcome one of the shortcomings but even then, it does not seem to encapsulate the essence of mentoring.

In Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002: 8), Parsloe (2000) states that "the purpose of mentoring is to support and encourage people to manage their own learning in order that they may maximise their potential., develop their skills, improve their performance and become the person they want to be". This introduces the question of who is responsible for the mentoring relationship, and the role of the mentoring relationship within the larger organisational framework. Clearly here, it is evident that the onus is on the protégé to manage the mentoring relationship.

Mentoring has also been described as a "one-to-one process of helping individuals learn and develop and takes a longer-term perspective which focuses on the person's career and their development" (Tabbron, Macauley and Cook, 1997: 6). This highlights the need for a protégé's career, as well as personal development, thus developing the concept of mentoring further.

As Roberts (2000: 145) states: "Mentoring appears to have the essential attributes of: a process; a supportive relationship; a helping process; a teaching-learning process; a reflective process; a career development process; a formalised process; and a role constructed by or for

a mentor". The definition that mentoring is a "formalised process whereby a more knowledgeable and experienced person activates a supportive role of overseeing and encouraging reflection and learning within a less experienced and knowledgeable person, so as to facilitate that person's career and personal development" (Roberts, 2000: 162) almost encompasses all the necessary attributes for this study. The only thing missing is the important role of the protégé in taking responsibility for his/her own development.

Authors such as Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) and Grensing- Pophal (2004) recognise the importance of the protégé taking responsibility for the relationship. The onus is on the protégé to "also have responsibility to make the relationship work", "set up meetings" and have the "time energy and commitment to work with their mentors" (Grensing- Pophal., 2004: 23).

The definition that is supplied by Roberts (2000: 145) can therefore be modified to describe mentoring as:

> A formalised process whereby a more knowledgeable and experienced person *(mentor)* is nominated to assume a supportive role of overseeing and encouraging reflection and learning within a less experienced and knowledgeable person *(protégé)*, so as to facilitate that person's career and personal development *and whereby the protégé takes responsibility for their learning and the successful, ongoing development of the relationship.*

The literature mentions a number of positive characteristics of informal mentoring that organisations try to benefit from by implementing formal mentoring programmes. Research on formal mentoring programmes has shown mixed results but there is evidence that successful formal mentoring programmes add value to the organisation and the lives of the mentor and protégé. If the mentoring programme is successful, benefits to the organisation include retention of high performers and improved productivity (Samier, 2000; Foster, 2002; Perrone, 2003). Formal mentoring also provides a structure whereby the organisational culture can be transferred and encourages individual learning which contributes to organisational learning (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002).

Benefits to the protégé are career satisfaction, motivation, advice and promotion (Hansford, Tennent and Ehrich, 2002). Research shows that benefits to the mentor are relatively fewer than for the protégé but the relationship is mutually beneficial (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Mentors benefit in that they achieve a sense of fulfillment, receive an opportunity to influence thinking within the company and receive an opportunity to clarify their own thinking (Cook and Adonisi, 1994).

In the fast changing business environment, there is a strong need for organisations to implement formal mentoring programmes as a tool to fast track and develop talent that is internal to the organisation because, training and development is expected to "do more with less" (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999: 21), there is an inability of line managers to cope with broader development issues and individuals are facing more challenges in terms of their personal careers. There are a number of organisations within South Africa that have followed the path of international organisations and implemented their own formal mentoring programmes. The question lies in whether these mentoring programmes are achieving their goals.

1.2. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MENTORING, SPONSORING, COACHING, SUPERVISING, LEARNERSHIPS AND COUNSELLING

Because there is no unified understanding of the term mentoring, it is often confused with concepts such as sponsoring, coaching, learnerships and counselling (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). For example, Megginson, Banfield and Joy- Matthews (2000) discuss a *sponsorship* scheme that enabled employees to gain access to more senior managers, who could provide coaching and mentoring. It would appear that statements such as this provide the confusion that surrounds the definition of mentoring. There are several distinct differences between mentoring, sponsoring, coaching and counselling that need discussion.

Sponsoring is a developmental relationship where one person, the sponsor, provides high amounts of career support by nominating another person for promotion and other types of organisational activities that are supportive of promotion. It is a mechanism employed by individuals to find appropriate networks or positions for a person or persons (Roberts, 2000).

Sponsors are known only to provide career- related support whereas mentors provide both career and psychosocial support (Friday, Friday and Green, 2004). As Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002: 8) state: "improved career prospects and career management are likely to be the natural consequences of a mentoring relationship…"

Coaching is an on- the- job approach to development where a manager is given the opportunity to teach by example (Mondy and Noe, 1984). More specifically, it is "the process whereby one person helps another to perform better than the latter would have done alone" (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002: 14) and involves being directly concerned with the performance and development of specific skills of another person (Roberts, 2000). The focus is specifically on the results of the job (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999) where the person is shown the finer points of an area of expertise (Dinsdale, 1998b) and the experienced manager (usually the line- manager) is the model for correct behaviour and skills (Erasmus and van Dyk, 2003). Mentoring on the other hand includes supporting individuals in their development needs rather than setting the example, and guiding and encouraging them to solve problems on their own (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Garvey (1997:8) states that "the fundamental nature of mentoring is more about developing the whole person than in developing specific skills or knowledge".

Supervision in organisations involves a hands-on approach where a supervisor is constantly monitoring employees (Humphrey and Stokes, 2000) and where the supervisor is responsible for directing the work of sub-ordinates (Halloran, 1981). As Rue and Byars (2001: 3) states, "…the supervisor does not do the operative work but sees that it is accomplished through the efforts of others." Supervisors perform five main functions: planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling (George, 1979; Halloran, 1981, Rue and Byars, 2001). Supervisors do not necessarily play a large role in the development of the employees whereas a mentor does.

Supervisors in academia play a slightly different role to supervisors in organisations. In academic supervision, students need to engage and work with their supervisors (Wisker, 2005). Mouton (2001) state that the supervisor needs to advise and guide the student as well as ensure scientific quality and provide emotional and psychological support. There is a

distinct focus on development and training (Wisker, 2005). If the student wishes to pursue a career in academia, a good supervisory relationship may ensure career support but there is definitely evidence of the psychosocial function of mentoring.

Learnerships, put simply, are a "workplace- based route for attaining qualifications" (Ernst, 2000: 149). More specifically, they are "a mechanism to facilitate the linkage between structured learning and work experience in order to obtain a registered qualification which signifies work readiness" (Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolff and Haasbroek, 2001: 40). Learnerships were developed to encourage SETA's to focus on specific skills development and upon the conclusion of the learnership, the learner will have a NQF qualification registered by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) (Ernst, 2000). Employers develop learnership agreements which oblige the employer to employ the learner for a specific length of time, provide the learner with relevant and practical work experience, and allow the learner to attend education and training specified in the agreement (Clarke, 2003). Learnerships differ from mentorships in that they focus specifically on developing skills in a certain area (Ernst, 2000) whereas mentoring develops the entire person and focuses on career and psychological development (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002).

Counselling aids individuals in identifying that they have a problem, analysing it, establishing a solution and committing to it. It is a "two- way relationship…in which the counsellor helps the individual to overcome barriers to performance and fulfilment (Meyer and Fourie, 2004: 7). In contrast, mentoring recognises that there are potential opportunities for learning and provides an opportunity for protégés, during times of adversity, to reflect on the input given by a mentor and allowing them to assimilate and assemble it as they see relevant (Siegel, Rigsby, Agrawal and Leavins, 1996; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). During mentoring, the counselling function is very important as an avenue for the protégé to express aspirations, resolve blockages and review learning points in an open, supportive and trusting environment (Dinsdale, 1998b).

Overall, mentoring provides both career and psychosocial support. Career support involves coaching, organisational visibility, sponsorship, protection and challenging assignments whereas psychosocial support entails serving as a role model, counsellor, friend where the

mentor provides acceptance and confirmation (Kram, 1985; Wexley and Latham, 2002). Therefore it can be seen that although there are distinct differences between coaching, sponsoring, counselling and mentoring; the actual practice of effective mentoring encompassing all of the above.

1.3. MENTORING FUNCTIONS AND ROLES

Kram (1985: 22) identifies mentoring functions as "those aspects of a developmental relationship that enhance both individuals' growth and advancement". These functions differentiate developmental relationships from other work relationships. As identified above, these are career and psychosocial functions and these vary in each relationship. Relationships that provide both functions are characterised by "greater intimacy and strength of interpersonal bond" (Kram, 1985: 24). These functions can be seen to characterise the role that the mentor plays in the life of the protégé.

1.3.1. CAREER FUNCTIONS

Career functions enhance advancement in an organisation (Kram, 1985). These include sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection and setting challenging assignments (Kram, 1985). They are possible because of the mentor's position, experience and organisational influence (Kram, 1985).

1.3.1.1. Sponsorship

Sponsorship is the most frequently observed career function. It involves "actively nominating an individual for desirable lateral moves and promotions" (Kram, 1985: 25). Without this sponsorship, the protégé might be overlooked for promotions regardless of the competence and performance. Sponsorship helps the protégé to build a reputation, become known and obtain certain job opportunities that would prepare him or her for higher level positions (Kram, 1985).

1.3.1.2. Exposure -and-visibility

Exposure-and-visibility involves the mentor assigning responsibilities that allow a protégé to develop relationships with other key figures in the organisation who may judge his or her potential for future advancement. This allows the junior protégé to learn more about parts of the organisation that he would like to enter. 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, 1985: 27).

1.3.1.3. Coaching

Coaching enhances the protégé's knowledge and understanding of how to navigate effectively in the corporate setting. The mentor would suggest specific strategies for accomplishing certain work objectives, and achieving recognition and career aspirations (Kram, 1985).

1.3.1.4. Protection

Protection occurs when the mentor shields the protégé from untimely or potentially damaging contact with senior members of the organisation. This is a product when the mentor believes that visibility is not in the best interest of the protégé. This would be relevant when a task was not completed on schedule or if the individual is new to a certain area and is not sure how to proceed. The mentor would then be in contact with other senior management on behalf of the protégé until such time that the protégé would benefit from exposure. This way the protégé is protected from negative publicity (Kram, 1985).

1.3.1.5. Challenging assignments

Setting of challenging assignments relates to the immediate work of the department and imitates boss-sub-ordinate relationship (Kram, 1985). These assignments enable the protégé to develop specific competencies and skills and experience a sense of accomplishment in a professional role. This function may be more limited in its direct impact on career

advancement but it is essential in enabling the protégé to perform well on difficult tasks so that he can advance in the organisation. The protégé thus learns essential technical and managerial skills through work that encourages learning. It is critical however that the mentor give ongoing feedback and support otherwise the protégé might feel overwhelmed by the complexity of the tasks (Kram, 1985).

1.3.2. PSYCHOSOCIAL FUNCTIONS

Psychosocial functions affect the protégé on a more personal level by enhancing the protégé's sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role (Kram, 1985). Psychosocial functions depend on the quality of the interpersonal relationship. These include role modelling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling and friendship (Kram, 1985).

1.3.2.1. Role modelling

Role modelling occurs when a mentor's attitudes, values and behaviour provide for a model for the protégé to learn from and emulate (Kram, 1985). The protégé identifies with the example set by the mentor as the protégé aspires to achieve in the organisation. Role modelling succeeds because of the successful emotional attachment that is formed between the mentor and the protégé (Kram, 1985). Amos and Pearse (2002) do however caution that within the South African context where white mentors are now required to mentor black protégés, role modelling is affected by the political context. "If the white manager mediates, the he will be mediating the white world to the black protégé, thus developing the black protégé to fit into a white world (Amos and Pearse: 2002: 22).

1.3.2.2. Acceptance-and-confirmation

Acceptance-and-confirmation provides support and encouragement to the protégé as he develops competence in the world of work (Kram, 1985). It enables the protégé to experiment with new behaviours by taking risks in the knowledge that mistakes while learning will not result in rejection. "Conformity is more likely when a junior person does not experience

acceptance-and-confirmation" as "he spends more time trying to please and win acceptance and less energy exploring who he wants to be" (Kram, 1985: 35).

1.3.2.3. Counselling

When counselling, the mentor discusses the protégé's internal conflicts that put him at odds with himself (Kram, 1985). This is a context where the protégé can discuss any anxieties or fears that distract him from 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 (Kram, 1985).

1.3.2.4. Friendship

The friendship function includes the social interaction that results in mutual liking and understanding (Kram, 1985). This role allows the protégé to feel like a peer with the mentor so the relationship is not as distant as with a relationship of authority (Kram, 1985).

1.4. THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE PROTÉGÉ

Compared to literature on the role of the mentor, the role of the protégé is poorly researched and documented. The literature on protégé roles effectively only outlines the qualities that a protégé should possess as well as some responsibilities of the protégé within the relationship. Geen, Bassett and Douglas (2001) state that the protégé should emulate the mentor as they observe their mentors in action in the workplace. Purcell (2004) states that protégés should be ready to commit to personal and professional growth and engage in a process involving self assessment, self-reflection and self-transformation. They should be open to accepting guidance and advice in their development (Mathews, 2003). Mentors must also encourage protégés to evaluate their own performance as reflective practitioners (Geen *et al.,* 2001). They should also demonstrate a good work ethic and speak openly and honestly in discussions. It is vital that protégés also tell their mentors if they are not helping them to meet their objectives, thereby allowing mentors the opportunity to make adjustments (Purcell, 2004). Protégés must also be open to receiving help and act on expert and objective advice,

have the ability to learn, have career commitment and competence and a strong identity as well as have the initiative to push themselves further (Greene and Puetzer, 2002). Mathews (2003) gives a more extensive list for protégé responsibilites and adds that protégés should be able to: identify and set goals, carry out set tasks and projects, invest time and effort with the mentor, be receptive to feedback and coaching and, manage the development of the relationship.

1.5. THE PHASES OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

The relationship between mentor and protégé is fundamental to any mentorship (Amos and Pearse, 2002). Kram (1985) identifies four phases through which the relationship passes namely; initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition.

Initiation is normally the first six to twelve months of the relationship where individuals possess strong positive thoughts that encourage an ongoing and significant relationship (Kram, 1985). Both the mentor and protégé communicate their needs, expectations and concerns and begin to develop a rapport (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). During this phase, both mentor and protégé gain valuable experience through interaction with each other; the protégé has a wish for someone to turn to for guidance, counsel and support and the mentor wishes to pass on knowledge and experience (Kram, 1985). However, there may be impatience to get going or in a formal mentoring relationship, a tentativeness and unwillingness to commit. The mentor is more powerful, skilled and professionally recognised than the protégé, who has a great amount of potential but is as yet underdeveloped (Hunt and Michael, 1983). This phase is also characterised by a certain amount of testing out and challenging (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). The protégé requires a certain amount of acceptance, confirmation and support in mapping out a career plan (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

Other issues to consider during the initiation phase are those of power and perception that may affect the mentoring relationship in specific ways. For example, protégé's would probably prefer those relationships with greater organisational influence. Issues of power come to the forefront if a mentor rates poorly in the protégé's eyes and will affect the positive outcome of the initiation and cultivation stages. The organisation would also need to manage

any jealousy between those who are being mentored, those who are not, managers who are mentors and those that are not (Amos and Pearse, 2002).

Cultivation lasts between two to five years and it is within this phase that each individual discovers the real value of relating to each other and the relationship reaches a peak (Kram, 1985). During this time, the mentor and protégé will establish a means for reviewing progress, and adapting the process in light of the review (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). This phase is generally described positively. The protégé derives a sense of accomplishment and security as he becomes competent and the mentor becomes satisfied by seeing the protégé realize his full potential that the mentor identified earlier (Hunt and Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985). The protégé may also experience movement from dependency to independence (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

Separation follows cultivation because of changes in either individual or organisational circumstance and occurs both structurally and psychologically. Often the separation is necessary if the protégé is to advance in his career (Hunt and Michael, 1983). In a formal mentoring relationship, the nature of the programme will allow the mentor to disengage from the formal relationship as the protégé becomes more confident and independent (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). If the separation is considered timely by both parties, the mentor takes pride in seeing their protégé move forward and the protégé feels a certain sense of personal accomplishment in operating independently of their mentor's guidance (Kram, 1985). If the separation is untimely for either individual., feelings of anger, resentment and abandonment dominate this phase (Kram, 1985).

The final phase is that of **redefinition.** Here the relationship either terminates or takes on a new form such as a friendship (Kram, 1985). The mentor and protégé may reach peer status but this comes with time after a period of ambivalence and discomfort. Whichever way the relationship develops, both individuals acknowledge that what was, no longer is, and they move on accordingly (Kram, 1985).

Although all mentoring relationships are said to pass through these phases, the time frame of six to twelve months of the initiation phase is typically for an informal mentoring relationship

where either the mentor or protégé initiate the relationship. In formal mentoring, the organisation directs the matching of mentor and protégé (Amos and Pearse, 2002) and the *entire* relationship may last only a year (Forret, 1996). Generally in formal mentoring, all phases are of much shorter duration and the individual phases are not as clear. This shorter duration may reduce the opportunity for the mentor to influence the protégé's career and work attitudes (Ragins, Cotton and Miller, 2000). It is evident that the initiation occurs when the relationship begins and separation occurs when the relationship comes to an end, yet there is no study on how the formal relationship evolves between those two stages (Blake-Beard, 2001).

1.6. THE BENEFITS OF MENTORING

The increased use of mentoring reflects a widespread recognition that formal classroom-based teaching and training has large limitations due to the fact that people forget about one third of what they have learnt before they leave the classroom, within a month more than three-quarters of the learning is forgotten and very little learning is remembered or transferred in the long run (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Mentoring on the other hand is seen as a very effective way of developing people and formal mentoring programmes have been introduced so that the organisation can reap some of the rewards of these benefits.

Hansford *et al.,* (2002) investigated 151 studies on formal mentoring and found that 67,5% yielded positive outcomes as a result of mentoring and 24,5% reported mixed positive and negative outcomes. Together, more than 90% of the studies showed that mentoring had at least some positive effect on the protégé, mentor or organisation. Although it may seem that mentoring has great positive effects, Gay (1994) cautions that mentoring is not a cheap and easy remedy for shortfalls in social planning, nor is it a quick fix for personal orientation as some organisations believe, but it does offer the opportunity for mentors to become professional sounding boards of expertise (Zimmer and Smith, 1992).

1.6.1. BENEFITS TO THE PROTÉGÉ

Mentors support protégés in managing their own learning, challenging assumptions, ideas and behaviours, providing guidance and advice and being a credible role model (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). These functions all benefit the protégé by providing much needed emotional support and confidence and often advance the protégé's career by nominating him for promotion thereby providing an opportunity to demonstrate his confidence (Akande, 1994, Hansford *et al.,* 2002). Some other benefits accrued by the protégé are that self esteem, self respect and self confidence increase, he will develop greater determination and motivation to succeed and will achieve greater independence in terms of increased decision-making, organisation, planning and problem solving skills (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). Hansford *et al.* (2002) found that the most reported benefits relating to the protégé was career satisfaction, motivation, advice and promotion. Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz and Lima (2004) undertook a meta- analysis on 43 studies of comparisons of benefits of mentored and nonmentored individuals and found that individuals who have been mentored reported greater increases in compensation and number of promotions, and were more satisfied in their career than nonmentored individuals. In a study on 39 mentors and 39 protégés, Orpen (1997) found that mentoring improved both motivation and commitment of the protégé. Overall, mentoring translates into improved job performance, and financial and career rewards (Scandura, Tejeda, Werther and Lankau, 1996).

1.6.2. BENEFITS TO THE MENTOR

Although studies show relatively fewer benefits for mentors (Hansford *et al.,* 2002), protégés are not the only ones to benefit as mentorship is a mutually beneficial relationship (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Mentors benefit in that they achieve a sense of fulfillment, receive an opportunity to influence thinking within the company and receive an opportunity to clarify their own thinking (Cook and Adonisi, 1994). According to Kram (1985), mentors are also recognised by their peers and superiors for effectively developing talent and they received internal satisfaction from passing on their wisdom and aiding another person in their career and personal growth. It is also shown that mentors also benefit from career enhancement (Hansford *et al.,* 2002). The mentor's role in the organisation can be seen as having greater

legitimization, especially if mentoring is valued by the organisational culture (Scandura *et al.,* 1996). Above this, mentors improve on their communication skills and develop patience and tolerance through this relationship (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). Orpen (1997) also found that mentors commitment to the organisation and motivation increased because of the mentoring relationship.

1.6.3. BENEFITS TO THE ORGANISATION

Research on mentoring has shown mixed results for organisations and one would therefore question the reasons why organisations should implement formal mentoring programmes (Scandura *et al.,* 1996). Today's work environment is one of rapid change where employees are under continuous pressure to find new ways to achieve results and find new working methods that will save costs but not compromise quality. Organisations have realised that in order to achieve this, they need to invest heavily into employee development as people provide competitive advantage (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Companies continually need to ask themselves: "How do we add value?" (Megginson and Cluterbuck, 1999: 21).

There are a number of specific factors why there is a strong *need* for mentoring: training and development (T & D) is expected to "do more with less" (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999: 21) and show results; line managers are struggling to cope with broader development issues; the move towards learning organisations has created pressure on organisations; and individuals are facing more demands in terms of managing their own careers (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). Collins (1994), in an empirical investigation of mentorship and career outcomes, found that mentoring has a significant effect on career success and satisfaction for both the mentor and protégé. Positive and constructive relationships between management and employees have a positive impact on organisation commitment and motivation "to go the extra mile" (Browning, 1998: 139). Formal mentoring programmes, if implemented effectively within organisations, will ensure that talent is identified, desirable individuals are retained, successful behaviours are reinforced, cultures and norms are instilled within protégés and change becomes a planned and managed dynamic (Dinsdale, 1998c).

Mentoring encourages a three- way reciprocal context between the mentor, protégé and organisation (Scandura *et al.,* 1996) and provides the organisation with multiple benefits; the main ones being that people are developed in- line with the organisation's long term strategy (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999), improved productivity and increased contribution by employees (Hansford *et al.,* 2002). Organisations are also able to attract, retain and engage high performers, develop leadership talent, develop a line succession, foster a collaborative environment by having improved interdepartmental communication, increase productivity, (Samier, 2000; Foster, 2002; Perrone, 2003), and it is also shown to increase job satisfaction (Appelbaum, Ritchie and Shapiro, 1994). Often the long- term benefits are overlooked: these include the fact that mentoring provides a structure that promotes the continuation of the organisations culture and provides protégés with a guide on how to navigate through the internal political system (Wilson and Elman, 2001, Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Furthermore, organisational learning is triggered by individual learning, and if this is fostered, it is only going to add to the overall competence of the entire organisation and provide a strong competitive advantage (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Allen *et al.* (2004) also found that mentored individuals were more likely to stay with the organisation than nonmentored individuals and mentoring can improve employee attitudes (Orpen, 1997). Overall, when "the mentoring relationship enhances the protégé's contribution to the organisation, the organisation benefits" (Scandura *et al.,* 1996: 53).

Specifically in South Africa, Delport (2003) states that we need to implement formal mentoring programmes because of a shortage of upcoming competent directors, pressure on South African organisation boards to be more representative of the population and the reduction in the amount of skilled labour as they are enticed to work in overseas countries. In the future, there will also not be enough effective and trained managers to cope with economic growth (Dinsdale, 1998a). Wingrove (2002) adds that the Employment Equity legislation in South Africa has further created a need for more specific mentorship programmes to facilitate multicultural change within organisations. Ultimately, mentoring will aid companies in training and retaining knowledge workers (Horwitz, 2004). The retention of these knowledge workers are important not only to sustain a competitive advantage and enhance organisational performance (Garvey, 1997) but also because employee turnover generates unnecessary costs in the form of recruiting, selecting, and

training; and gives rise to opportunity costs associated with the loss of qualified people (Hayes and Hollman, 1996).

Specifically for individuals, it has been suggested that individuals who were not mentored were more vulnerable to lack of career focus and goals, lack of enthusiasm, unfulfilling jobs, emotional problems and frustrated creativity than those who were mentored (Torrance, 1984).

1.7. PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMMES

There is a wide range of literature by international authors with regards to mentoring as a tool for people development (Chao and Walz, 1992). Holmes (2005) explored the nature of mentoring in the workplace and discussed strategies that are used by those that mentor. There are similar studies in the field of teaching and learning (Patton, Griffin, Sheehy, Arnold, Gallo, Pagnano, Dodds, Henninger and James, 2005; Tiliman, 2005). McDade (2005) highlighted specifically the similarity of mentoring to a teacher/pupil relationship and showed how the mentoring relationship matured over time to create a developmental and learning experience for both the mentor and the protégé.

Tiliman (2005) explored mentoring as a tool to enhance competence, transmit culture and act as a catalyst for transformational teaching in a school environment. Crawford and Smith (2005) similarly looked at the importance of mentoring not only for the organisation but for African American women in higher education who want to pursue a career in this direction. They found that mentoring led to upward mobility in their career as well as success in education and development (Crawford and Smith, 2005). A study in Sweden by Lindgren (2005) looked at the impact of mentoring on novice Swedish teachers and found that these first year teachers experienced significant and positive professional and personal support from their mentors.

There are also a number of studies in the international health sector. Stead (2005) explored a pilot study of mentoring amongst Directors of Finance in the UK National Health Service.

This pilot study highlighted specific challenges and issues relevant to mentoring and the paper gave recommendations on how to overcome these challenges.

Barr (2000) looked at the effects of informal mentoring compared to formal mentoring and found that there is a higher amount of career and psychosocial benefits for the protégé in informal mentoring although there is still evidence of these benefits in the formal mentoring relationship. Hopkins (2003) focused on the area of matching in formal mentoring because some studies have stated that informal mentoring is superior because the mentor and protégé select each other. This research indicated that there was little previous literature on whether the method used to match mentor and protégé in formal mentoring relationships affected the perceived benefits of mentoring. The findings were that mentors will perceive themselves as providing more career support when chosen by the protégé (Hopkins, 2003).

Within the context of higher education, mentoring is often incorporated into the induction processes of the higher education institution (Knight and Trowler, 1999). It was found that although informal mentoring was useful, it lacked the strength of a well-conceived and well implemented mentoring programme (Knight and Trowler, 1999). The success of formal mentoring was highly dependent on the culture of the academic departments in terms of the integration of the goals of the mentoring programme with the messages relayed by the department through this formal mentoring (Knight and Trowler, 1999).

There has been comparatively fewer studies within the South African context. There has been research in the areas of using mentoring as a tool for organisational development (Brudvig, 1999; Durrheim, 1999; Phasha, 2001) as well as a focus on the mentoring relationship (Rosmarin, 1989). Tsukudu (1996) also found that mentoring in South Africa will be advantageous for women and black managers as mentoring relationships play a significant part in career development and satisfaction, and organisational success.

There are a number of studies on the implementation of formal mentoring programmes within the business sector (Caruso, 1992; Seibert, 1999, Berry, 2003) yet there are no reports on how to evaluate formal mentoring programmes. There is one study that attempted to measure the effectiveness of a formal mentoring programme by conducting analyses before and after

mentoring (Haskell, 1999), yet this did not evaluate the programme, it merely stated whether in the eyes of the researchers, the programme was seen to be effective.

There are a number of models proposed for the successful implementation of formal mentoring programmes. There are however no models on how to evaluate formal mentoring programmes. Programme evaluation takes on a number of forms and Babbie and Mouton (2001) provide a model on which to base a formal programme evaluation. This model, along with mentoring programme implementation models can be used to evaluate formal mentoring programmes within South African organisations. This, ultimately, is the aim of this research.

1.8. BACKGROUND TO THE PROGRAMMES

The research was conducted on two formal mentoring programmes situated within organisations in two different sectors. The first organisation (Organisation A) is a South African Higher Education Institution whilst the second organisation (Organisation B) is a publicly traded company. Both companies have ultimately implemented a formal mentoring programme to develop their employees yet the structure is unique for each programme. The context of each programme is discussed below.

1.8.1 ORGANISATION A

The mentoring programme in Organisation A was launched in 2002 as part of a development programme for new academics of designated groups. The purpose of the programme is to provide critical skills in order for the Institution to diversify its staff. The programme aims to accelerate the development of these individuals so that they can compete for jobs and get promoted quicker than if they go the normal route of getting an academic job.

The programme is sponsored by external., international funding and the sponsors require a very detailed annual report. The report contains evaluation data and discussion as well as detailed financial statements. Money was given to employ 15 new staff members under this programme after which time the programme would be reviewed by the Vice-Chancellor and the donors for continuance in the future.

Advertisements were placed in relevant national media and on the Web Page of the Institution, sending internal circulars for post graduate notice boards and sending emails to all Deans and Heads of Departments. The advert was also posted at all the career offices and Deans of Research at other South African Institutions.

The process involved them applying for the job of junior lecturer or lecturer within the Institution and being assigned a mentor who would help them in fulfilling certain responsibilities in the fields of teaching, research and administration. The protégés have to assume 50% of a normal teaching load and their research duties are specific to the qualification they hold. If they have an Honours degree, they are required to complete their Masters degree by the end of the contract period; if they already have a Masters degree, they are required to have an accepted research proposal by the end of the first year of contract and have made substantial progress towards the completion of their PhD by the end of the contract; and if they already have a PhD, they need to have active involvement in a research project with substantial progress having been made by the end of the contract, submission and acceptance of at least one research paper by an accredited journal and presented at least one research paper at a conference. Although the protégés are not promised a permanent post at the end of the programme, the intention is that they will be better equipped and qualified to apply for a permanent post once it arrives. The protégés also have to complete a minimum of two modules of a Postgraduate Education Qualification within the three years of their contract if they start the programme with a Masters degree; if they begin the programme with a PhD, they are required to complete the entire qualification.

These duties that the protégé has to fulfil are seen as a way to fast track the protégés through the system. A lecturer entering the Institution's system, who has not been placed on this programme, is not required to fulfil the next level of their degree within a certain time frame, nor are they required to complete a Postgraduate Education Qualification. They also assume a 100% teaching load as well as administrative duties and thus would take longer to advance to the next level. These lecturers would also have a three year probationary period after which the Institution decides whether or not to retain them.

The programme was launched by the Human Resources Department (HR) but in 2004 switched to the Academic Development Department of the Institution as HR wanted to give priority to other responsibilities and they felt that the programme was in the line of work of the Academic Development Department. The Academic Development Department still however liaise with the HR Department when they need advice on HR issues.

The programme still has funding to appoint two more members to reach the target of 15 developed members. There is also money left over (mainly from interest) and the Academic Development Department have been granted permission to offer a Post-Doctoral research year to eight black candidates with a PhD who will also have to complete the Post Graduate Education Qualification offered by the Institution. Following these appointments, the current programme will come to an end. The Vice-Chancellor and his committee have not given reasons for not seeking funding for the continuance of the programme because there has been a decision to focus on obtaining funding for postgraduate bursaries.

1.8.2. ORGANISATION B

Organisation B underwent a transformation in 1998 where the organisational structures changed and bottlers in foreign countries joined the organisation. The organisation realised that there was a need for them to develop internal capability as employees were becoming more mobile and were not remaining with the organisations for any extended period of time. The organisation realised that they needed to give the employees an opportunity to prove themselves within their field of work and give them an opportunity to grow. The organisation needed to develop and retain talent and their thinking was that if they invested in their growth, employees were more likely to remain with the organisation. It is for these reasons that their formal mentoring programme was launched in 1999.

The main purpose of the programme is to entrench a mentoring culture within the organisation so that even employees not on the programme will develop their own informal mentoring relationships with the aim of their own development in mind. This programme is divided into three broad categories: the first is what the organisation calls bonding sessions where the mentor and protégé each share about certain experiences in their lives. The issues

touched on here become more sensitive as the relationship develops. The second category is departmental rotations where the protégés get the opportunity to experience working in other departments. The third is a project which when completed has to add value to the organisation. The mentor guides the protégés through each of these areas over the year that the programme runs. Above their responsibilities to the mentoring programme, the protégé is expected to continue and perform in their day-to-day jobs.

The rationale behind this programme is that of people development so that a person who is normally going to get to the next level of their job in four to five years might get there in a shorter period of time with this programme. The organisation has also borne Skills Development Legislation in mind and through this programme will be developing skills for the future of the company and South Africa.

There is an overall programme co-ordinator that looks after the programme in all the regions (this study will refer to her as the national co-ordinator). In each region, there is a regional co-ordinator who reports to the overall co-ordinator on a regular basis. The national co-ordinator is responsible for organising the orientation and training associated with the programme and evaluating the feedback from the programme. The regional co-ordinator keeps track of the progress reviews and sorts out any problems that occur within the region. If the regional co-ordinator is unable to sort out the problem, it will be referred to the national co-ordinator.

The programme was started by the organisation in an attempt to develop people. After some time the company realised that there were certain functions in the organisation that could be outsourced, one of them being part of the Human Resources function that handles people development. The Human Resources Services Department broke away from the main organisation to become a consulting company for the organisation. When this happened, the programme followed its developers and is now controlled by the consulting company. This however has not seemed to have an impact on the running or success of the programme.

1.9. THE OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH

The context of the research was presented in this chapter and included information on the mentoring programmes being established. The following literature chapter will expand on two themes of theory: programme evaluation and mentoring, specifically with the aim of gathering enough information with which to evaluate a formal mentoring programme. Chapter three is the methodology chapter explaining how the research was conducted. The chapter following that presents the results of the research according to the themes identified from the coding presented in the methodology chapter. Chapter five is a discussion of the results highlighting issues raised by the evaluation and provides recommendations for future evaluations and research of formal mentoring programmes. The final chapter provides the conclusions of the research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. OVERVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview on the relevant theoretical literature on programme evaluation and formal mentoring in an attempt to create a framework for the evaluation of formal mentoring programmes. It begins with a brief discussion of evaluation research which is the research approach within which programme evaluation falls. It then highlights specific programme evaluation models that may be particularly useful to the study. Next, a review on the literature on mentoring (informal and formal) is reviewed and the focus is narrowed specifically to formal mentoring where models are discussed as well as reasons for implementing formal mentoring programmes. The chapter concludes by discussing factors that may hinder the success of formal mentoring programmes.

2.2. EVALUATION RESEARCH

There is evidence of evaluation research in as far back as the days of the Old Testament (Wortman, 1983; Shadish, Cook and Leviton, 1991) but evaluation became prominent in 1960's when the United States government implemented a host of social programmes (Rossi and Wright, 1984, Shadish *et al.,* 1991). During this time evaluation research was synonymous with programme evaluation (Shadish *et al.,* 1991) and was originally seen as an assessment of a programme's net effects (Rossi and Wright, 1984).

The social programmes being implemented by the government were raising political., managerial and intellectual concerns (Shadish *et al.,* 1991). The political concerns involved the regional and local governments wanting to take control of the social programmes within their region that were being implemented by the national government. The main managerial concern was that because these social programmes were new, there were few managers who had the relevant experience to implement these programmes. Lastly, the intellectual concern

was that social critics quickly identified that some social programmes implemented by the government were fraught with problems that made them inadequate in addressing the social needs identified (Shadish *et al.,* 1991). These concerns highlighted the need for some type of evaluation on programme success and the reasons for success or failure.

The United States government, within its different departments, contained a number of different qualifications including economists, sociologists, psychologists and educators (Rossi and Wright, 1991). This ensured that evaluations being conducted were of an interdisciplinary nature which facilitated a transfer of knowledge and craft lore across disciplinary boundaries (Rossi and Wright, 1984). Although academic institutions were slow to capitalise on this new opportunity for funding research, private entrepreneurs were quick to exploit it and by the middle of the 1970's there were between 500 and 600 firms bidding on contracts for applied social research (Rossi and Wright, 1984) and evaluation research emerged as a specialty field (Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman, 2004).

The first evaluations conducted in the 1960's were randomised, controlled experiments (Rossi and Wright, 1984). Here, the tendency was to focus on programme impact measurement while treating programmes as unexamined "black boxes" (Davis, 1990). This experimental design of evaluation uses "random allocation of subjects to experimental and control conditions to ensure that any potentially confounding variables are equally distributed between the two groups" (Bonner, 2003: 80). The theorists of this time were searching for immediately implementable solutions to social problems (Shadish *et al.,* 1991). Experimental design evaluation advises evaluators to maintain a distance from what is being evaluated so that the highest levels of objectivity are achieved (Shadish *et al.,* 1991). The result of these experiments was that although the success or failure of the programme was established, the mechanisms responsible for the observed outcomes were not explored (Yeh, 2000). It became apparent however that this type of evaluation was not suitable for many programmes as they could only be done correctly under very limited circumstances (Rossi and Wright, 1984).

This fuelled a strong interest in qualitative approaches to evaluation which were not as costly or time-consuming and were more responsive to administrator's needs (Rossi and Wright, 1984). Qualitative approaches also offered a broader insight into the social processes of the

programmes where quantitative research merely made it possible to determine whether or not there was an impact (Clarke, 1999). This qualitative research was in the form of a theory-based approach which has its origins in the critique of the experimental model for the study of social phenomena (Bonner, 2003). This "theory-based" evaluation does not mean an evaluation based on a theory but rather based on a theory of how a programme operates (Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, 1996).

Under the theory-based evaluation framework, the evaluations are not bounded by a particular method or methods (Worthen, 1996) but at each evaluation stage a comparison is made between reality as some standard or standards (Cole, 1999). The comparison will show the differences between a given standard and reality, and this information is given to those heading the programme who can then use the information to make adjustments to the programme (Cole, 1999). Where evaluators using the experimental design strived for objectivity, those using theory-based evaluation felt that although this method may be more subjective, it was essential for a true understanding of the programme's impact (Wortman, 1983).

"At the most elemental level, evaluation research is aimed at determining whether a programme was actually carried out. At a more complex level, research is concerned with the effectiveness and/or economic attributes of a program. Ideally such information should contribute to decisions about whether to expand, curtail or modify a programme" (Gordon and Morse, 1975: 339). Scriven (1980: 6-7) states that "Evaluation may be done to provide feedback to people who are trying to improve something (formative evaluation); or to provide information to decision- makers who are wondering whether to fund, terminate or purchase something (summative evaluation)". Formative evaluation is concerned with the implementation of measures that would determine how a programme is currently doing and enables quality assurance of the programme as well as an assessment of whether or not the outcomes are being achieved (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). Summative evaluation on the other hand, is much more formal and enables one to determine whether a programme has ultimately achieved its objectives (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002; Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). This evaluation is appropriate where the intention is to form a judgement about the absolute or relative merits of a particular programme (Calder, 1995). Summative evaluations

seldom rely entirely on qualitative data because of the decision makers are interested in measurable outcomes but qualitative data can be used to add depth and detail to the evaluation (Patton, 2002).

2.3. PROGRAMME EVALUATION

When evaluating a programme, there needs to be a multi-level assessment of the organisational functions that are associated with successful implementation. These functions can be influenced by the external environment, the management structures of the organisation, and the types of support services available to those participating on the programme (Lipsey and Cordray, 2000). Programme evaluation takes on a number of forms and three different views of programme evaluation will be discussed as they have developed over time.

Firstly, Morell (1979) introduced the "evaluation-type" continuum that the programme evaluations can be classified into three distinct themes: client comparison, follow-up and modality test. **Client-type comparisons** "are concerned with the relative effect of a program on various subpopulations of its members, between the characteristics of those who receive treatment versus those who do not" (Morell, 1979: 6). The objective is to identify the individuals or groups who are most likely to be helped by the programme. The questions asked are merely an expansion of the base question: Is the programme effective? This type of evaluation is consistent with the experimental design evaluation discussed earlier. **Follow-up evaluations** are those whose main effort is directed at those who have left the programme already and **modality testing** is concerned with the actual effectiveness of the programme and is where this study of formal mentoring programmes lies.

Owen and Rogers (1999) categorise programme evaluation into five forms. Firstly, **proactive evaluation** takes place before a programme is designed. The main purpose is to gather information on how best to implement a programme and this occurs prior to the planning stage. It involves a need analysis of the target audience, researching previous knowledge of programmes and reviewing best practices.

The second form is **clarificative evaluation** which focuses on "clarifying the internal structure and functioning of a program" (Owen and Rogers, 1999: 42). It involves the use of interviews, observation and document analysis to engage the intended outcomes of the programme and how the programme is designed to achieve them, which structures need to be modified to maximise the programme potential to achieve the objectives and whether or not the programme is feasible. The focus is on the design of the programme (Owen and Rogers, 1999).

Interactive evaluation provides information about the implementation of the entire programme or selected parts. This form has a strong formative component and is suitable for programmes that are evolving or changing. Evaluators will therefore provide information that is geared towards improving the programme. Issues that are engaged revolve around what the programme is trying to achieve and if this is consistent with the programme plan. It also looks at how the programme and organisation can change to make the programme more effective (Owen and Rogers, 1999).

The fourth form is **monitoring evaluation** which is appropriate when a programme is well established and ongoing. Issues that are considered are whether or not the programme is reaching the target audience, if the implementation is reaching its benchmarks, if the costs are rising or falling and how to fine-tune the programme to make it more efficient and effective (Owen and Rogers, 1999).

Finally, **impact evaluation** is used to assess the impact of a settled programme. This evaluation takes a summative form which assists in deciding whether to terminate the programme or whether to improve it and continue. This approach looks at if the programme has been implemented as planned, if the goals have been achieved, if the needs have been satisfied, and if the programme has been cost effective (Owen and Rogers, 1999).

In terms of the evaluation types identified by Owen and Rogers (1999), this research is a combination of clarificative and interactive evaluation. It is clarificative in that it uses interviews and document analysis to determine the extent to which the programmes are

achieving their outcomes but is interactive in that it is a formative study that will provide information aimed at making the programme more effective.

Finally, Babbie and Mouton (2001) recognise three types of programme evaluation: judgement-oriented evaluation, improvement-oriented evaluation and knowledge-oriented evaluation.

Judgement-oriented evaluations are "evaluations which are aimed at establishing the intrinsic value, merit or worth of a programme" (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 337). This type of evaluation involves asking questions such as: Did the programme achieve its objectives? Was it effective? Did the programme achieve its goals? Judgement-oriented evaluation involves summative evaluation and follows a deductive pattern where criteria of merit and worth are selected, standards of performance are set, performance is measured (often quantitatively) and results are synthesized into a judgement or value (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

Improvement-oriented evaluation uses a more inductive strategy where areas of strength and weakness emerge from a detailed study of the programme. This evaluation asks questions such as: What are the programme's strengths and weaknesses? Has the programme been properly implemented? Are the programme recipients responding properly to the intervention? It also involves some formative evaluation thereby making suggestions of improvement for the future (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Patton (1987: 23) calls this process evaluation and states that this type of evaluation is "developmental., descriptive, continuous, flexible and inductive". These evaluations are useful for dissemination and replication of programmes (Patton, 1987).

Knowledge-oriented evaluations are undertaken to improve one's understanding of how programmes work and to discover how people change their attitudes and behaviours over the course of the programme. The evaluation generates new knowledge (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

Once again, this study is a combination of judgement- and improvement-oriented evaluation which involves a formative evaluation of whether or not the programmes are achieving their goals and makes recommendations for improvement.

There is also a specific framework presented by Babbie and Mouton (2001) that shows that there are core dimensions that are characteristics of programmes and can be used in an evaluation of programmes (See figure 1).

FIGURE 1: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF SOCIAL PROGRAMMES
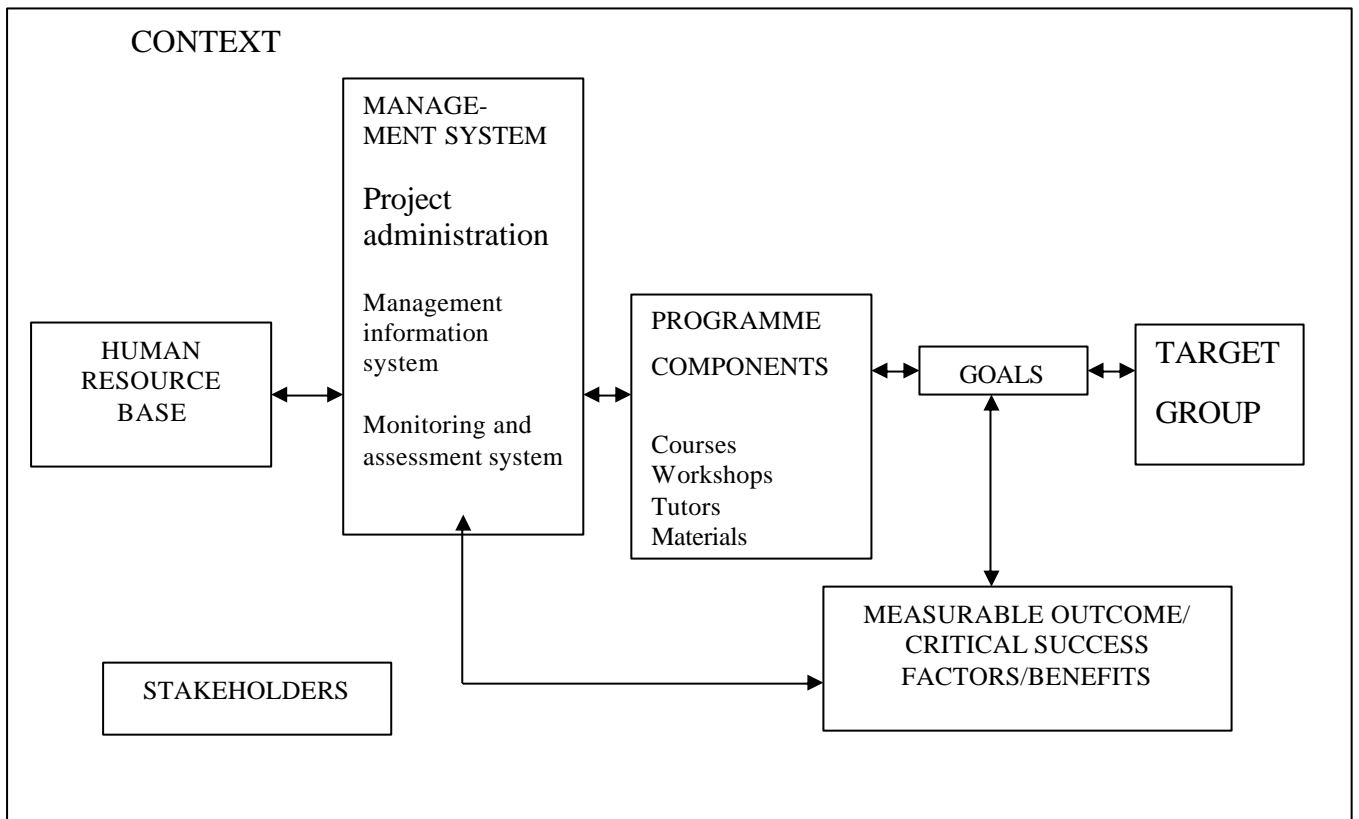
This framework highlights the fact that there is a unique relationship between the goals of the programme and the target group because programmes are conceptualised and designed to meet the needs of a particular target group. The goals then need to be translated into measurable outcomes. Both the goals and the outcomes need to be clear and unambiguous. The programme components ensure that the implementation of the programme leads to the desired goals and outcomes and an effort needs to be made by the organisation to ensure that there is a congruence between the components and the objectives. The programme management system refers to all the systems that are required to implement and manage the programme (the administrative systems, the monitoring systems and the information systems). The human resource base is the individuals who are managing the programme. Above this, there are stakeholders who have an interest in the success of the programme be

they founders, sponsors or the general public (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The final dimension of Babbie and Mouton's model (2001) is the context in which the programme is implemented which sometimes turns out to be decisive for its success. The context includes the broader socio-political context, the specific geographical location and the timing of the programme (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

In terms of formal mentoring programmes, there is a consideration that potentially makes the evaluation of a mentoring programme quite difficult. This is the question of whether the programme evaluation should be done in terms of the perspectives of the participants or of the organisation's goals and objectives. Lewis (1996) and Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999) answers that both should be taken into consideration. Thus, a measurement matrix was proposed in Figure 2:

FIGURE 2: THE BASIC ELEMENTS TO MEASURING MENTORING

	Process	Outputs
Programme level		
Relationship level		

(Source: Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999:18)

This model essentially looks at process and output evaluation relating to the programme and the specific relationships within the programme. Babbie and Mouton (2001) stress the importance of evaluating the process of a programme even if the outcomes are not evaluated. Measuring the programme-processes involves an aggregation of the experiences of the mentoring pairs looking specifically at what proportion of relationships succeeded and failed, whether there was a feeling of sufficient training and if there was enough support from the

programme. When measuring programme-outcomes one simply looks at whether the organisation has achieved its goals for example, increased retention of staff or increased competence of mentors and protégés. The relationship-process evaluation focuses on the intimacy of the mentoring relationships and asks questions on frequency of meetings, the rate of learning of the mentor and protégé and the development of trust. Finally, the relationship-outputs quadrant evaluates how the mentor and protégé fared in terms of the goals that were set. It must be noted that the ability of the mentoring pair to achieve its objectives or goals depends on the extent to which the programme objectives were clarified (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999).

2.4. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INFORMAL AND FORMAL MENTORING

There is little disagreement about the fact that the degree of formality of a mentoring relationship influences the dynamics and outcomes of the relationship (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002). The literature has in fact identified two types of mentoring namely; informal and formal. The basic distinction lies in the formation of the relationship; informal mentorships are not managed, structured or formally recognised by the organisation; in fact they are spontaneous without external involvement from the organisation (Chao and Walz, 1992). In contrast, formal mentorships are managed and sanctioned by the organisation (Chao and Walz, 1992). More specifically, in formal programmes, the initiation of the relationship is externally directed and the mentor and protégé are paired by a third party, programmes are contracted for a specific amount of time, the predetermined frequency and location of meetings are set, and the goals are set at the beginning of the relationship (Blake- Beard, 2001; Tyler, 2004). Formal mentoring within organisations is also generally conducted for specific categories of employees whereas informal mentoring can occur between any two people (Tyler, 2004).

Informal mentorships grow out of informal relationships and mentors often select protégés with whom they can identify and with whom they are willing to develop and devote attention (Chao and Walz, 1992). They arise because of a desire of the mentor to help the protégé and the willingness of the protégé to be open to advice and assistance (Chao and Walz, 1992). At

a practical level, organisations have tried to formalize this relationship as they have seen value in mentoring as part of their planned career development (Chao and Walz, 1992). The strength of informal mentoring lies in the development of strong, interpersonal relationships between the mentor and protégé (Siegel *et al.,* 1995) and with formal mentoring, "the intention is to try and approximate the informal model as closely as possible" (Dinsdale, 1998b).

Organisations would like to gain the benefits of mentoring, but would "rather not leave the potential gains for the firm and its employees to chance" (Siegel, *et al.*, 1995:5). Informal mentoring has shown to be very successful but researchers such as Cook and Adonisi (1994), Tabbron *et al.* (1997), and Blake- Beard (2001) have found that many formal mentoring programmes have failed to deliver as expected because of personality conflicts between mentor and protégé and lack of commitment (Kram, 1985). To prevent this from occurring, Moerdyk and Louw (1988: 26) state that the paradox of mentoring is that although the process occurs naturally, organisations are requiring it to be accelerated, and thus "an essential informal relationship needs to be formalized without destroying the informality".

Mentoring relationships have been identified to fall along a continuum from highly satisfying to dysfunctional and theory predicts that effective mentoring should be associated with positive career and job attitudes (Kram, 1985). In a study on a random sample of over 1000 individuals (43,9% with informal mentors, 9% having formal mentors and 47,2% having no mentor), using surveys and questionnaires, Ragins *et al.* (2000) found that in informal mentoring relationships, mentors provided more career functions than in formal relationships, but groups did not differ on organisational commitment, work role stress, or self esteem at work, possibly due to the fact that there are many other individuals within the organisation (coworkers, supervisors or friends) that can effectively fulfil this psychosocial role (Chao and Walz, 1992). Relationship satisfaction was reportedly lower in formal than in informal relationships and protégés with formal mentors also received less compensation and reported that their mentors performed fewer mentoring functions than informal protégés. Reasons for this could possibly be the fact that mentors and protégés are forced into the relationship due to their position within the organisation structure (Chao and Walz, 1992). Formal and

informally mentored individuals did not significantly differ in reports of job satisfaction or organisational socialization.

These results do not seem to hold much hope for formal mentoring programmes yet organisation's still view formal mentoring as a tool to develop leadership skills and to enhance the underdeveloped needs of employees (Friday and Friday, 2002). Alternatively Ragins *et al.* (2000) and Chao and Walz (1992) also showed that when *effectively* implemented, participants of formal mentoring programmes experienced greater career satisfaction, commitment and mobility, and it is these results that motivate organisations to pursue formal mentoring programmes.

2.5. DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMMES

Institutionalising mentorship has revealed the many problems that stem mainly from characteristics of the mentor and protégé and from elements of the programme itself. Like any programme that is implemented by an organisation, a mentoring programme "must also be implemented by using a carefully planned and professional approach in terms of both the process and content of the intervention" (Meyer and Fourie, 2004: 183). There are a number of models proposed that can aid in the implementation of these programmes yet there are also a number of factors that hinder the success of formal mentoring programmes. The models are discussed in terms of their ability to be used as an evaluation of formal mentoring programmes and the most comprehensive model (Berry, 2003) will also consider possible pitfalls that can occur within programmes.

Firstly, Greene and Puetzer (2002) suggest a four phase model: **Planning** (which includes setting goals for the relationship), **implementation** of the plan, **evaluation** of the relationship and providing **feedback** in both an informal (on a regular basis) and formal manner. The authors do recognise the need for top management support in their paper but this model does not aid much in evaluation as it lacks detail in the specific area such as: What about the plan should be evaluated? and, What is the process for implementation? This model seems too simplistic to use to fully evaluate a programme.

There is also a model developed by Kiltz, Danzig and Szecsy (2004) of the mentoring process which could possibly be looked at and used to evaluate the programme. This model is based on a formal mentoring programme for school administrators yet can be adapted for programmes within the business communities. The first step in the process is **recruiting and selecting participants**. Here, the co-ordinators of the programme develop a set of criteria for the selection of participants for the programme (Kiltz *et al.*, 2004). Although different organisations use different processes for selecting mentors and protégés, the idea is that they use the criteria established as a foundation for the process.

Once selected, the focus is on **preparation and initiation of participants** where the focus is on building trust, communication and understanding. Part of this stage is training of mentors on mentoring skills and establishing their role within the programme. The next phase is **negotiation between the mentor and protégé** where realistic expectations are set about the relationship. The fourth phase is focussed on **growth and learning** where the mentor assists the protégé with problems or conflicts that they may be experiencing. Where the mentor does not have the knowledge or expertise, it becomes an opportunity for the mentoring pair to discover and learn together. The final phase is characterised by **closure and redefinition**. Here the mentor and protégé "reflect on the learning and celebrate the growth and success" (Kiltz, *et al.*, 2004). The initial shortcoming of this model is that although it proposes that criteria of recruitment and selection should be established, it does not highlight what these criteria are thereby leaving the reader to assume that the criteria are dependent on the nature and goals of the programme. This model also does not highlight the importance of setting goals nor does it make provision for aligning the mentoring programme with the broader strategic plans of the business. There are some elements identified here that can be used in an evaluation especially those pertaining to the second and third phase.

Berry (1998) developed a model for implementing a formal mentoring programme which, when dissected and analysed, may make a useful tool against which to evaluate (Figure 3). There are a number of problems with this model such as there is no step for matching the mentors and protégés as well as there being no opportunity for evaluation of the programme. Berry (2003) recognised the flaws in his earlier model and proposed an updated model for

implementation of a formal mentoring programme (Figure 4). This will be discussed in detail on the following pages:

FIGURE 3: BERRY'S MENTORING IMPLEMENTATION MODEL

PHASE 1: ORGANISATIONAL NEEDS ANALYSIS
- Strategic plans
- Succession plans
- Employment Equity Plan/needs

PHASE 2: SELECTION OF CANDIDATES
- Competency criteria confirmed
- Candidates identified and selected (both mentors and mentees)

PHASE 3: ORIENTATION
- Intent and aims of programme clarified
- Role clarification and definition of each parties' responsibilities
- Mentoring contract
- Incremental orientation

PHASE 4: CANDIDATES' NEEDS ANALYSIS
- Establish training and development needs of both parties to meet the competency criteria met

PHASE 5: IMPLEMENTATION
- Determination of focussed development
- Relationship building between parties
- Learning projects and review sessions

PHASE 6: FEEDBACK AND EVALUATION OF RELATIONSHIP
- Monitoring and auditing
- Coaching the mentor/mentor to the mentee
- On-going support

PHASE 7: DISSOLVING THE RELATIONSHIP

(Source: Berry, 1998: 18)

The following figure (**Figure 4**) illustrates the improvements to the model above:

FIGURE 4: A THEORETICAL MODEL FOR ORGANISATIONAL MENTORING
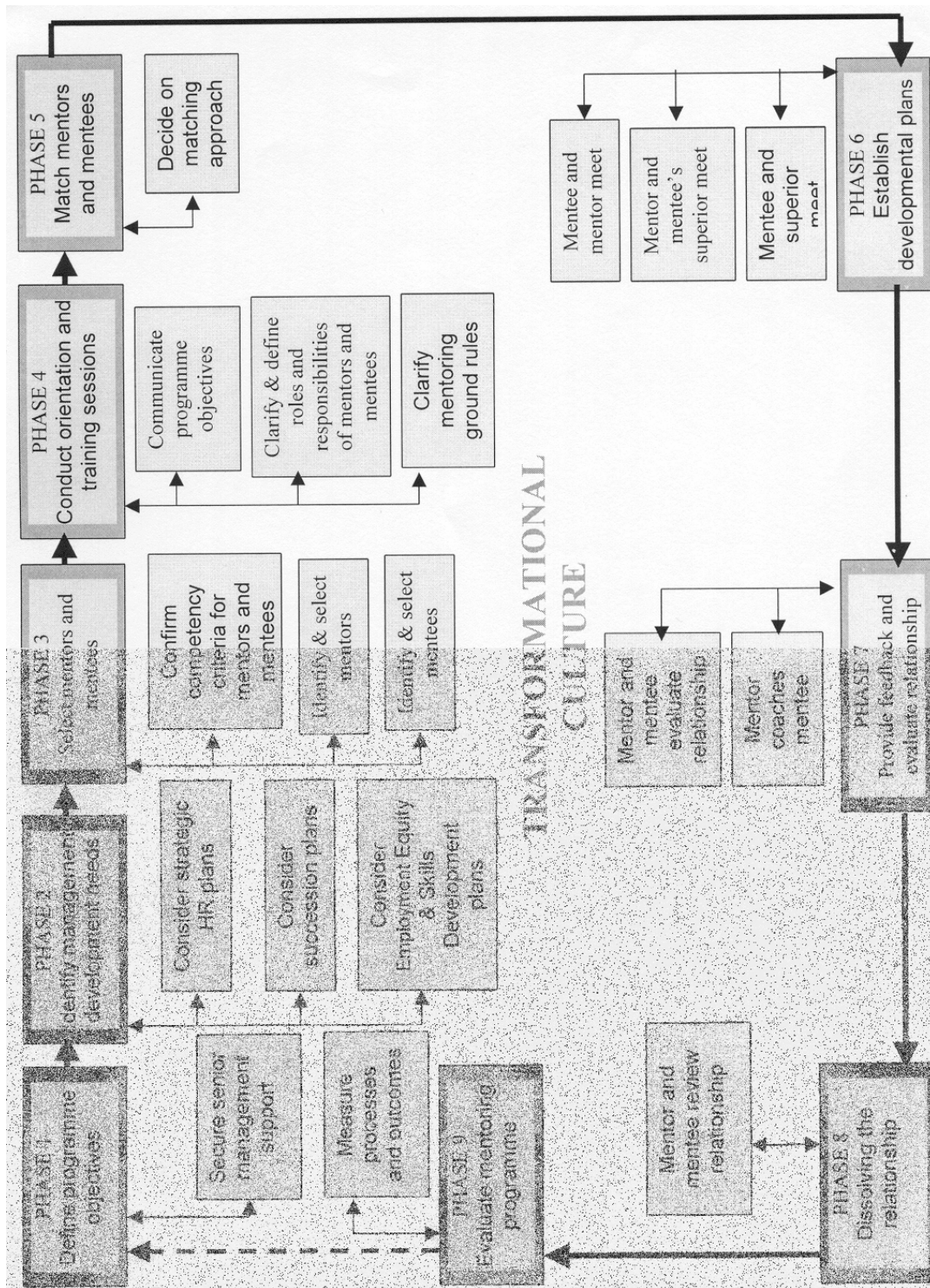
(Source: Berry, 2003: 165)

2.5.1. PHASE 1: DEFINE PROGRAMME OBJECTIVES

It is essential to ensure that the purpose of the programme is clearly understood by its participants and it is for this reason that objectives are formulated that are clear, concise and understood (Hofmeyr, Rall and Templer, 1995). Furthermore, these objectives are needed to convince top management of the programme and gain their support (Berry, 2003). This ties in with the model proposed by Babbie and Mouton (2001) where there is a unique relationship identified between the goals of a programme and the target group. Without these objectives, there is no base for any type of evaluation of the programme.

Concerning the mentors and protégés, there may be disillusion with the process if the expectations and objectives are misunderstood by one or both parties (Tabbron *et al.,* 1997). In an evaluation of studies on formal mentoring programmes, Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent (2004) found that 4.6% of the studies cited little knowledge of goals as a problematic outcome for mentors in terms of the success of the programme. When employees are not actively involved in planning the mentoring programme, Meyer and Fourie (2004) claim that the programme will fail as they will not fully understand the goals and objectives of the programme.

2.5.2. PHASE 2: IDENTIFY MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

A formal mentoring programme, like any programme in the organisation that aims to develop its employees, cannot exist in isolation in the organisation and be a complete success. In evaluating programmes, one needs to consider the management system and strategic human resource plans so that the required numbers of employees, with the required skills, are available when needed (Babbie and Mouton, 2001) and this is true of formal mentoring programmes. An effective mentorship programme will not be possible without the organisation's commitment to developing people and there should be no doubt in the minds of the mentors and protégés that this is the ultimate goal (Cook and Adonisi, 1994).

Furthermore, it is highly important to place the mentoring programme within the strategic framework of the organisation where the mentoring programme does not stand on its own but

is part of a larger career development initiative (Phillips- Jones, 1983; Oliver and Aggleton, 2002; Meyer and Fourie, 2004). If mentoring is integrated with other human resource and organisation systems, then the chances are greater that the programme will be a success (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Phillips- Jones (1983) suggests that the organisation provide support for mentors and protégés through a variety of good reading materials and other training resources. This is also suggested by Babbie and Mouton (2001) in their model of programme evaluation. An integrated approach will also ensure that there is support for any informal mentorships (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Cook and Adonisi (1994) stress that the organisation needs to have an unfailing commitment to developing people. Coupled with this the managerial succession plans should be taken into account so that as managerial positions become vacant, mentored employees can fill those positions. When developing mentoring programmes aimed at retaining and developing employees from designated groups, the mentoring programme co-ordinator should use their knowledge of the Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998) so that they can establish the extent to which mentoring activities are required to meet affirmative action targets (Berry, 2003).

A lack of commitment from top management may harm the success of the programme because acknowledgement from top management implies that the development of people is important to the organisation (Hofmeyr *et al.*, 1995). A commitment can be shown by simply committing the necessary resources to making mentoring work. Coupled with top management commitment is questioning of the organisation's commitment to employee development on the part of the protégés and mentors. It is necessary to understand that the goal is not merely to create a mentorship programme but rather to develop people (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

2.5.3. PHASE 3: SELECT MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

In the selection of mentors and protégés, mentoring programme co-ordinators need to confirm the competency criteria for the mentors and protégés. This ties in with the model proposed by Kiltz *et al.* (2004) earlier mentioning the need for this criteria base. From these criteria mentors and protégés can be selected. Mentors specifically should be selected in

terms of their willingness to serve as mentors as well as in terms of the competency criteria defined (Berry, 2003).

There are circumstances where mentors and protégés are forced into a mentoring relationship by virtue of their position and a lack of commitment from both mentor and protégé results (Cook and Adonisi, 1994) that can prevent success of the formal mentoring programme. Tabbron *et al., (1997)* firmly believe that there should be no forcing of a mentor onto a protégé but that there should rather be a choice. The mentors may also not have "the objectives of the programme at heart" (Meyer and Fourie, 2004: 165) and rather become involved in mentoring for their personal objectives. Mentors would need to be selected according to their interpersonal skills and their abilities to interact and support different views and cultures (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Protégés may also lack commitment when there is a lack of trust of managers and mentors and this causes protégés to not buy-in to the programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). There is evidence that programmes fail due to the fact that the protégé may not want to be part of the programme in the first place (Tyler, 2004) therefore every effort should be made to ensure that protégés buy-in to the value of the programme.

If the organisational culture does not support mentoring, the result may be jealousy from non-mentored employees in the organisation. Protégés are identified and targeted for accelerated development and other employees may feel that they have been overlooked and that they deserve to be a part of the mentoring programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). These non-mentored employees become resentful towards the protégés which creates negativity between employees in the working environment (Dirsmith and Covaleski, 1985).

2.5.4. PHASE 4: CONDUCT ORIENTATION AND TRAINING SESSIONS

The orientation and training sessions should address the objectives of the programme and assess what the expectations of the mentors and protégés are. The programme co-ordinator needs to ensure that there is a synergy between what is expected by the organisation and what is expected by the mentors and protégés. The roles and responsibilities of the mentors and

protégés should then be outlined and there should be agreement and commitment to the ground rules (Berry, 2003).

Training is highlighted as one of the most important aspects of all involved in the mentoring programme (Tabbron *et al.,* 1997). Eby, McManus, Simon and Russel (2000), and Hansford *et al*. (2002) found that lack of mentor expertise impacted negatively on the outcomes of the mentoring programme. In a review of 151 articles relating to business mentoring, Hansford *et al.* (2002: 111) found that in 6.6% of the studies, protégés commented that "their mentors were untrained, and thus, ineffective in their role".

Lack of mentor expertise can be divided into two broad categories: Interpersonal incompetence and technical incompetence (Eby *et al.,* 2000). This obviously has implications for selection practices and training and development. Research has shown that training of mentors can increase the probability of success of a mentoring relationship by 40% (Clutterbuck and Abbot, 2003). Meyer and Fourie (2004: 169) believe that insufficient training and other support structures "retard the implementation of mentoring interventions". The implication here is that sufficient training of mentors, such as understanding and applying the dynamics of mentoring, needs to occur to implement successful programmes (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Training should cover the roles of the mentor and protégé, competencies of mentors and protégés, pitfalls of the programme and the implementation process (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

Resistance to change can also negatively affect the success of a mentoring programme. As Meyer and Fourie (2004) highlight, many organisations in South Africa are implementing mentoring programmes as part of their employment equity and affirmative action plans and it is for this reason that people who feel threatened by employment equity will tend to resist the implementation of the programme. Mentoring also requires that management styles change to accommodate the mentors and line managers especially may feel that they are giving away their power over their subordinate by allowing the mentorship programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Other managers acting as mentors may feel that their jobs are being threatened by mentoring someone in their line of work (Amos and Pearse, 2002). It is therefore

important that these issues are raised in the training phase of the programme for the mentors and proteges (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

Furthermore, there should be communication throughout the entire organisation that highlights the concept of mentoring, reasons for the programme and its benefits for all employees, features of the programme, staff members responsible for the programme at corporate level, success stories and how the programme will be monitored and evaluated (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Mincemoyer and Thomson (1998) recommend that the perceived benefits of the programme are outlined clearly for both the mentor and protégé and that information is given about mentor and protégé roles so that there is no confusion as to what the programme is about or what is expected of the members. It is also suggested that mentors ensure that they are able and willing to commit the extra time needed and that communication lines are opened from the beginning (Zimmer and Smith, 1992).

2.5.5. PHASE 5: MATCH MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

One of the keys to success of a formal mentoring programme is finding a good match between the mentor and protégé (Phillips- Jones, 1983; Holloway, 2004; Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Once an organisation has identified people that would be suitable for a mentoring relationship, great care should be exercised in the matching of mentors and protégé's (Chao and Walz, 1992). There are a number of strategies that can be used to do this and it is debatable which one works best. Johnson, Geroy and Griego's model in Johnson and Scholes (1999) state that there are pitfalls with any matching approach which need to be known. Eby *et al.* (2000) found that mismatches occurred because of differences in values, work style and personality and Hansford *et al.* (2002) emphasise that incompatibility of this nature can clearly undermine the mentoring process.

Mentors and protégés that are matched based on similarity might fall into the trap where the mentor creates a person in his own image, but on the other hand a relationship that is matched on differences may be dysfunctional (Johnson and Scholes, 1999). The organisation needs to decide whether the programmes will run on a formal or non-formal basis as this will have an impact on the matching process (Berry, 2003).

A current practice of random assignment of protégés to mentors similar to that of blind dates; there would be a small probability that the match would be successful, but more attention to the selection phase would raise the probability that these would succeed (Chao and Walz, 1992). Phillips-Jones (1983) suggests that which ever way of matching is chosen, it is important to ensure that mentors have the commitment, expertise, power and time to help the protégés. Similarly, protégés should have the necessary skills and desire to be a part of the programme. Meyer and Fourie (2004) that there should be voluntary participation in the programme and self- initiated pairing between employees.

A sensitive issue that causes problems in some mentoring programmes is that of cultural diversity. Depending on the goals of the mentoring programme, some promising talent may be overlooked when choosing protégés for the programme because they are not of the right race or gender (Hansford *et al.*, 2002; Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Kalbfleisch and Davies (1991), in their study of 26 members of an organisation (both having served as mentors and/or protégés) found that black mentors play a significant role in developing black protégés. This has an impact if there are not sufficient black mentors to accommodate the upcoming black protégés. However, Wilson and Elman (2001) counter the argument that mentoring could stifle the fresh insights brought into the organisation and state that there should be an organisation wide effort to adapt the organisational culture to new environmental realities. Therefore the organisation needs to maintain a culture that supports mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985, Meyer and Fourie, 2004). This is highlighted by Berry (2003) in terms of the context of the mentoring programme: the model specifically depicts the mentoring model in the midst of a transformational culture.

2.5.6. PHASE 6: ESTABLISH DEVELOPMENTAL PLANS

Establishing developmental plans is an important step to clarify the protégé's short and long-term objectives in terms of the programme and their development. At this point the protégé's supervisor should be involved in the process as the final responsibility of the protégé's development rests with them. It is suggested that the protégé and supervisor meet prior to the protégé meeting with the mentor to discuss the protégé's development. Before the mentoring

relationship begins, the mentor should be in contact with the protégé's supervisor to discuss the development plans (Berry, 2003).

"The developmental objectives set by the supervisor and the mentee serve as a starting point for the first few discussions between the mentor and the mentee" (Berry, 2003: 179). This can also serve as an ice-breaker at the beginning of the relationship. This is also the point where the mentor and protégé discuss the goals of the protégé's development and of the relationship (Berry, 2003).

Pegg's (1999) "Five C" mentoring model (Figure 5 on the following page) suggests a useful way for mentors to conduct structured sessions during this phase:

FIGURE 5: "FIVE C" MENTORING MODEL
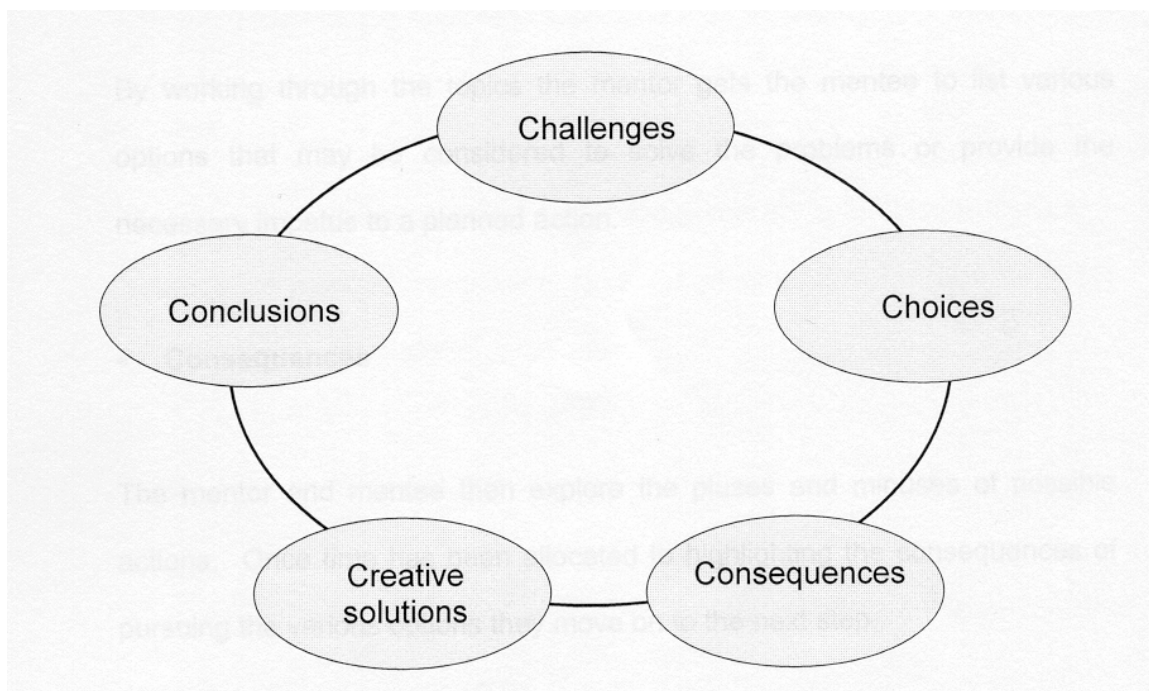
(Source: Pegg, 1999:136)

Pegg's (1999) model suggests that prior to the meeting with the protégé, the mentor should ask the protégé to forward a list of topics that they would like to discuss in terms of

challenges that the protégé thinks he will face. Aside from the developmental goals, these topics can be used as agenda items for the meeting. At the meeting, the mentor and protégé work through the challenges and list various ways to overcome those challenges. This is the "choices" area of the model. Following this, the mentor and protégé explore the advantages and disadvantages of possible actions. Once the consequences of pursuing the options have been discussed, the mentor plays the role of the listener as well as trying to steer the protégé towards creative and "perfect" solutions which will be based on the mentor's own experience. In the final conclusion phase, the mentor and protégé establish target dates for the challenges and the mentor encourages the protégé to pursue these plans (Pegg, 1999).

2.5.7. ENGAGING IN MENTORING

At this point of Berry's (2003) model there should be a phase for "Engaging in mentoring" where time is allowed for the actual relationship and programme to "get to work". Here, the model proposed by Johnson and Scholes (1999) can be employed. Johnson and Scholes (1999) developed a model to blend development with the dimensions of mentoring. They propose three interactive dimensions which shape the mentoring relationship namely socialisation, task and lifespan (Johnson and Scholes, 1999).

The **socialisation dimension** recognises that mentors and protégés exist within their own socialisations. Socialisation occurs in three stages: pre-formative, formative and post-formative. Individuals are in the pre-formative stage when they enter a new environment and are having to adjust. They reach the formative stage when they have been in the environment for some time, have adjusted to it and are comfortable. In a post-formative environment, the individual will experience more choice in selecting developmental relationships as they are very familiar with the context that they are in (Johnson and Scholes, 1999).

Work and family are major facets of the **task development dimension**. The "work" aspect is "a certain set of proficiencies needed to compete for and achieve satisfaction within the work environment" (Berry, 2003:150). The "family" facet incorporates the things that you would learn growing up such as coping with change, dealing with stress, communication, work and social balance and resolving conflict. The work and family facets should both be recognised

and discussed during the duration of the relationship as these aspects dictate what type of person you become and why (Johnson and Scholes, 1999).

The **lifespan dimension** refers to the change and growth of an individual over their lifetime. Where the mentor and protégé are in their individual level of lifespan development would influence their ability to stimulate change and growth in their relationship (Johnson and Scholes, 1999).

The model by Johnson and Scholes (1999) is based on the mentoring relationship interaction (mentor-protégé relational protocol). Based on this interaction, the relationship can be either a positive experience or it can be dysfunctional. The key to making the relationship work in this model is understanding all the dimensions and being aware of the differences between the mentor and the protégé and then using these differences to enhance the relationship (Johnson and Scholes, 1999).

Factors that may hinder the successful implementation of formal mentoring programmes while the mentoring pair is "engaging in mentoring" are identified as distancing behaviour and manipulative behaviour exhibited by mentors. In a study on 156 protégés, 26% of the studies found that mentors exhibited distancing behaviour whereby they neglect the protégé because the mentor may have been too self absorbed (Eby *et al.,* 2000). In the same study, 25% of protégés experienced the mentor using their position to exert some type of manipulative behaviour such as credit- taking and tyranny. Protégés also reported that their mentor lied to them on several occasions and could not be trusted (Eby *et al.*, 2000). This would cause a general break down in the relationship and thus inhibit the programme.

Lack of confidentiality (Illes, Glover, Wexer, Leung and Glazer, 2000; Meyer and Fourie, 2004) can also create a negative experience for protégés. As the mentoring relationship develops, the mentor and protégé begin to communicate more openly and frequently discuss documents, people or aspects of organisational culture. As these aspects may pertain to confidential issues, personal or organisational secrets that are not handled confidentially may damage the relationship or cause organisational problems (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

Another factor needing to be taken into consideration is the ability of mentors to devote sufficient time to the mentoring relationship: Illes *et al.* (2000), Hansford *et al.* (2002) and Meyer and Fourie (2004) found that a hindrance to a successful relationship is time needed for mentoring beyond already saturated schedules. Some programmes failed simply because mentors could not spare sufficient time to positively affect the relationship. In the studies reviewed by Hansford *et al.* (2002), 4% of the studies showed that mentors actually blocked the protégé's career by not having time or being available to the protégé and Ehrich *et al.* (2004) found that lack of time was the most common problem experienced by mentors.

2.5.8. PHASE 7: PROVIDE FEEDBACK AND EVALUATE RELATIONSHIP

There are two aspects to this phase: the first is that the mentor plays a coaching role towards the protégé and the second is that the mentor and protégé evaluate the relationship. The coaching role is not applicable to every day work issues but rather the mentor coaches the protégé on strategies and tactics to achieve developmental plans. Project work that had previously been set by the mentor is also reviewed at this stage (Berry, 2003).

Orpen's model (1997) (Figure 6), which was developed during a two-year study of a formal mentoring programme showed that the more often mentors interact with the protégés, the closer their relationships are likely to become. This in turn affects work motivation and organisational commitment positively which would improve job performance.

FIGURE 6: THE FORMAL MENTORING PROCESS MODEL
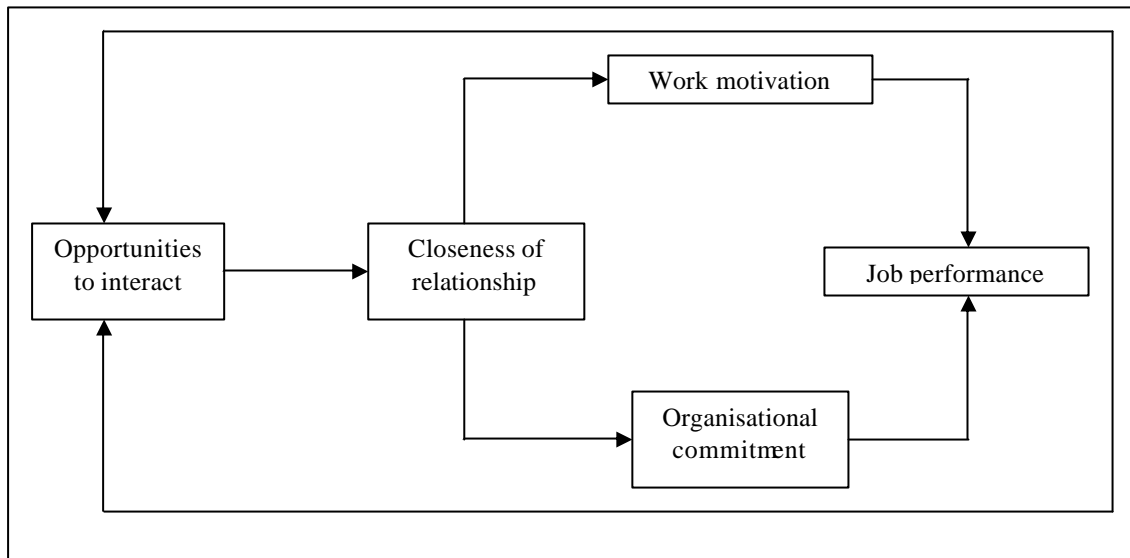
(Source: Orpen, 1997:53)

Monitoring as continuous evaluation is needed to see that the mentoring relationships are being managed effectively (Phillips- Jones, 1983; Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Feedback and evaluation meetings about the relationship can be rewarding for the mentoring pair but the nature of the feedback is largely dependant on the relationship that has developed between the mentor and the protégé. It is also necessary for the mentoring programme co-ordinator to ensure that the mentors and protégés are meeting regularly and find out whether they have discussed the future of the relationship in the event that some type of intervention is necessary (Berry, 2003).

2.5.9. PHASE 8: DISSOLVING THE RELATIONSHIP

There will come a time when the relationship will need to end. If the ending is premature because of an organisational factor such as transfer of the mentor, protégés who feel that the ending is too soon may experience feelings of uncertainty and anxiety (Berry, 2003). If a formal time limit has been built into the programme and is known from the start, it is natural for the mentor and the protégé to prepare themselves for the ending of the relationship well before the deadline date (Berry, 2003). Before ending the relationship formally, the mentor

and protégé should review the relationship in terms of the protégé's feeling about ending the relationship, what the relationship delivered, what it had not delivered, what can be expected in the future and the possibility of the mentor continuing to promote the protégé from a distance on a more informal basis (Berry, 2003).

2.5.10. PHASE 9: EVALUATE MENTORING PROGRAMME

Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999) state that the programme should be evaluated in terms of the relationship and programme processes and outputs. This evaluation can only be done effectively if the objectives and goals set at the beginning were specific and measurable (Berry, 2003). Assessment should cover the quality of the mentoring programme, performance of the mentors and protégés, and the mentoring relationship to ensure that progress is being made and objectives are being met (Hofmeyr *et al*, 1995).

Hansford *et al.* (2002: 114) recommend that mentoring programmes be subjected to "continued appraisal and refinement", and progress and results of a mentoring programme should be monitored to assess whether or not it is achieving its objectives (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Monitoring the programme will provide the necessary information as to whether the organisation should keep, expand or abort the mentoring programme. This will involve collecting information from both the mentors and protégés about the effect that the programme is having on their career and personal development and whether or not they think that the goals of the programme are being achieved.

2.5.1O.1. Devising Questions for Evaluation

Berry (2003) does not expand sufficiently on the evaluation phase and only states that an evaluation should be done. There is no detail as to what the evaluation should involve. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the starting point should be the goals and target group of the programme. This relates to Phase One of Berry's implementation model (Berry, 2003). Bearing in mind that both the programme and relationship processes and outcomes need to be covered in the evaluation (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999), one can systematically work through the literature surrounding Berry's Implementation model (2003)

to create a framework of questions for evaluation (See Appendix A and Appendix B), thus creating a "theory base" from which to evaluate.

The questions for each phase were devised according to the information provided by Berry (2003) about the phases of the model as well as other models and theory relating to that phase. For example Phase One of the Implementation model is "Define programme objectives" (Berry, 2003). Information on this phase concentrated on ensuring that the goals were clear, concise and understood by participants on the programme, therefore questions for the mentor and protégé were aimed at determining whether or not the participants knew what the goals were, how they were communicated, if that communication was effective and if the goals were being met (See Appendix A). The focus for the interview of the mentoring co-ordinator was on finding out how the goals were determined and how these contributed to the successful implementation of the mentoring programme (See Appendix B). In a similar fashion, the questions for the rest of the phases were generalised.

The main difference between the interview questions of the mentoring co-ordinator and those of the mentors and protégés, is that the questions for the mentoring co-ordinator were aimed at clarification of elements of the programme, whereas the mentor and protégé were asked to give their opinion on the effectiveness of the programme.

2.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

Formative evaluation provides feedback to organisations who are trying to improve on a programme and more specifically, monitoring evaluation is appropriate when a programme is established and ongoing (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Evaluation research became prominent in the 1960's with experimental design evaluation. This proved to be useful in determining whether or not a programme was a success but lacked the ability to inform programme stakeholders as to **why** the programme succeeded or failed (Rossi and Wright, 1984).

Authors such as Morrell (1979), Owen and Rogers (1999) and Babbie and Mouton (2001) proposed different types of programme evaluations. The nature of this research will cover modality testing (Morrell, 1979), clarificative evaluation (Owen and Rogers, 1999) and a

judgement-oriented evaluation (Babbie and Mouton, 2001) that looks at the extent to which the programme is achieving its goals or outcomes as well as interactive evaluation (Owen and Rogers, 1999) and improvement-oriented evaluation (Babbie and Mouton, 2001) that highlights information that will make the programme more effective by providing recommendations for improvement.

Informal mentoring has shown a number of benefits to mentors and protégés alike as well as to the organisations accommodating informal relationships (Hansford *et al.,* 2002). Organisations are trying to reap the benefits that these informal relationships bring by implementing formal mentoring programmes within the organisation (Scandura *et al.,* 1996).

Although very successful in other countries, formal mentoring programmes are poorly researched within the South African context and thus this research is necessary. For a thorough evaluation of a mentoring programme, the research draws on the models proposed by Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999), Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Berry (2003). Thus far there is no specific framework of evaluation yet one can be developed for the purpose of evaluating a formal mentorship programme. This will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS, PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

3.1. OVERVIEW

The previous chapter has provided a framework for implementing formal mentoring on which to base an evaluation of formal mentoring programmes. The chapter began with an introduction the evaluation research and focused on programme evaluation specifically as a tool to evaluate formal mentoring programmes. The relevant literature on mentoring is then outlined as a basis for developing a model on which to evaluate formal mentoring programmes within South African organisations. This chapter outlines the methodology to evaluate mentoring programmes in two types of South African organisations: a tertiary institution and a publicly traded company in the beverage industry. The research occurs within the qualitative framework and data is obtained through document analysis and interviews. The chapter ends by highlighting the limitations of this research.

3.2. THE RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

This research will occur within the qualitative and postpositivist paradigms (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). A paradigm is "a basic set of beliefs, a set of assumptions we are willing to make, which serve as touchstones in guiding our activities" (Guba and Lincoln, 1989: 80). Qualitative research is "any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 10). Within this paradigm, the ontology that the researcher holds is that of critical realism (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) where "Reality is assumed to exist but to be only imperfectly apprehendable because of basically flawed human intellectual mechanisms and the fundamentally intractable nature of phenomena" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 110). The epistemology of the postpositivist is that a dualist/objectivist assumption where it is possible to "approximate (but never fully know) reality" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 111).

Under this paradigm, emphasis is placed on "critical multiplism" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 110), a renewed version of triangulation. The aim of the inquiry is "explanation, ultimately enabling the prediction and control of phenomena, whether physical or human" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 113). Under this paradigm, one can use a theory-based evaluation to undertake the research (Rossi and Wright, 1984). Using this theory-based and theory-driven approach, theoretical analyses are undertaken beforehand to provide a base for the design of an evaluation. The "design will enable the researchers to judge the effectiveness of various program components and combinations of components; hence, it will serve as a basis for devising a new, more effective program in the future" (Rossi and Wright, 1984: 344).

This research will conduct a formative evaluation of two formal mentoring programmes to establish how the programmes are *currently* progressing. "The primary payoff from evaluating human resource development is the improvement of programmes" (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002: 951). The evaluation will be based on document analysis as well as the analysis of interviews conducted within a South African Higher Education institution and a South African based beverage company. The purpose is to provide feedback about the programme to the organisations implementing them (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

3.3. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The main aim of the research is to study and conduct an evaluation on formal mentoring programmes within South African organisations. A monitoring evaluation (Babbie and Mouton, 2001) will be conducted in two different organisations, one being a South African Higher Education institution (hereafter referred to as Organisation A or the Institution) and the other, a publicly traded company (hereafter referred to as Organisation B).

There are a number of reasons why two organisations were chosen: Firstly, it was felt that formal mentoring programmes differ among organisations because of the nature of the organisation and the goals of the mentoring programme. The two organisations evaluated are in different sectors. One is in the private sector, specifically in education and the other is in the public sector and thus it is expected that the nature of the programmes may be vastly difference. This said, it thus makes sense to evaluate two different types of organisations so

as to possibly increase the range of data collected about formal mentoring programmes within the South African context. Secondly, the challenges faced by a South African Higher Education institution are different to those faced by a publicly traded company (e.g. the nature of work and its supervision, the environment conditions) and thus the resultant issues that arise from these challenges may impact in different ways on the participants in a formal mentoring programme.

A secondary aim of the research is to provide feedback to the organisations on the results generated from the evaluation. The organisations can then use this information to possibly make changes to their programmes and thus make them more effective in the future. Conversely, the information generated by the evaluation may verify effective mechanisms that are already in place in the programme and organisations can then implement those effective mechanisms in future programmes.

A final aim of the research is to provide other researchers and South African organisations with a framework which they can use to evaluate formal mentoring programmes.

3.4. SAMPLING AND RESEARCH DESIGN

For purposes of this research, participants of the mentorship programme were chosen using purposive sampling (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2002). Purposive sampling was used to choose specific members of the organisation, namely those participating in the mentorship programme. Five mentoring pairs were chosen from one organisation and four from the other. It was felt that this would be sufficient to obtain information-rich data that would yield enough depth to perform a reasonable evaluation. Mentoring pairs were chosen to highlight possible issues that were relevant to both the mentor and the protégé and to establish whether those issues were because of the nature of the programme or merely the result of personal conflict. It was felt that this distinction was made because the evaluation is ultimately about the programme and not the mentoring relationship although issues in the relationship may affect the success of the mentoring programme.

The mentoring programme within the tertiary institution contained twelve mentoring pairs. An introductory letter was sent to all the protégés of the mentoring programme informing them of the research and asking them to participate. Of the twelve protégés, eight protégés responded. Six of the protégés expressed a willingness to participate in the research although two of those were concerned that their mentors were too busy. Of those six protégés, one protégé had concerns with regards to the interview: she was under the impression that the protégé interviews may be conducted with the mentor present and she was not comfortable with that arrangement. The researcher apologised for the misunderstanding and clarified that the mentor and protégé interviews would be individual interviews and the mentor would not have access to the information given by the protégé. The protégé was then willing to participate in the research. The seventh protégé stated that she had recently been removed from the mentoring programme as she had received a full- time post and was therefore not a valid subject in terms of the research. The eighth protégé expressed a willingness to participate in the research however, her mentor was away at the time of the interview and thus made that mentoring pair unavailable. The last four protégés did not respond to the request to participate in the research and no attempt was made to find the reasons for the unwillingness to participate as five mentoring pairs were thought to be sufficient for the research.

The next step was to email the mentors of the protégés that had responded. All six mentors responded. Four responded immediately to the email indicating that they would like to participate in the research and plans were made to set up interviews. The last two mentors had large work commitments. One was only available at a much later date and so was thanked for his willingness to help and would be contacted if the researcher needed further information. In the end, it was not necessary to contact this mentoring pair as there was sufficient information on which to base the evaluation. The other expressed that he would like me to contact him telephonically to set up an interview time. This was done and the time was confirmed.

Sampling within the publicly traded company was mostly out of the direct control of the researcher. The national programme co-ordinator was contacted to gain access to the programme and she identified six mentoring pairs that she thought were within reasonable

travelling distance of the researcher. One mentor was not within a reasonable travelling distance of the researcher and it was decided that the researcher would concentrate on the mentoring pairs that were a closer distance to travel. This narrowed the field to five mentoring pairs. This would have been ideal., but yet another mentor withdrew from the research due to high demand work commitments.

The researcher decided that for these interviews the mentors should be contacted first as they were assumed to have more demanding schedules due to their higher management positions within the organisation. The mentors were contacted telephonically over the space of a month to set up interviews for both them and their protégés. One mentor had two protégés and this was dealt with as two mentoring pairs. Once telephoned, the mentors contacted their own protégés to set up interview times for the researcher.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection is an essential step in conducting an evaluation. The first step in the process was to gain access to the formal mentoring programmes. In both organisations, access was granted by the head of the mentoring programme and the Human Resources Department. The data collection methods employed in this evaluation were document analysis and interviews with the programme co-ordinator, the mentors and the protégés. The nature, advantages and disadvantages of document analysis and interviews will be discussed below.

3.5.1. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

The first step in the evaluation was to obtain relevant formal documents from the organisations such as policies relevant to the mentoring programme. These are official documents belonging to the companies (De Vos *et al.*, 2002) and were obtained from their Human Resources Departments (HR). De Vos *et al.* (2002) suggest that the validity and reliability of the documents needs to be evaluated as there is often a time lag between the document being written and the event occurring and this could lead to inaccuracies. It is recommended that this validation occur either by a) requesting the author to read the entire document and present a critique; compare the documents with each other; or to interview someone involved with the project and compare the interview with the written document

(Babbie and Mouton, 2001). For this research, it was decided that interviewing the programme co-ordinator was the ideal course of action to verify the documents.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to document analysis. The advantages are that there is relatively low costs, non- reactivity (no person is aware that they are being studied) and the researcher does not need to make contact with the respondent (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). The disadvantages are that these documents may be incomplete, contain bias, be unavailable or lack a standard format (De Vos *et al.,* 2002).

The documents obtained from Organisation A described the employment procedures and regulations of the programme as well as the report on the progress of the mentoring programme for the years, 2002 and 2004. The documents for 2003 were not available at the time the research was being done. The documents stated that the purpose and intent of the programme was to "accelerate the academic careers of individuals from designated groups thereby better equipping them to compete for permanent positions at [the Institution]" ([Institution], 2004a). The term of "designated groups" is defined in terms of the South African labour legislation and includes "blacks- Africans, Coloureds and Indians, women and the disabled" ([Institution], 2002).

The documents also state that participants must be postgraduate students from a South African or Southern African University who meet certain requirements. These include: if holding an honours degree, they should be under registration for a Masters Degree and have to achieve an acceptance of the research proposal by the end of the first year of contract. The procedures and regulations document ([Institution], 2004a) also contains the selection criteria for protégés, selection and placement procedures and the conditions of placement. The interviews will be used to verify that this information is indeed accurate and that the documents are being used as a guideline for the programme.

Unfortunately, no documents were obtained from Organisation B for the purposes of the research. The organisation was not comfortable releasing documents and stated that all information that was needed could be obtained from the interviews.

3.5.2. INTERVIEWS

An interview is "a conversation where one person – the interviewer – is seeking responses for a particular purpose from the other person: the interviewee" (Gillham, 2000: 1). Qualitative interviews are increasingly employed as a research method in their own right as conversations today are regarded as essential for obtaining knowledge and information about the social world where the subject matter are meaningful relations to be interpreted (Kvale, 1996).

There are several disadvantages to face- to face interviews: firstly, they are extremely time consuming and secondly, the time- cost factor is often under- estimated in terms of developing the interview, travelling to and from the location, transcribing the interview, and analysing the interview (Gillham, 2000). The main advantage however is the richness and vividness of information that you obtain through a personal interview. "General statements, no matter how well written, can convey less, and with less impact, than a direct quotation from an interview…" (Gillham, 2000: 10).

Because of the disadvantages of document analysis such as the possibility of them being incomplete or in the case of Organisation B, not being available, the researcher conducted face- to- face interview with the person in the Human Resources department who heads the team that is implementing the formal mentoring programme (hereafter referred to as the mentoring programme co-ordinator). During this interview, the form of reporting the results of the evaluation and issues of confidentiality were clarified, and the following information elicited: the overall objectives of the programme and the outcomes that the organisation hopes to achieve. They were also asked to verify that the documentation was relevant, reliable and valid (De Vos *et al.*, 2002), and is actively used within the implementation of the mentorship programme. With regards to the [Institution] mentoring programme co-ordinator, the relevancy, reliability and validity of the documentation was clarified during an informal introductory interview prior to gaining access to the mentoring programme. The interview with the programme co-ordinator was more in-depth than the interviews with the mentors and protégés. The researcher felt that this was necessary in order to gain as much information as possible about the mentoring programme as well as learn about any specific issues that have

arisen over the course of the programme so that these could be discussed in the interviews with the mentors and protégés if appropriate.

The information obtained from the document analysis and interviews with the HR Department provided a framework for interviewing both mentors and protégés within the organisations. This information was the starting point from which all evaluations were derived. The interview questions were organised in themes according to the mentoring implementation model proposed by Berry (2003). The nature of the questions was dependant on the literature that was relevant to each phase as developed in Chapter Two. Although organised into the themes proposed by Berry's (2003) implementation model, the set of questions included areas of importance for evaluating formal mentoring programmes as noted by the models of Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999) and Babbie and Mouton (2001). The model that the interviews are based on did not specifically have an "implementation" step and so this was added for purposes of the interview. The interviews also had a set of introductory questions to obtain certain biographical and general data about the participants (See Appendix A and B).

From the interviews with participants, the researcher knew the precise aims and goals of the programme and was required to evaluate the programme to determine firstly whether these were being met as proposed by the first phase of the Mentoring Implementation Model (Berry, 2003). The remainder of the phases were evaluated according to the theory developed in Chapter Two.

Before the main sets of interviews were done, the interview questions were the subject of high scrutiny by the supervisor to establish their validity within the context of the research. Once changes were made, the researcher requested that someone else in the Management Department view the questions to critique their structure and wording to ensure that the questions flowed and would be understood by the parties being interviewed. There were minor changes that took place at this point.

The final step was a mock interview set up with someone that was participating in an informal mentoring relationship. The researcher at the time of the mock interview did not

have access to someone that was participating in a formal mentoring programme. This was however not problematic as the test was whether the questions were simple enough to be understood, yet were also able to gather sufficient information. Once again very minor changes were made to the interview questions.

Prior to the interviews with the mentors and protégés, each interviewee was asked to sign a letter of consent (Appendix C), to assure them of their anonymity and to reinforce the agreement that any information obtained from the interviews about the programme would be used only for the purposes of the research. The interviews were conducted over a couple of weeks and permission was obtained to audio- record and transcribe them. The researcher thus had official documents, interview transcriptions, and additional notes to base the evaluation on.

3.6. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis will occur within a framework from the combined models of Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999), Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Berry (2003). In light of this framework, data analysis is "the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data" (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). Data refers to information collected in the interviews, documents, field notes and transcriptions (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). There are five steps to analysing data: collecting and recording data; managing data; reading and memoing; describing, classifying and interpreting; and representing and visualising (De Vos *et al.,* 2002).

Data collection and recording should be planned and done in a systematic manner. Data collection involves the collection of data on- site by recording interviews. In the data collection stage, the researcher utilised techniques such as data triangulation (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) and the development and testing of a working hypothesis (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data and therefore it was required that the material being coded represented a subsample of two or more specific samples used in the research. The researcher identified three subsamples: mentors, protégés and programme co-ordinators. The interview transcripts of these subsamples were the basis for developing the code (Boyatzis, 1998).

Managing data was the first step in data analysis away from the site. It involved organising data into appropriate files and folders to make it easily retrievable and manipulable (De Vos *et al.*, 2002).

After the organisation of data, the researcher became familiar with the data by **reading and writing memos**. Marshall and Rossman (1985:113) in De Vos *et al.* (2002:343) state that reading through the data more than once "forces the researcher to become familiar with these data in intimate ways. People, events and quotes sift constantly through the researcher's mind…" and writing memos "…helps in the initial process of exploring a database".

The phase of **describing, classifying and interpreting** aided in identifying themes and recurring ideas that link people and settings together. This is the most challenging phase of data analysis (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). Thematic analysis was used at this stage to generate a code based on the formal mentoring theory. Each of the phases of the Mentoring Implementation Model (Berry, 2003) was given a coding phrase. The code was then applied to the raw data obtained from the programme co-ordinator, the documents available, and finally to the mentor and protégé interview transcripts.

It was during this phase that the researcher realised that multiple phases of the model could be evaluated together. For example, data about programme objectives was closely related to identification of management development needs, specifically with regards to obtaining top management support. Consequently, these were coded under "The goals of the mentoring programme". Similarly, the "selection of mentors and protégés" and "matching" contained data that were related and were thus coded as "Selection and Matching practices". Common themes were established with the remainder of the data which was synthesized into the following themes: the goals of the mentoring programme; the roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés, supportive resources, factors of the organisational context that affect the relationship and monitoring and evaluation of the programme and the relationship. The researcher used a "compare-and-contrast" (Boyatzis, 1998: 42) process to extract observable similarities and differences between the research and the subsamples.

In the final phase, the researcher **presented** the data in some sort of **visual** form to depict the relationships among concepts. Early diagrams were not elaborate but became more complex with time. These diagrams may be in the form of pictures, tables or matrices: whichever means that enable the researcher to depict the various themes (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

3.7. CRITERIA FOR JUDGING QUALITATIVE DATA

Qualitative researchers reject the notion that there is a reality external to their perception of it and therefore, the criteria for judging qualitative data is different from that of quantitative data (Trochim, 2002). According to Guba and Lincoln (1985) there are four alternative criteria for judging the trustworthiness of qualitative data; namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Credibility involves establishing that the results of the research are believable from the perspective of the participant in the research (Trochim, 2002). There are a number of strategies proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1985) that would make the data more believable:

1) *Prolonged engagement:* This is the strategy of allowing sufficient time to learn the culture of the organisation, to test for misinformation and to build trust; so as to fully understand the phenomenon within the context which it is embedded.

The culture of Organisation A was learnt through the researcher's personal experience of studying at the Institution. Because the researcher had been a part of the same organisation as the mentors and protégés, she was able to better empathise with the issues raised in the interviews within the context of the organisation.

The researcher was unable to understand the culture of Organisation B as fully as she understood that of Organisation A, because of a lack of exposure to the organisation. There was an attempt made to research the organisation, its structures and the mentoring programme to become more familiar with the culture. The interviews in Organisation B generally took more time than in Organisation A in an attempt to create a rapport with the interviewee so as to build trust.

2) *Triangulation:* According to Denzin (1989: 236), triangulation is "the use of multiple methods" to "partially overcome the deficiencies that flow from one investigator or

method". This research will triangulate by method or "different data collection modes" (Guba and Lincoln, 1985: 306). Guba and Lincoln (1985: 306) further state that in qualitative research this is important because "while triangulation by methods may be difficult, it is very much worth doing because it makes the data believable" and makes the data more credible.

Data triangulation was used for the purposes of this research (Guba and Lincoln, 1985; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). This involved the collection of data in three different ways: document analysis, interviews and field notes as a means to verify the information obtained.

3) *Referential adequacy:* This involves materials such as audio or video taping to document findings. Although these may be obtrusive, they provide a good record (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

Referential adequacy was ensured by audio-taping the interviews and then transcribing them at a later time while referring to field notes. This ensured a thorough record of the information stated by interviewees.

4) *Member checks:* Data, interpretations and conclusions are tested with the participants from whom the data was originally collected. This is the most crucial technique for establishing credibility and is essential as participants are given the opportunity to react to constructions of realities. It also provides an opportunity to correct errors immediately.

At the close of the interview, participants were asked whether or not they would like the transcriptions sent to them as a means to verify the information they supplied or to correct any information that arose from a misunderstanding of the question. All the participants except the mentoring co-ordinator of Organisation A declined, stating that they were either too busy to go over the transcriptions or they thought that the questions were understood. The researcher accepted their view and a member check was only performed on the mentoring co-ordinator of Organisation A. Here there were a number of small changes to the information and these were noted and taken into account in the evaluation.

Transferability refers to the extent to which the results can be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings (Babbie and Mouton, 2001, Trochim, 2002). This however is problematic as this external validation is something that quantitative researchers would attempt to do (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). What the qualitative researcher can do under this principle is to "set out working hypotheses together with a description of the time and context in which they were found to hold" (Guba and Lincoln, 1985: 316) and the person "who wishes to 'transfer' the results to a different context is then responsible for making the judgement of how sensible the transfer is" (Trochim, 2002: 1). De Vos *et al*. (2002) state that one way to enhance research generalisability is to triangulate multiple sources of data, which is what this research attempted to do.

Dependability "emphasises the need for the researcher to account for the ever- changing context within which the research occurs" (Trochim, 2002: 2). Positivists assume that studies are able to be replicated but within the qualitative paradigm, replication is not possible because if you "replicate" the study, you are in fact constructing two different realities. Here, the researcher is continuously constructing the social world (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). The qualitative researcher must however provide evidence that if the study were to be repeated with the same or similar respondents in the same or similar context, the findings would be similar (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

In an attempt to establish dependability, the researcher began the research by explaining the context of the study in sufficient detail. Secondly, there was an explanation of context differences between the two organisations which verifies why the results of the two different programmes are different. Thirdly, rich and in-depth data is presented (often in the form of direct quotes) so that the context is more apparent to the reader.

Confirmability captures the traditional concept of objectivity (De Vos *et al.,* 2002). This refers to the degree to which the results can be confirmed by others (Guba and Lincoln, 1989) and thus "remove evaluation from some inherent characteristic of the researcher (objectivity) and place it squarely on the data" (De Vos *et al.,* 2002: 352). The mentoring co-ordinator of Organisation A confirmed the information that was used in the evaluation of the data and aided by providing new information at that stage that could further expand the evaluation.

3.8. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Over the course of the research period, there were a number of limitations which may have influenced the outcome results in this evaluation. Firstly, the research was limited to five mentoring pairs in one mentoring programme and four mentoring pairs in the other. This was due to lack of access to more mentoring pairs because of time constraints. The researcher did feel however that this number of interviews would be adequate to gain enough information for an effective evaluation.

By obtaining data through interviews, there is the possibility of distorted responses due to personal bias, anger and anxiety as the answers given in interviews depends greatly on the emotional state of the interviewee at that time (Patton, 2002). This limitation unfortunately could not be avoided.

To form a basis for the interviews, programme documentation was obtained from Organisation A. The limitation is that there may have been some incompleteness and inaccuracies although the programme was questioned on the validity and reliability of the documentation. Another limitation is that the researcher was not given access to any of the programme documentation in Organisation B. An attempt was made to overcome this with a more in-depth interview with the co-ordinator of the programme.

The mentoring pairs that were interviewed were also at various stages of the programme which may have distorted the evaluation somewhat in terms of the data that was yielded. For example, some mentors and protégés were unable to give an account of the methods of evaluation already employed by the mentoring programme because they had not yet reached that point of the programme. In Organisation A, the interviews were conducted at a time when there was anxiety about the protégé's future job prospects and this may have distorted the results in terms of the future of the protégés at the end of their formal mentoring relationships.

There was no possibility of testing the effectiveness of the programme through an experimental design because a control group was not feasible. This control group would have

consisted of people that were eligible for the programme but were not on the programme (Peterson, 1997). Besides the ethical issues raised, this would have been impossible in Organisation A as there were no eligible candidates within the organisation in terms of the entrance criteria to the programme. As for Organisation B, according to the goals of the mentoring programme, if employees have potential to be developed for management positions and have been in the organisation for a reasonable amount of time, then they would be or would have been on the programme.

A final limitation is that there is no specific evaluation framework that the evaluation could be based on and the researcher therefore attempted to develop one. Being the first model of its kind, it stands to reason that future research may criticise the model in terms of what is lacking. This is unavoidable but the hope is that those who criticise, will build on and improve the model to aid evaluation in the future.

3.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the methodology used to evaluate formal mentoring programmes within two South African organisations. A sample population was obtained using purposive sampling and the sample consisted of five mentoring pairs in one organisation and four in the other. Mentoring pairs were chosen to highlight issues that were relevant to a particular mentoring pair or to multiple mentoring pairs. Data was collected using document analysis and interviews. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed but permission was obtained from the interviewees prior to the interview. The data obtained was coded and evaluated according to six themes identified during the "describing, classifying and interpreting" stage of data analysis (Boyatzis, 1998). The theory-based approach to evaluation was used to compare the information obtained to the relevant theory concerning the success of formal mentoring programmes. The results of this comparison are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. OVERVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to provide an account of the results obtained from the data collected from the documents received from Organisation A as well as interviews with the mentoring pairs and the mentoring programme co-ordinators of the two programmes, as compared to the literature presented in Chapter Two. To add richness and clarity to the results, direct quotations are included where relevant. Anonymity of the interviewees is protected and so no names are revealed. However, to create a context, a background of the mentors and protégés is provided but is hopefully presented in such a way that only that the mentoring pair will recognise the information presented in the background. Although the literature is consistent with that which is presented in Chapter Two, the results are not presented in the form of any one model but rather in the themes identified in Chapter Three, namely, the goals of the mentoring programme, the roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés, selection and matching of mentors and protégés, supportive resources, factors of the organisational context that affect the relationship and monitoring and evaluation of the programme and the relationship.

4.2. THE MENTORING PAIRS

The mentoring pairs are introduced as a means to facilitate the understanding of the mentors, protégés and their relationship. The same way that it is important to create the context of the research, it is just as necessary to create an understanding of the background of the mentoring relationships and thus each mentoring pair is described according to the information obtained in the interviews.

4.2.1. ORGANISATION A

4.2.1.1. Mentor A and Protégé A

Mentor A is a white male who began in the Institution in 1997 as a Senior lecturer and worked his was up to becoming an associate professor. His highest qualification is a PhD. He has not been only in academe but worked in a museum as a researcher and then joined a environmental department before coming to work in the Institution.

Protégé A is a white female and a lecturer in the Institution. She began working in the Institution in 2003 after studying full time in the same Institution. She states that she is part of the mentoring programme as a requirement of her job only and has not found the programme to be particularly beneficial. She explicitly states that she "expected more in terms of career help which I didn't get".

Mentor A is part of the programme because he was asked by the protégé and "it sounded like a great idea". He stated that his understanding of the term mentoring is a guidance process where he tries to sort out problems that the protégé might have in terms of adjusting to the university system. He has not found the experience challenging because his protégé was familiar with the department and the Institution and from his point of view, she had no major problems. On the other hand, Protégé A felt that her mentor was lacking sufficient expertise on academic issues such as problems with teaching and felt she needed more academic guidance.

There is a sense that actual mentoring is lacking in this relationship as mentor and protégé only meet if there is a problem with the protégé's research. Protégé A gave an indication that this is the only guidance that she received from her mentor. There is no evidence of the other career and psychosocial functions identified by Kram (1985) in the literature or defined by the programme. This could partly be due to the fact that this mentoring pair do not see a difference between the supervisory role and the mentoring role because this mentor was also the supervisor of the protégé for her research. The relationship never developed to encompass

the advantages of being in a mentoring relationship such as sponsorship, role modeling, counseling; it was more of a coaching relationship.

4.2.1.2. Mentor B and Protégé B

Mentor B is a white male who began in the Institution in 1987 after working in a family business, and various organisations and institutions relevant to his field. He started in the Institution as a Professor and remains in the same position although he is also Head of Department.

Protégé B is a white female who began in the Institution this year as a lecturer. After being a high school teacher for three years she has been fully immersed in the academic world and has previous lecturing experience. She has completed a Masters and a PhD.

Being part of a mentoring programme is Protégé B's dream and she speaks highly of her mentor. She states: "I trust him as someone who's… who's wise and reliable and he's out for my best interests" and says that "he's a great example of what a mentor should be". She views her role in the programme as giving as much as she can while continuously watching, listening and learning. She is sometimes afraid to ask questions because she feels that her mentor is very busy and she does not want to trouble him but she does not feel that this has hindered her progress at all.

Mentor B also talks very positively about the relationship with his protégé. He views mentoring as a means of providing guidance and perspective that the young academic needs in coming to terms with the challenges and practicalities of teaching and undertaking research in an academic institution and helping with career planning. He has felt that it is a huge benefit that his protégé completed her PhD before coming on to the programme as he now feels that she is adequately equipped to be involved with research students. Both the mentor and the protégé see their relationship continuing in a similar capacity after it is formally due to end.

There is evidence of exposure-and-visibility and coaching as they work on large, external research projects together. The mentor is a successful role model for his protégé and is effective in a counseling role as Protégé B has had some family trouble which he has supported her through.

4.2.1.3. Mentor C and Protégé C

Mentor C is a white male and was first part of the Institution in 1973 and spent 20 months in administration. He returned in 1982 as a Professor for five years and then went to another University for fourteen years after which he returned to the Institution. He is not only the mentor for this protégé but also her Head of Department.

Protégé C is a "coloured" female received her Masters from the Institution while working for another tertiary institution as a junior lecturer. For the approximate ten years before returning to the Institution, she worked within government, and a parastatal and began her PhD. She is currently completing her PhD that was begun in 1999.

Mentor C says that he is part of the mentoring programme because he was asked and because it is good for his department. The relationship between these two individuals seems to be strained at times and both participants state in their interviews that this has not been an easy case. Protégé C feels that the difficulties in their relationships are due to the fact that Mentor C is not in her field of interest and Mentor C feels that the difficulties are because he is not her supervisor for her research. In fact he states that this factor was detrimental to their relationship. Although Protégé C is actively participating on the programme to publish and to build up her teaching experience, she recognises that her future does not lie in the Institution and admits that it is for this reason that she has no commitment to the department or her students.

Protégé C stated that mentoring stretched across the professional and personal spheres and noted that the ideal mentoring relationship for her would be one where you could talk about, among other things, being out of control in your personal life. She felt that she was not able

to do this with her mentor even though he sees his role as that of a professional parent where one can talk to the protégé about what is going on for them in their lives.

In the interview with Mentor C, the researcher found him to be arrogant in answering some of the questions and at one point, when talking about the training he, in a very disinterested manner, claimed that he thought the "workshop was rubbish" because "every workshop you go to was designed by someone who doesn't know what they are talking about". Mentor C also postponed the interview at the last minute, rescheduled and then was not available at the time that he scheduled for. It is actions similar to this that the Protégé had also experienced and finds difficult to work with. Protégé C feels that the fact that Mentor C was chosen for her created a negative experience of the programme. When asked about his level of commitment, she claimed that he is only committed in theory.

In general, there seems to be no evidence in this relationship of either career or psychosocial support and in the view of the researcher, this relationship can be labelled as dysfunctional.

4.2.1.4. Mentor D and Protégé D

Mentor D is a white female who started as a part-time lecturer in the Institution in 1996. This was after she taught at high school level and became a Vice-Principal. She is currently employed as a lecturer in the Institution. She has several degrees including an honours degree, Masters degree and is currently completing her PhD.

Protégé D began in the Institution this year as a lecturer and holds two Masters degrees and a PhD. He is not totally unfamiliar with the Institution because when he did some research within the Institution in 2002, it was in this particular department and returned this year to take up this post.

Neither Mentor or Protégé D have participated in formal mentoring programmes previously but Mentor D states that because of the nature of the department within which she works, mentoring has always been part of what she has done. Protégé D is very unsure of the formal mentoring programme and admits that he is only on it because it is part and parcel of the job

he was offered. He feels that because he is mature and has taught for many years, a mentoring relationship would be more appropriate if he was younger and new to the world of academia.

Their relationship is unique compared to that of the other participants because firstly, they are on the same level within the Institution; and secondly, the protégé holds a higher qualification than the mentor.

As Protégé D states, Mentor D is a contact person for him if there is anything that he needs within the department or the Institution in general. He states that the purpose of mentoring is to provide him with a "soft landing" in the Institution so there is some recognition that the mentor is there to provide support. When asked if she has sufficient expertise, he says: "I'm not sure about the expertise but from what I see, she is capable because she is patient, she has a listening ear, she is always there when I want to ask her anything". He later states that she is also a "role model as a lecturer".

Mentor D recognises that the relationship has been egalitarian which she claims has worked well. There is a concern around the relationship that there is not sufficient time for the mentor to be successful in the mentoring role because of her trying to complete her PhD but thus far, neither party seems to be worse off for it. Although they are both lecturers, Mentor D states that "it's been a huge strength not having him directly in competition with me in my field".

There is evidence in the relationship that Mentor D provides her protégé with protection against other members of staff and he sees her as a role model in teaching, recognizing her proficiency in that area.

4.2.1.5. Mentor E and Protégé E

Mentor E is a white male and began at the Institution in 1979 as a lecturer after completing his PhD overseas. He has been working continuously in academe and is now an Associate Professor and Head of Department. Coupled with being her mentor, he is also Protégé E's supervisor for her PhD research. He became Head of Department a little way into the mentoring relationship.

Protégé E is a "coloured" female. She studied at another Institution and stayed there after her studies in their criminology unit. She tired of the administrative work and applied for the advertised post in this Institution and began in March 2003. This is unusual because the mentoring programme candidates normally begin in January but she was unable to leave her previous job before March. She therefore started later than the other protégés of that year.

Neither the mentor nor the protégé have found major problems within their relationship although Protégé E states that the relationship is one that had to be negotiated. She has past tutoring and informal mentoring experiences and this has given her a certain perception of what mentoring is about. She recognises that often people forget that there are personalities involved and that one needs to consider the needs of the other person as well. Mentor E describes the relationship as "happy and cheerful" and is willing to benefit from all that a younger person has to offer an older person. The researcher found this to be a fresh perspective as in this relationship it is not only the protégé that is looking to benefit.

There has had to be some negotiation between the supervisory role and the mentoring role as well as the shift when he became Head of Department half way through their formal mentoring relationship but this seems to have been negotiated well. The researcher noticed a certain respect that these two individuals have for each other which has allowed them to successfully negotiate the terms of their relationship. Protégé E states that "it's been an up and down process because we've tried to find a way where we can balance each other" but "there's definitely been more up than down".

This relationship holds elements of both career and psychosocial functions. Mentor E acted as a sponsor for the protégé by putting her name forward for a permanent post in the department, he coaches her through her research, sets challenging assignments for her research and fills an acceptance-and-confirmation role (Kram, 1985).

4.2.2. ORGANISATION B

4.2.2.1. Mentor M and Protégé M

Mentor M is a white male who began in the organisation in 2000 as an operations manager and still holds the same position. Before that he worked as a food technologist in Paarl and was then transferred to Mossel Bay as a quality manager and then to Musina as a production manager. He then left the food industry to work in the citrus industry and then eight years later returned to the beverage industry. He views mentoring as a way to aid understanding of new knowledge as well as coaching and direction giving.

Protégé M is a white female who started in the organisation in 1994 as a laboratory supervisor. She is currently a manufacturing unit manager. Before working in the organisation she received a Diploma in Medical Technology and worked in the medical faculty. She then went overseas and upon her return began working in the organisation. She sees as a mentor as someone that must help, guide and lead a protégé as well as helping them to develop their weaknesses. She sees the programme as an opportunity for people to be developed and for individuals to gain a broader understanding of the organisation.

Mentor M is his protégé's line manager as well as her mentor and they were already in a line relationship for a number of years before the programme. They have both found that the mentoring relationship has benefited their working relationship by solidifying their relationship. They do however both have reservations about the programme; Mentor M asked his protégé to complete a Management Development course part-time at the local university and so questions the ability of the mentoring programme to solely grow a person and Protégé M feels that she had been in the organisation for too long to have fully benefited. Because of his line management position with regards to Protégé M, Mentor M has played a coaching role over the course of the programme.

4.2.2.2. Mentor N and Protégés Na and Nb

Mentor N is a white male and he started in the organisation in 2001 as a manager in the sales team. He now holds a position as a marketing manager. He holds a Bachelor of Commerce and an MBA and part of his MBA involved a course on mentoring. His understanding of mentoring is that it is a way to fast track high potential candidates by a senior member of the organisation imparting his knowledge of the business and life experiences in a manner that they wouldn't have picked up on a day to day basis. He is both the line manager and mentor of two protégés.

Protégé Na is a black male who began in the organisation in March 2003. He came in as and still is a market development officer which involves him analysing the market and finding new areas to develop. Before working in the organisation he opened and still owns a video shop and he worked in an investment organisation. He is currently one credit short of a Marketing Diploma. He views mentoring as a way to learn things that you would not learn at school such as how to conduct yourself in certain situations. He says that a mentor should be someone who has achieved more than you and be somebody that you would like to learn from.

Protégé Nb is a "coloured" male who also began in the organisation in March 2003. He started out as a special events co-ordinator and he is now also a market development officer. In between these two positions he was a sales manager for ten months. After leaving school he worked at a clothing store where after three months he was made manager. Following that he worked in government and after seven years began working for the organisation. He views mentoring as an opportunity for someone to give guidance and advice as well as adding value to another person's life.

Mentor N gives his protégés both exposure and visibility as well as setting them challenging assignments. He also plays a role of acceptance and confirmation in his roles as mentor and line manager. Although the literature does not advocate that line managers should act as mentors (Meyer and Fourie, 2004), the dual role played by Mentor N has only served to

benefit this relationship. It has enhanced their working relationship and all parties are able to, when necessary, separate their line relationship from their mentoring relationship.

4.2.2.3. Mentor O and Protégé O

Mentor O is a white male who started in the organisation in 1995 as a Human Resources Officer in George. He was promoted to Human Resource Manager in 1999 in the George factory and then was transferred to Port Elizabeth. This year he was elected HR Manager for the Eastern Cape Region. He sees mentoring as taking your knowledge and imparting it to somebody else who is your junior to help that person to learn faster. It involves giving that junior person more insight into the business and introducing them to people that in the normal course of business or their working life, they wouldn't normally be introduced to.

Protégé O is a black female who began in the organisation in 2002 as a graduate trainee. She is currently an HR Officer and a qualified psychometrist. She worked in a petrochemical company for five months after obtaining her BA Honours in Psychology before joining the organisation. She sees a mentor as someone who has been in the business longer than the protégé who can advise you on different ways of viewing situations and can guide you.

This relationship has elements of many career and psychosocial functions. There is evidence of sponsorship, coaching, role modelling and friendship. Mentor O had mentored the previous year and had found that that relationship was not as successful as the protégé was not committed. Thus far he has found the complete opposite in this relationship.

4.2.3. SUMMARY OF THE MENTORING PAIRS

The information described above provides insight into the relationships of the mentoring pairs that were interviewed. Not all the relationships were viewed as successful by the participants and the question lies in whether the successful and dysfunctional relationships were as a result of improper practices within the programme or if there was merely personality differences that were the cause of the demise of the relationship. The results of

the study, beginning with the goals of the mentoring programme, are presented and then the discussion is expanded in the following chapter.

4.3. THE GOALS OF THE MENTORING PROGRAMME

Babbie and Mouton (2001) state that the goals and outcomes of a programme need to be both clear and unambiguous from the outset of the mentoring programme. If the goals are not explicitly stated, there may be disillusion with the mentoring process and this may hinder the success of the formal mentoring programme (Tabbron *et al.,* 1997). Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that if employees are not involved in planning the mentoring programme, it will fail as employees will not fully understand the goals and objectives of the programme. Coupled with this is that the programme should be well integrated with other human resource functions and so should be a part of the organisation's strategic objectives (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Therefore it is important for the goals of the mentoring programme to be commonly understood, explicit and aligned with other human resource goals in the organisation.

4.3.1. ORGANISATION A

The goals explicitly stated by the formal mentoring programme of this tertiary institution are that the programme:

a) Assist in achieving the aims of the Institution's Equity Policy,
b) Enhance the diversity of staff at the Institution,
c) Fast track promising young academics by providing appropriate support, and,
d) Provide opportunities to members from designated groups to enhance the prospects of competing successfully for permanent teaching posts in the University

When the programme co-ordinator was asked what the goals of the development programme were, she said that:

> …the purpose was mainly the equity plan…trying to develop people that we could keep at [the Institution] and work towards improving that equity.

The goals as stated above are given to the mentors and protégés in document form and are discussed in a workshop that is held at the beginning of the programme. It seems here that the primary objective is to obtain equity quotas targets and an effort is being made through the mentoring programme to support these equity in-takes. When asked about the goals, Mentor and Protégé E both stated that it was about addressing equity. Mentor E specifically stated that he thinks the equity exercise in this instance means:

> …being formally disadvantaged in the racial sense, not the gender sense.

Protégé C stated that the motivation for the mentoring programme is:

> Affirmative Action. Trying to get black faces into a white instituition.

There is a very real sense that the participants in the programme know that they are a part of an equity exercise of the university although the co-ordinator makes it very clear that although all the protégés are of the "right" gender, race or both, they are all highly talented individuals and they were granted this unique opportunity because they could contribute positively to the success of the Institution. There is a concern that some of the participants feel that the equity exercise is either race OR gender and not both when in fact, the documentation makes it clear that "designated groups" means "African, Coloured and Indian/Asian, women and the disabled". Protégé E felt that the goal was to specifically fast-track women within the organisation yet this is not so as there are a number of male protégés on the programme as well.

Protégé E said that initially she did not want to be a part of the programme if people were going to assume that she was hired because of her race and gender and in fact, she was quite uncomfortable with being classed as someone who is part of the programme for that reason. She was uncomfortable in the sense that she has always been concerned with stigmas and that because she was part of the programme, people felt that she couldn't make it the conventional way and so had to come through the "back door". This was not an identified problem with the other protégés but was definitely a concern of Protégé E.

The general feeling was that the goals are more or less being met. The goal of aligning equity goals within the Institution is apparently being met as not one protégé was a white male and the influx of different races and females will naturally enhance diversity within the organisation.

There is debate as to whether the protégés are fast-tracked through the Institution's system. Mentor E recognised that a reduced teaching load should ensure that his protégé's PhD be completed sooner than that of someone else who did not have the advantage of a reduced teaching load, yet he commented that although she had eight months of field work for her doctorate,

> …whether she'll complete her doctorate in double quick time is yet to be seen.

The protégés are fast tracked in the sense that while they are gaining vital teaching and administration experience, they are also completing their research much faster than if they occupied a general position in the [Institution]. If these protégés were entering the [Instituion] as lecturers and were not given the opportunity of this programme, it would probably take them longer to complete their qualifications. Furthermore, if they remain at the Institution after their contract of development has expired, the Institution will regard those three years as their probationary period which is that length of time for any lecturer entering the university system, so they will not have to undergo a formal probationary period above the time that they have spent on the development programme.

Hofmeyr *et al.* (1995) and Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that the success of a programme might be hindered if the mentors and protégés are not involved in its planning. The nature of this programme dictates that it is impossible for the protégés to have been involved in programme design, but none of the mentors indicated any unhappiness at not having a say in the programme. One mentor summed it up by saying:

> …well I don't see how we could have been involved because then punitively every department would have to be involved in the design of it and you, you… well, you know they say that a camel is a horse designed by a committee.

The co-ordinator of the programme stated that the objectives were a joint activity between the Human Resources Department and the committee that control the programme and she has felt that the joint effort of defining objectives between HR and the committee has been a large factor in keeping the programme on track. There seems to be no evidence that the success of the programme has been affected by not involving the mentors from the beginning.

The biggest concern cited by both mentors and protégés is the question of whether or not the protégés will remain at the Institution. The development programme does not promise that the protégés will receive a permanent post at the end of their three year contract but states that they will be in a better position than someone else applying for that position. The Institution has no formal succession plans and it is a matter of whether or not the skills of that protégé are needed in the department at the end of their contract.

The programme co-ordinator stated that:

> …we do not guarantee them a permanent employment. It kind of depends whether there is a gap at the end of their three years, but there is certainly an effort to keep as many of them as possible.

Although the co-ordinator felt that there was an effort made by the university to keep the protégé, Mentor A felt differently. He stated that, when asked for help with funding a project so that his protégé could stay at the Institution, the Institution made it clear that they were not obligated to ensure that the protégé remained at the Institution once the programme was complete. He later stated that the university in fact made very little effort to ensure that his protégé would remain in the department in the future. Their argument was that the department already had its full quota of staff and there was not a significant increase in the number of students in the department to warrant an extra staff member.

His protégé felt that he should have made more of an effort and stated that:

> …I suppose towards the end of this, I expected a bit more in terms of him, you know, especially as a young scientist, at the end of my PhD, I was at a loss of where to go and I expected a bit more guidance in terms of where I should go with my career than what I got.

There are other protégés that are concerned with the inability of the university to promise them permanent posts at the end of the three years:

> On the one hand they make it known to me that there is a possibility of this post but on the other hand they said that you have to apply so you can read between the lines.

> …some of the protégés don't have permanent positions, I don't have a permanent position…

> …it is kind of pointless because we are learning the [Institution's] system, that was part of the programme, that we get guided through the [Institution's] academic system, so when you go to a new institution, it's like okay, we're starting from scratch again.

> …if the programme was to be completely successful, I think that [the Institution] would have to offer us positions… there are some people that would like to stay and don't have jobs.

> …at the moment they are taking people into departments which already have a quota of staff so, for three years you are there and you basically bolster the teaching side. At the end of the three years, because they have their staff quota's, you disappear and so where do you go? And you can't say in three years somebody is going to die within the department or somebody's going to retire,

you can't bet on that…so you're weighing up research and lecturing and saying "what is it that I am doing here?"

I would like to see them actually changing that, where they say, okay, on a year-to-year basis, we need to see where to put people.

When the programme co-ordinator was asked about these concerns she noted that:

…that little flip in a way happened between the hand over from HR to the [Academic Development Department], and it was a matter of mindset. HR thinks about employment issues, the [Academic Development Department] thinks about development issues. So I think that the first lot of people that were appointed [as protégés] are kind of in a better position…

When asked whether or not the programme supports succession planning, she commented that it does but it has fallen apart in one or two places. A lot of the protégés that have completed the programme have been given a new post but it is a real concern for those on the programme at the moment because not all of them have a future plan in the Institution. The co-ordinator said:

…even if they don't get a job at [the Institution], they have been afforded a wonderful opportunity.

The view of some of the protégés was that if you are only providing them with a "wonderful opportunity", the money might be put to better use in other development programmes whose purpose it is to retain the people that it develops. The question raised is why spend time and money developing people that you are not going to keep on in your organisation? There is however no actual expense to the university and the ultimate goal is to develop people to pursue a successful career in academe. This goal of people development is being achieved through the programme.

4.3.2. ORGANISATION B

The goals of this mentoring programme as stated by the national programme co-ordinator are:
  a) to develop management and supervisory skills
  b) to build internal capability
  c) that the protégés obtain broad exposure to the organisation
  d) to entrench a mentoring culture within the organisation

At the start of the programme, protégés are given a file that states the objectives of the programme and protégés go through this at an orientation session. Some mentors were given a copy of the file but Mentor N never received the file. He did however insist that his protégés make him a copy so that he would know the plan for the year.

Mentor O stated that:

> …the goal I would ultimately say is to give them more exposure to different aspects of the business.

Mentor O also stated that the goal was

> …to give a person a broader view because mostly you sit with people that's very specialised in their jobs…

Protégé M recognised that the organisation is trying to develop internal capability and stated that

> …the mentoring programme identifies people with the ability to move on in the organisation and then just help them…

All the mentors and protégés are aware that this was a development programme that was attempting to groom the protégés for management positions. It was also evident that the

organisation had developed these goals in light of their strategic planning. As one protégé stated:

> They are preparing us as junior managers to take over leadership within the company, that is how I understand it. It is like preparing us for future leadership roles but what I also realise is that the company is growing in Asia and all over the world and they will use South Africans to go there, they will use experienced South Africans. So, it will create a vacuum here…we will probably have to fill the shoes of the people that create that vacuum.

It was interesting to note that none of the mentors or protégés explicitly stated as one of the goals that the organisation was attempting to entrench a mentoring culture but all of them when questioned about the organisation's commitment to developing people stated that this was on the forefront of everyone's mind and that there was no reason to question that commitment.

When asked if the goals were being met, only one mentor was unsure because he stated that he was not one hundred percent sure of the goals, even though he gave an accurate answer to that question. This mentor (M) sent his protégé on a Management Development Programme at a local university and he stated that:

> …I just think they learn a lot more at the formal course at the university… than they learn out of mentoring… I think it's mostly my mistake that I'm not really sure what's the goal they need to need to achieve and that I can't see the development in this specific case…

He further stated that because he sent his protégé on that course at the same time as the mentoring programme, he was unable to tell which one aided her development more. The remaining mentors and protégés said that they felt that the goals were being met because they had seen previous protégés being promoted to positions after being on the mentoring programme relating to the first goal identified by the programme. Mentor O also stated that

> …if the goal is to give the person more exposure to the business, a better understanding of the different departments, then I would say it is successful.

There was also evidence that the organisation has thus far managed to retain the talent that they have developed within these protégés and employees, as after being on the programme, they are not choosing to leave the organisation.

There is no evidence that not involving mentors and protégés in the design of the programme has hindered its success. Two of the mentors contributed at the beginning of the programme to the learning content of the department rotations, but comparing their attitude with that of the mentors and protégés that were not involved seemed to show no difference in attitude or commitment.

Although the organisation is focused on ensuring that people from disadvantaged backgrounds are being developed, this does not seem to be an equity exercise in that the programme is not aimed at only developing employees from previously disadvantaged backgrounds. In this mentoring programme, all employees have a fair chance of being nominated regardless of their race or gender. It is interesting to note though that of the twelve names that the co-ordinator put forward, all the mentors listed were white males and only one protégé was a white male. Another positive aspect about this mentoring programme is that the entire aim is to support succession planning and one protégé states that he can see the evidence of this through promotions of other protégés that were previously on the programme.

4.3.3. SUMMARY OF THE GOALS OF THE MENTORING PROGRAMME

The goals of a formal mentoring programme need to be unambiguous and clearly communicated to those participating in the programme (Tabbron *et al.,* 1997). The goals also need to be well integrated with the broader human resource goals of the organisation (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Furthermore, Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that the formal mentoring programme may fail if mentors and protégés are not involved in the design of the programme. The general goal of both organisations is people development although this development is of

a different nature in the two organisations. There is a concern in Organisation A that the programme does not support succession planning and Meyer and Fourie (2004) would argue that this could hinder the success of the formal mentoring programme. Furthermore, there is no evidence to support the notion that the formal mentoring programmes are failing due to the participants of the programme not been involved in programme design. The mentors and protégés have their own roles and responsibilities in terms of the programme and these will be discussed in the following section.

4.4. THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MENTORS AND PROTEGES

Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that one of the factors that acts as an intervening variable in the pursuit of a successful mentoring programme is a lack of planning of the mentoring process which sometimes causes mentors and protégés to be unsure of their responsibilities in the process. These responsibilities need to be clear in order to obtain commitment to the programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Kram (1985) also identifies two main roles that the mentor may play in order for the mentoring relationship to be successful: career roles (sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection and setting challenging assignments) and psychosocial roles (role modelling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling and friendship). Compared to the role of the mentor, the role of the protégé is poorly documented but the literature does identify certain characteristics that the protégés should have such as: openness to receiving help, the ability to learn, career commitment and competence and a strong self-identity (Purcell, 2004). They should also have the confidence to be able to inform their mentor of any problems or if they feel that the objectives of the relationship or programme are not being met (Greene and Puetzer, 2002).

4.4.1. ORGANISATION A

In Organisation A, the co-ordinator mentioned that commitment to the programme was obtained at an orientation workshop and that mentors are paid a small fee for their services. In the documentation, the roles and responsibilities of the mentor are clearly stated. Although the roles and responsibilities are viewed together in Chapter One, the formal mentoring

programme of Organisation A sees them as two different aspects. The **responsibilities** are that the mentor:

a) Assist in helping the lecturer draw up his/her development plan,
b) Monitor the progress of the lecturer towards meeting the objectives set out in the development plan,
c) Meet with the protégé formally at least once a month,
d) Submit reports on the protégé's progress, and,
e) Evaluate the programme annually

These responsibilities for the mentor can be categorised as career functions, specifically coaching aspects, especially with regards to assisting in drawing up the development plan and evaluating progress of the protégé. The formal responsibilities set out here do not require that the mentor fulfil any psychosocial roles.

None of the mentors mentioned that they assisted with drawing up the development plan or that they needed to meet with their protégés formally once a month as stated in the formal roles and one protégé went on to say that:

She doesn't have to have this meeting every month with me, we do have meetings about my programme. I gave her my programme for the year, she has my year programme and so we sit down and meet maybe once or twice a term and then she even said to me the job is to make sure that I meet my deadlines.

The most frequently encountered response by the mentors, when asked about their roles and responsibilities, was that they had to write detailed reports about the progress of the protégé and this was viewed as being a big administration responsibility.

Another mentor saw his responsibility going beyond teaching and research and dealing with:

…the general problems of coming as an outsider to [a new town], settling in, all kinds of practical and emotional things come into it as well.

This mentor saw it as a responsibility to play a more psychosocial role even though this was not prescribed by the list of formal responsibilities of the programme.

The mentors don't explicitly know their responsibilities but evidence from the interviews indicated that they were being fulfilled except by one mentor who, when asked what responsibilities he acquired when joining the programme, said:

> None. Just, I mean, you've got to talk to her every now and again.

One mentor, in contrast, noted that there was "a professional and moral responsibility" and that if mentoring didn't work, it was going to be a bad reflection on the mentor.

The **roles** for the mentor as identified by the documentation are very similar to those identified by Kram (1985) in the literature and that is that mentor should provide sponsorship, exposure and visibility within the organisation, coaching, protection (or guidance) and challenging assignments. In psychosocial terms the mentor should provide role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and advice, and friendship.

The programme co-ordinator clarified her understanding of the role of the mentor by saying that:

> …the point of having the mentoring is to have someone… dedicated to support new, young lecturers who come into the institution. People who preferably have the kind of experience in all the various fields of academia: research, teaching… who know the institution well and then kind of smooth the way for people coming in…

From the interviews with the mentors, there does not seem to be a large amount of evidence of many of the career and psychosocial functions highlighted by the literature and by the documentation. Many of the mentors actually only view themselves as coaches in specific

areas of academia which is highlighted in the discussion on their identified responsibilities. For example, two mentors see their role as merely being a guide for their protégé's:

> …in the environment that you work in that can show you the way in terms of academics...

> …somebody who is more experienced in the field and who has built up through that experience a lot of knowledge and who can help and support and guide and nurture someone into a similar role in the context in which you work.

Mentors C and E saw the mentoring role as an extension of a child- parent relationship but in a professional setting:

> …it's a parent over this person's professional growth and looking after this person professionally as you would look after a child or teenager in the house.

Mentor C however brought into question whether mentoring should viewed in the same light as academic supervision when he states that he doesn't see the role as any different to looking after a doctorate student. For this mentor, the term mentoring is synonymous with academic supervision and one of his major concerns with the effectiveness of his mentoring relationship was that he was not his protégé's supervisor and he felt that that was detrimental to the relationship. He believed that had he had more of a coaching role in his protégés research, the relationship would have been more positive.

Protégé E states that the main responsibility of the mentor is to see that the protégé is adjusting appropriately to the institution and her job. She stated that the mentor is there for her to go and say "Look, I'm having a problem" whether the identified problem is with the job, the colleagues, students or with being in the town itself, therefore implying that the mentor should act as a counsellor.

There is evidence amongst other mentors and protégés that the mentor has more than one role for example:

A mentor is a lot of things but I guess it's like a coach but more than that, …a person who is a role model but also… someone who gives advice, someone who coaches, someone who watches you to see that you are actually learning the unlearnable… the things that you cant tell someone, that they've got to catch…

Protégé D also states that he feels that his mentor is a role model in terms of teaching as he feels that this is one of her strongest attributes and that he can learn a lot from her. It would probably be of value for the mentor to know this when guiding him on his teaching, however, due to time constraints, she has not been largely involved in his teaching thus far.

Mentor B had a similar perspective to his protégé in that he viewed mentoring as a means of providing guidance and perspective that the young academic needs in coming to terms with the challenges and practicalities of teaching and undertaking research in an academic institution and helping with career planning. He also stated that an important role was to provide encouragement and support at an emotional and friendship level and to help the protégé cope with the pressures involved in being an academic.

With regards to the protégés, there are no formal responsibilities described in the documentation for the protégé but the documentation does have a list of requirements that the protégé needs to fulfill within the three years. They have a teaching responsibility of approximately 50% of the normal teaching load, they have to undertake a certain amount of research (depending on their entry qualification) and they have certain administrative duties. The administrative duties are not clear and one of the protégés feels that she is being abused by her department. Because she is part of the programme, they expect her to, above her normal everyday duties, take minutes at the staff meeting and type them up as well as help the secretary when required, and this is with no regard for her other responsibilities. When her mentor is away, she is also expected to help him with his courses and mark his share of essays and exam scripts. Protégés were also expected to be professional., young people who have an interest in development and teaching and have at least the potential to develop in the areas of research and teaching.

When asked what responsibilities they acquired by joining the programme, the protégés mentioned in general that they had teaching, research and administrative duties. An additional responsibility that was identified as part of their teaching duties was that they had to complete a postgraduate qualification over the course of their three years. All the protégés found that this was quite a lot of work yet some did find it helpful. One protégé however was against it and said:

> …they said I have to do the [postgraduate qualification]. It's a pain in the armpit because I just didn't see the reason for it…really… ya, it just makes me crazy. I said to them that I don't want to do it this year, I am still too busy trying to establish myself as a lecturer, maybe I might try it next year.

The protégé felt that the course was too heavy and involved too much a classroom feel which was not welcome after completing a very intensive PhD. He felt that he would rather leave the programme than finish this qualification. Another protégé was only able to complete one semester of the post graduate qualification and was concerned that it was not always feasible to complete it in two subsequent semesters because of research requirements.

Mentors also had an opportunity to express their viewpoint on protégé responsibilities: Mentors B and E felt that the main quality that protégés should possess is a commitment to their academic careers and that they should at the very least have the academic potential to be academics. Mentor A said that it depended on the protégé and the academic position they were aiming for as well as their goals in life. He did not advocate that the protégés should be committed to academia because he recognised that his own protégé was not on the programme because she was dedicated to fulfilling a career in the academic world. Protégé A identified herself that she was a part of the programme because at the time she needed a job. Mentor A stated that:

> …the amount of work that you do in terms of teaching, administration, that sort of thing, might not be the most beneficial thing for them.

In terms of responsibilities, the programme required that the protégé fulfill their 50% of teaching load from the mentor's teaching load in order to free up time for the mentor to fulfill his mentoring duties. The researcher found that this was not always the case. In one case, this did not happen because the protégé is in a different field but the mentor mentioned that:

> …he has helped in that he has been involved in programmes that I probably would have been involved in… and I suppose it helped free me up in that sense.

For Mentor E, where his protégé was not given a portion of his lecturing, he felt that he had "been conned slightly" because:

> …it's not terribly clearly expressed in the notes and it was never my then Head of Department's understanding so what happened is that [Protégé E] was simply factored into the department's lecturing and did her half share from everyone else's share of the teaching. To that extent, everybody benefited by having slightly less lecturing to do, because of [Protégé E's] half share. Those that had nothing to do with mentoring benefited where I benefited only slightly.

For other mentoring pairs, where the lecture load was shared by the mentor and protégé, there seems to be a certain amount of satisfaction with that relationship. Another mentoring pair shared a teaching, research and administrative load and they have found this to work particularly well for them.

4.4.2. ORGANISATION B

The national co-ordinator stated that the role of the mentor in the mentoring relationship is to aid in the development of the protégé. There is no specific training for the mentor and thus, the only knowledge that mentors have when participating in the formal mentoring relationship is that they need to aid in protégé development. The co-ordinator also stated that mentors fulfil a number of roles in terms of the responsibilities that they have in the programme. The first one is that they act as a role model for the protégé in terms of the experiences that they have been through in their own lives and in the organisation. The

second role is that they provide exposure-and-visibility (Kram, 1985) through shadowing sessions where the protégé is present at important regional meetings. Unless the mentor is a line manager, coaching is not identified as one of their main roles. The national co-ordinator also mentioned that at a later stage, the mentor will sponsor the young protégé, even though they may not be the protégé's line manager. The mentors were also involved in the evaluation of the candidates progress during the year. The roles are therefore not explicitly expressed but rather implied by the responsibilities given to the mentors.

The co-ordinator stated that to be mentor, the person must have a number of qualities in order to fulfil their mentoring roles successfully. Mentors should be able to listen and interpret what the protégé is saying, they need have leadership qualities and management skills and they should have organisational experience because they need to impart "what they have learnt in the organisation".

The mentors are all aware of the responsibilities that they need to undertake in terms of the programme. One mentor stated:

…it's like becoming a father.

He further stated that his main responsibility was to try and get to know the protégé better and to give the best advice in every situation. Another mentor stated that his main role should be that of direction-giving and he firmly believed in giving the protégé adequate support to get her through what was potentially an extremely busy year. Mentor N saw his role as ensuring that his protégés

…get the experience that I have deemed necessary as a region head to get them to move a little bit quicker so that they can start occupying decent positions in the company.

Because the roles of the programme are only implicitly implied, none of the mentors are able to verbalise their exact roles within the framework of the programme. However from the

interviews with their protégés about their relationship, it is clear that the mentors mostly fulfil the necessary responsibilities as expected by the programme and thus fulfil certain roles.

Protege Nb felt that mentors should have good business acumen, a good relationship with their sub-ordinates and be family and work-orientated. He stated that his mentor is so committed to work that he arrives more than an hour before every one else and is usually the last person to leave. This does not go unnoticed by his sub-ordinates and Protégé Nb feels that he has served as a good example for his protégés and his sub-ordinates. Protégé Nb felt that it was important for mentors to be good role-models for their protégés.

Protégé Na stated that Mentor N was a good mentor because he played a leadership role where he led by example. This protégé felt that his mentor did not ask his sub-ordinates to undertake any task that he would not be able to do himself. Protégé O stated that mentors should be able to give examples from their experience when giving advice so that the protégé can learn from them. Furthermore, Protégé M recognised that mentors should play a counselling role when necessary.

The roles and responsibilities were also not defined clearly by the national programme co-ordinator but the co-ordinator did state that protégés needed to be motivated, have a willingness to learn and be driven to achieve if they were on this programme. The reason for this was that they have a number of responsibilities that had to be fulfilled above their normal day jobs. Firstly, they needed to complete six bonding sessions with their mentor where they talked about things such as their strengths, weaknesses and career goals for the future. Secondly, they needed to be a part of departmental rotations where their mentor set up a time for the protégé to visit another department, other than their own, for a week to learn about the processes and procedures of that department. Thirdly, they needed to do three shadowing sessions over the course of the year where they were watching their mentor in action at important meetings and events that managers were usually a part of. Finally, they were required to start and complete a project that added real value to the organisation. By the end of the programme, they need to have fulfilled most of the goals of the mentoring programme.

Protégé O saw her role as learning as much about the organisation as she could and to ask questions if there were things that she did not understand. She saw her responsibility as completing all components of the project as effectively as she could. Protégé Na clarified this and stated that protégés needed to improve on their weaknesses over the course of the programme so that they could be effective in management roles. Protégé Nb stated that during the programme it was very important for protégés to be responsible for their own development and for those wanting to be on the programme, they needed to let the organisation know that they wanted to be developed by showing them their potential.

All the mentors recognised that the protégés needed to be driven and ambitious and be hungry for new knowledge. Mentor O stated that

> …if you don't believe that the programme is actually going to do something for you and your career… or just you as an employee, then you might as well not be on it.

In terms of this programme, it was evident that most of the protégés felt honoured to be on the programme because they felt that their talent was being recognised. Although one protégé felt that the programme came too late for her because she was already very established in the organisation, it did not prevent her from working hard on all that was required of her. From the interviews it was seen that the protégés feel motivated to be on the programme because of the opportunities they felt were available to them in the future. The protégés were aware that this programme identified them as management potential and if they completed the programme successfully, there were benefits to be gained in the organisation. The fact that these protégés were all motivated to achieve definitely aided the success of this programme.

4.4.3. SUMMARY OF THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILTIES

Kram (1985) identifies certain career and psychosocial roles that a mentor needs to fulfil in a successful mentoring relationship. Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that if these are not made explicit, it could hinder the success of formal mentoring relationships. In Organisation B, the formal roles and responsibilities expected by the programme were not always clearly defined

or understood by the mentors but this did not seem to have an impact on the success of the mentoring relationship. The structured activities and nature of the programme facilitated mentor and protégé functioning roles. The success of relationships seemed to be based more on the personalities of the mentor and protégé and the qualities that they brought to the relationship of their own accord. Within Organisation A, some mentors go beyond the roles prescribed by the programme which adds to the success of the relationship.

The roles and responsibilities of the protégé is not well defined in the literature (Purcell, 2004) yet the mentoring programmes made an effort to ensure that the protégés were fully aware of the responsibilities and tasks required by the programme. Again the success of the relationship may be dependant on the protégé's personal qualities and their ability to fulfil the responsibilities of the programme. Because the mentors and protégés each possess their own unique qualities, selection and matching practices are important in ensuring success of the programme.

4.5. SELECTION AND MATCHING OF MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

Before mentors and protégé's are selected, the organisation needs to determine certain criteria that the participants on the programme need to meet before being accepted (Kiltz *et al.,* 2004). These criteria will be dependent on the aims of the programme. When undergoing selection, it is vital that both mentors (Berry, 2003) and protégés (Meyer and Fourie, 2004) express a willingness and a desire to be on the programme. If forced on to a formal mentoring programme, there may be a lack of commitment (Cook and Adonisi, 1996).

Once mentors and protégés are selected, Chao and Walz (1992) point out that great care should be exercised in the matching of mentors and protégés and that specifically random assignments yield a small probability that the relationship will succeed. Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that protégés should have a choice regarding who their mentor is. Phillips-Jones (1983) suggests that which ever way mentors and protégés are matched, it is important that mentors have commitment, expertise, power and time to help the protégé and that protégés have the necessary skill and desire to be part of the programme.

Hansford *et al.* (2002) and Meyer and Fourie (2004) also identified that matching of mentors and protégés that are of a different race and gender could cause failure of the mentoring relationship, especially if mentoring was not a part of the organisational culture or if issues of cultural diversity was not addressed.

4.5.1. ORGANISATION A

In Organisation A's mentoring programme, protégés are selected on the basis of their job applications. Protégés applied for a post as a lecturer or junior lecturer and the best applications were given to the relevant Heads of Departments. There was a concern that although most of the protégés stated that they would like to continue in academia, there were two that were part of this programme only because it provided them with a job. They were not certain if they were even going to remain in academia at the conclusion of the programme. They therefore did not show the desire to be on the programme and this was reflected by negativity in their mentoring relationships. It appeared that they did not consider the mentoring relationship in the same high regard as those protégés who were passionate about the academic world.

Mentors were selected by a high-level selection committee under the guidance of the Head of Department. There were different factors for selecting the mentors. In some instances it was because of similar research interests, similar fields of work or even in one instance due to the unavailability of anyone else The co-ordinator of the programme recognised that for the programme to be successful, mentors should have been able to communicate well, been interested in the development of other people, been willing to share their own expertise and experience and should have had tolerance. These were the criteria that she identified for the selection of mentors. There were a number of cases where the Head of Department appointed himself as mentor although the co-ordinator of the programme felt that she would not have liked this to continue in the future as the load on Heads of Departments had been too large and they were often not able to devote the necessary time to the protégé.

As stated earlier, protégés were assigned to mentors using various reasons. A common reason was that they either shared the same research interest or were in a similar field. In two cases

this was the way that the mentor and protégé were matched and both relationships have proven to be very successful. In the one instance, the mentor was also the research supervisor yet this has not caused any problems thus far. One of the "coloured" protégés however mentioned that she would have liked to be mentored by a specific non-white person in the department but this person had not yet finished her PhD and was not an eligible candidate. Another protégé thought that she was at a disadvantage because her mentor was not in her field of work.

It was unrealistic to allow the protégés to choose their mentors because most of the protégés were new to the Institution and had no knowledge of potential mentors. Although this could have caused a lack of commitment by either the mentor or the protégé, protégés generally felt that their mentors were committed to their development although not all the mentors were described as tolerant of encompassing new points of view. In one relationship, the protégé did not feel that her mentor was open to new ideas and did not seem to be interested in her development.

One department put in a large amount of effort into the matching process. They discussed potential mentors as a department based on what they knew about the protégé as he had been working at the Institution some time before. They considered the type of person they thought he was and made a decision on who they thought would work best with him and the Head of Department advised the selection committee according to their departmental discussion. This seemed to be the most effective way of matching candidates under the circumstances and it is suggested that [the Institution] follow a similar process in the future.

In another case, the Head of Department nominated himself before consulting the department and this caused tensions amongst the other employees in the department. The protégé in this department suggested that the Institution undertake to do a formalized questionnaire that the protégé could fill in to find out the type of person they are, their specific needs and some background information in order for Heads of Departments to make a more informed choice of who the mentor should be.

The research into Organisation A's mentoring programme found no evidence that race or gender played a part in hindering the success of this formal mentoring programme, although there was one the protégé who would have preferred a mentor of the same race.

4.5.2. ORGANISATION B

In this Organisation B's mentoring programme, employees who are seen as having high potential are nominated by their departmental managers whose job it is to "sell" this candidate to the regional team who ultimately choose who they think are the best candidates for that year. The candidates (protégés) are chosen if they show the potential required to go further in the organisation. Before being accepted onto the programme, the potential candidates undergo psychometric testing and following that the protégés are chosen.

There is no one way that the mentors were chosen. The co-ordinator stated that the protégés put forward three names to their regional Human Resources Department of people who they would like to be considered as their mentor. The HR Department would then approach the first one on the list to see if they were willing and if so, then they were made mentor. If that person was not willing, the next one on the list would be asked. The interviews showed that although the protégés chose their mentors, the process of handing in three names to the HR Department was not followed. In fact, most of the protégés contacted their mentors personally to ask them to be on the programme. This however, has worked very well in this programme with none of the interviewees having experienced any major problems within their relationships.

One of the protégés was given a choice of two mentors by her line manager and she chose the one that she knew better. When questioned about the success of this way of matching people she stated that in her line of work it was easier because she knew that her mentor had some training in mentoring but that this way of matching people might not work in other departments. A mentor (not her own) also suggested that the protégés be given a short list of people that would like to be mentors and let them choose from there as he says that when one is asked to be a mentor, it is difficult to say no. This suggests that there should be a process in place to determine the willingness of people to be mentors.

In two of the cases, the mentor was the protégé's line manager and this was frowned upon by the organisation although the co-ordinator stated that there is no limit on who the protégé can choose as a prospective mentor. In one case it was strongly suggested that the protégé choose another mentor but he decided to stay with his first choice and having his line manager as a mentor has not shown to be a major hindrance to the relationship or the programme. The co-ordinator stated that in some cases, mentors were part of the Head Office of the organisation and this caused problems in terms of finding time to schedule meetings because the mentors travelled a lot. However, she clarifies that all of these mentors were very committed and when they were able to, they met with their protégé as often as they could.

From the interviews, these mentors all seemed very committed to the development of their protégé. They were not forced to mentor and this proved to be a success. Mentor O recognised that he did not know his protégé very well at the beginning but that they shared a common interest, namely their field of work which helped to cement the relationship from the start. A previous protégé of his worked in the sales department and Mentor O found it a bit more difficult to guide him in terms of specific work issues. All the other protégés share the same field of work as their mentor and this has worked very well for this organisation. Mentor O feels that there should be more common ground than just working for the organisation.

Mentor N believes that the reason that this way of matching people was successful is because the protégé was choosing someone who they thought they could potentially trust. He and some of the other protégés recognised that trust is an important basis for this type of mentoring relationship. Furthermore, one protégé mentioned that it was important to choose someone that would not feel threatened by their development.

With regards to race and gender, there is no evidence that race or gender differences adversely affects the relationship. In fact, one protégé stated:

> …we utilise that [difference in] background to our advantage.

4.5.3. SUMMARY OF SELECTION AND MATCHING

Selection and matching of mentors and protégés may be critical to the success of formal mentoring programmes (Chao and Walz, 1992) as these practices have an effect on the outcome of the relationship. Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that protégés should be able to choose their mentors but this is not always feasible and is dependant on the nature of the programme and the culture of the organisation. There also needs to be a desire or willingness to be on the programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004) as being forced onto the programme may cause a lack of commitment (Cook and Adonisi, 1996). When choosing mentors for the protégé, it is vital that mentors have commitment, expertise, power and time to help the protégé (Phillips-Jones, 1983). The success of the relationships in Organisation B highlight the benefits of being able to choose your own mentor. The results indicate that because of the nature of the programme, if the protégé is unable to choose a mentor, there should be a departmental discussion regarding potential mentors. In one instance when the choice of mentor was not discussed within the department, the result was a dissatisfactory relationship. There is also an indication in both programmes that race and gender had no effect on the success of the mentoring relationships. However, within the mentoring programme, the mentor is not the only source of support for the protégé. Additional supportive resources will now be discussed.

4.6. SUPPORTIVE RESOURCES

There is a belief that insufficient training and other support structures "retard the implementation of mentoring interventions" (Meyer and Fourie, 2004:169). At the beginning of the programme, there needs to be an orientation training session that addresses the objectives of the programme, expectations of the mentors and protégés, an outline of the roles and responsibilities (Berry, 2003) as well as potential pitfalls of the mentoring relationship. The training should also cover setting up ground rules and address issues of confidentiality and trust because personal or organisational secrets not handled confidentially may damage the relationship or cause organisational problems (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

4.6.1. ORGANISATION A

The programme documentation shows that Organisation A's mentoring programme includes a training workshop where the following topics are discussed: role of the mentor, issues around meeting with the protégé, clarifying aspects of the relationship, the role of other stakeholders in the relationship, the development plan of the protégé, the evaluation methods of the programme and an evaluation of what makes an effective mentor. The programme co-ordinator has grappled with figuring out which type and length of workshop works best. In the first year of the programme they held different training workshops for mentors and protégés but received feedback to say that the participants would have preferred if the training was held together. This was implemented from that time on. In one year the workshop included talks by past mentoring pairs about their experiences. The consensus of both the mentors and the protégés seemed to be that the most successful training workshop was one that was not longer than a day and covered not only aspects of the mentoring programme but also the expectations of the organisation in terms of the programme.

One protégé mentioned that the orientation workshop was only in March which came a bit late for her. Work for the protégés started on the 1st January and they felt they were at a loss until the workshop at the beginning of March. She felt that she would have liked the training to commence as soon as the protégés started or before they arrived in the organisation. The programme co-ordinator mentioned that this however was not feasible as at the beginning of the year, as most of the mentors were away until the term started. The general feeling however, was that the workshop was essential especially to introduce the protégés to their mentors, the programme and the organisation and therefore should be scheduled as early as practically feasible.

The start of the relationship required that ground rules be set. These are covered briefly in the training but one protégé stated:

> …I thought that by setting up an agreement at the beginning, that's how it's going
> to be. But it doesn't work that way. There's a negotiation constantly…

Most mentors and protégés agreed that the setting up of ground rules is very important although one or two state that these ground rules are no different to those between any two colleagues in a department.

Although the Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that issues of confidentiality should be addressed, this did not seem to pose an issue for these mentoring pairs. There was no indication given that confidentiality between mentor and protégé was addressed in the training although the co-ordinator makes it clear that any conversations with her will not be repeated to anyone else. None of the mentors or protégés felt that there was a big need for secrecy in the relationship and one protégé stated that:

> …the problem was to what extent I'm going to talk about issues of confidentiality…there are things like that which are much more personal. I don't think that it is going to be relevant for the mentor to deal with.

The researcher felt that the reason that confidentiality may not be an issue for some mentoring pairs was because the protégé may have viewed the mentor as being there mainly for work-related issues. Even in their development plan, there is no section for personal development. This translates into the mentors being only a work support for the protégé and fulfilling career goals.

In terms of further training, some of the mentors and protégés felt that a follow up workshop would have aided them six months into the relationship to discuss in general how the relationship was progressing and to evaluate their difficulties against what others were experiencing. There is no literature on follow-up training; the focus on training appears to be on the beginning of the mentoring relationship. The mentors and protégés requesting the follow-up training seemed to agree that the essential part of this workshop would be to look at relationship dynamics between the mentor and the protégé as the most challenging thing about the relationship is to maintain the balance between the two people involved in the relationship.

Another formal support for the protégés was that they were required to complete certain training in the form of a postgraduate qualification which covered teaching and learning. Although they recognised this as a support structure, they felt that it was a lot of work in the first or second year of the programme. One protégé said that it was more a hindrance than anything else as he felt that he was still trying to establish himself as a lecturer and did not the see the value in it at the time. The co-ordinator responded that this course would in fact aid this protégé in establishing himself in his teaching capacity in the institution. Another protégé had a totally different view and stated that she was very impressed that the Institution had made the postgraduate qualification available to the protégés as it forced them to evaluate their teaching methods and improve on them.

The programme offered a further support structure for the protégés in the form of lunches that were held with the co-ordinator on a regular basis. The protégés all mentioned that these informal get-togethers gave them personal support with regards to their feelings about their mentors and the mentoring relationship. One mentor mentioned that perhaps regular informal meetings such as these with other mentoring pairs could also act as a support for the relationship.

4.6.2. ORGANISATION B

With regards to training and orientation, the national programme co-ordinator stated that when the protégés came onto the programme, they attended a two day orientation session where they were introduced to the programme. They were given the reasons why the programme was implemented, how the programme was structured, their responsibilities for the year and the process for the year. It was at this point that they were given their file of information of what was required of them on the programme and they were instructed to complete all the tasks of the file within the year. From the interviews, it was found that all of the protégés remembered that there was an orientation session but the only thing that stood out in their memory was that the CEO of the organisation and his team of functional managers welcomed them onto the programme and highlighted the main duties in their functional areas as well as what the company was looking to achieve with the programme. The co-ordinator also mentioned that the information about the programme given at the

orientation was supposed to be re-enforced at regional level but this was not the case as some of the mentors were not fully aware of all the instructions.

When asked if he had received any specific training with regards to mentoring, one protégé stated:

> …because of my lack of information of how the programme was structured, I wouldn't be able to give an honest answer or an informed answer about that.

Although the purpose and structure of the programme was supposed to be covered in the orientation session, this protégé was unsure of the programme's purpose. One explanation was that the orientation session was filled with a lot of information and protégés might have felt bombarded and therefore did not remember everything. One protégé did mention that in the beginning of the programme she was very overwhelmed with all that was happening around her. Another protégé stated that no matter what was covered in the orientation she did not feel that it would be enough to adequately prepare a protégé for the requirements of the programme because they don't realize how much work it is actually going to be.

Although there is an orientation for the protégés each year, there was no such thing for the mentors although the co-ordinator states that there is an orientation for new mentors. As a first time member, Mentor M states that he received no mentoring training or an orientation. He clarified this by saying:

> …I think for a day they take these protégés down to Port Elizabeth and they put them together and they tell them a lot of the goals and whatever, and for the mentors you have nothing except for that file that you open only once and you see there's a lot of stuff in here and you put it back on your shelf.

When asked what type of mentoring training he received he stated:

> I read the manual. I read the manual and I am a father.

Another mentor stated that although he also had no orientation to the programme, he felt that he had a big enough interest in the programme to not warrant an orientation session. He did not receive a file but insisted that his protégés make him a copy so that he could know what was expected of them so he would know what was expected of him.

The matter of confidentiality and trust is not addressed by this organisation's orientation session but, this has not posed a problem. The national co-ordinator stated that the relationship is built on the assumption that there will be confidentiality and trust and this has proved to be the case with all of the mentoring pairs. One mentor stated that confidentiality is not really an issue in terms of the work aspects that are shared but certainly, any private information shared by his mentor will not go further than their conversation. His protégé mentioned that in the very first conversation they had, he assured her that whatever they discussed would not be repeated to anyone else and up to that point, that norm had not been disregarded.

With regards to ground rules for the relationship, the national co-ordinator recognised that they are very important but this issue is not addressed in the orientation session. The reason for this is:

> …yes, it's a structured programme but we still want it to be natural.

Mentor O agrees with the formal relationship being as relaxed as possible. He says that the organisation gives the mentoring pair the manual., explains the programme and lets them "get on with it". He says:

> …I don't believe in strict sort of rules… so as long as we get it done at the end of the day and the protégé is comfortable with that… then I don't think it's that important.

Mentor N also believes that the ground rules should be negotiated as the programme progresses instead of rigid rules being laid down at the beginning. He also emphasises that it is up to the protégé to negotiate the ground rules because he firmly believes that

…they should manage me.

Besides the orientation session at the beginning of the year, this organisation also has supportive training to do with the programme. They call their training modules "study schools" and the training is effectively three weeks of the year split into three sessions of one week each and spaced over the course of the year. The first study school addressed self-management, looking specifically at improving the protégé's time management skills and commitment. The second study week covered project management because the project is such a large component of the programme. The last week covered strategic management which was relevant because these protégés are being groomed to be future management in the organisation. Part of the second study school covers presentation skills to aid those that have little experience in presenting, as one of the requirements is that they do a presentation of their projects at the end of the programme.

All of the protégés found these study schools to be beneficial except Protégé M who stated that

> I worked for [the organisation] for a long time so most of that training I've already covered. The trainers was very good so it wasn't anything wrong with that but I've just been here a long time and I know most of that stuff.

Mentor M also did not totally agree with the programme training and said:

> …they don't get the amount of knowledge that they can get at university for the same time spent. A university diploma is something that they can go into the market with, I don't think this is something they can go into the market with.

Anther support structure that the protégés mentioned is available to them is their departmental rotations where all the department managers are willing to assist orientating the protégés to and informing them about the relevant department. All the departments are informed before the time that there is a protégé visiting so the protégé is made to feel

welcome and is accommodated in the department. One protégé identified her line manager as a support structure showing that her line manager has an interest in her development and does not give sole responsibility to the mentor.

The national co-ordinator also stated that the regional co-ordinators are support structures for the protégés and the mentors. Out of the all the mentors and protégés interviewed, only one identified her regional co-ordinator as a support structure. The rest of the candidates (both mentors and protégés) refer to the national co-ordinator as their first line of support and state that this would be their first port of call if they were experiencing a problem with the relationship or programme. This is a fault of the programme especially since the national co-ordinator expressly states that she only deals with problems that cannot be solved by the regional co-ordinator.

4.6.3. SUMMARY OF SUPPORTIVE RESOURCES

Training and other support structures are important to aid the success of a formal mentoring programme (Tabbron *et al.,* 1997; Meyer and Fourie, 2004). This has proven true in the mentoring programmes of Organisation A and Organisation B. There is evidence of an orientation workshop for participants of the programme in both organisations that covered the objectives of the programme, the roles and responsibilities and expectations of the mentors and protégés. Organisation B did not provide an orientation for mentors although they were given information about the programme in written form. Pitfalls of the mentoring relationship was covered only by Organisation A. From the samples interviewed in both organisations it was found that this orientation was sufficient for those on the programme. Other supportive resources can be in the form of informal meetings of mentors and protégés or departmental support. Another form of support identified by participants in Organisation B's mentoring programme is to allow the relationship to progress as naturally as possible without too much interference. There are however factors of the organisational context that could affect the relationship and these are discussed below.

4.7. FACTORS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT THAT AFFECT THE RELATIONSHIP

Meyer and Fourie (2004) suggest that if organisations want their mentoring programme to be successful, there should be clear communication throughout the organisation highlighting the benefits of mentoring, the features of the programme and success stories from other mentoring programmes. This will prepare other people within the organisation for the programme that is to come. A clear understanding of the progamme may still bring jealousy from non-mentored employees in the organisation as they may feel as if they were not afforded the same opportunity and they may become resentful of the protégé (Dirsmith and Covaleski, 1985). If however there is a strong organisational culture that supports mentoring, then mentors can be transfer agents of culture. For this the organisation needs to see mentoring as a positive way to develop people and build capability and empower the individuals involved (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

4.7.1. ORGANISATION A

In Organisation A, a pertinent issue for some of the protégés was that of communication to the other members of the organisation. Of special importance were the relevant departments that were going to be receiving the protégés. There were two ways that this organisation communicated the programme to the staff. Firstly, they scheduled a meeting with the Head of Department to inform them if the protégé was chosen and the Head of Department (HOD) was given the details of the programme. When the mentor was chosen, during the orientation workshop, the co-ordinator explained what the other staff members should know about the programme and suggested that they were informed and be made to understand the elements of and the reasons for the programme. If the mentor was also the Head of Department then it was his responsibility to inform the rest of the members of the department about the details of the programme and why the protégé was chosen. If the HOD was not the mentor, then the co-ordinator scheduled a visit with the department and informed the Head of Department who would then relay the message to his department. The entire department (including the mentor) would then attend a meeting where it was emphasised that the protégés are full members of staff and should be treated as such.

In one case, the Head of Department told the co-ordinator the he did not have time for her to brief him or his department about the programme. The result was that the protégé felt used in the department and stated:

> …I don't really feel that I am a part of the full time staff, so I can't really say certain things or I feel that I can't say certain things, and some people regard me as being a student because I'm still doing my PhD, even though I'm staff.

Another protégé had a similar struggle as she started on the programme directly after being a student in the department and also never felt that she was treated as a permanent member of staff. She had to fight for her own office as the department wanted to place her in the student offices. Clearly in these two cases, the message was not made clear enough to the departments. One protégé suggested that instead of leaving it to the Head of Department and the mentor to brief the staff, perhaps the co-ordinator could schedule a time with the department whereby she explains the programme and clarifies the role of the protégés within the university system.

Other protégés had no problem and the researcher felt that it had to do with the culture of the departments. It seemed that although the organisation has a uniform vision, their departments all had different cultures. Three of the mentors from different departments explained that the reason their relationship worked so well was because mentoring new staff was part of the culture of the department and this programme was merely a formalisation of what had always been done.

Some people felt that the culture of the Institution was not one supportive of people development and there was evidence of jealousy from non-mentored employees. One non-white protégé in particular was subjected to comments from another non-white employee along the lines that the protégé was lucky to have been afforded the opportunity of a reduced teaching load because this employee had had to learn about academia "the hard way". Another protégé had found that jealousy from other staff had prevented her from having meaningful work relationships with staff members in her department. She became upset

because staff members from her department would walk past her door every morning and did not stop to greet her or ask how she was doing.

One mentor found that the other members in the department felt that they should have had a say in who was accepted in the department and in the beginning asked questions such as: "Why her?", "Is she going to be a part of the department afterwards?" and "Is that what we want?" One protégé also noted that staff members may make the assumption that because the protégés were from a previously disadvantaged background, they would not have the social skills to be successful. The co-ordinator of the programme made it very clear that this was not the case. Possibly that protégés are of an extremely high academic calibre is not communicated enough to other members of the department. A suggestion made by a protégé for future candidates is that they take the initiative to find out information about the programme and make a point to understand the way in which the programme operates so that they can be sure of their part in the programme and do not get used or abused by others.

One other protégé however felt that support from other staff members was particularly strong. The department within which she operated work closely together and had formed strong bonds among themselves. The protégé stated that she had felt that her department had made space for her and encouraged her to fulfil her responsibilities towards the programme.

One concern highlighted about the relationships was found by the researcher asking the mentors and protégés to give their own quick evaluation of the programme and their relationship They pointed out that the number one issue of concern was time constraints of the mentor. The protégés felt that they had sufficient time for the relationship because it was what was expected of them in their jobs.

Protégé E, whose mentor is the Head of Department, felt that his mentor did not have sufficient time to be effective in his capacity as a mentor because of his increased work load since he was made Head of Department. Another mentor who was Head of Department also stated that him and his protégé do "struggle to meet". Protégé B who also had a Head of Department as a mentor stated that her mentor made time where no one else could and when

she was in his office, he would make her feel like the most important person there. In contrast to the views of their protégés, the mentors felt that they had the time to mentor.

Protégé A felt that the only reason that her mentor feels that he has time to mentor her is because she is an independent person who did not need his advice much. She further stated that he was lucky in being assigned to her because he was hardly ever in his office and if she had been someone more "needy", there may have been problems. Overall the co-ordinator felt that in the future she would not allow the Heads of Departments to mentor as they are too busy with too many other commitments. One Head of Department and mentor felt that he may have more time if his protégé had taken on only his lecture load and not taken over lectures from all over the department.

In mentoring relationships where the Head of Department was not the mentor, allocation of lectures could fall under the Head of Department. The HOD does not play a huge role in the mentoring relationship. Berry (2003) suggests that the protégé and their line manager (in this case the Head of Department) meet prior to the protégé meeting with the mentor to discuss the protégé's development. The mentor should then discuss those developmental plans with the HOD. The documentation of Organisation A states that the HOD's only responsibilities are to ensure that the protégé meets the requirements of the contract post and that they hand in two probationary reports: one at the half way mark of the relationship and one at the end.

Some protégés felt that the Head of Department had very little to do with the actual mentoring relationship therefore they had very little basis on which to write an accurate report. One protégé felt that the little involvement of the HOD was acceptable as she was familiar with the department but thought that had she been new, more involvement would have been necessary. Another protégé felt that his HOD was sufficiently involved. He had an open door policy and phoned the protégé regularly to enquire on how things were going and this was appreciated by the protégé. This protégé feels that very personal issues cannot be shared with the mentor but they can be safely shared with a Head of Department who is able to act as a father figure and give advice from an outsider perspective.

For those Heads of Department's who were mentors, there were some unique issues. As two protégés point out,

> …if I was having issues with my mentor, there would be no where else to go, because he is also my HOD. And… if I was feeling exploited in the department, again, no where else to go.

> …If I have a problem on a collegial basis, I have to talk to him; if I have a problem with him, I have to talk to **him**…

There is however very little evidence that the Head of Department plays a role in the protégé's development but this again might have something to do with the fact that the general culture of organisation is not one of people development. The results here show that departments containing an HOD who has shown an interest in the protégé's development have more successful mentoring relationships.

4.7.2. ORGANISATION B

Organisation B did not show any problems with communication between departments or even regions. Because regional managers were involved in the selection of protégés, they were all aware of the programme and the reasons for its implementation. The result here was that there was no exploitation of protégés of any kind and in fact, the protégés all commented on how supportive the departments were in accommodating them for the week that they were there.

The reason for this communication in the organisation was the nature of the organisational culture. Organisation B was focused on people development. Every person interviewed mentioned that there was no doubt that the organisation was committed to developing people and not only because of the implementation of the formal mentoring programme. There were also certain training programmes in place to further develop employees at all levels of the organisation. This was one of the key factors why the mentoring relationships of the participants interviewed were a success: all the mentors were interested in the development of

their protégés. Mentor N also mentioned that his incentives and bonuses were linked to people development and all employees drew up a development plan and tracked their progress.

The national co-ordinator stated that they were using this programme to try and push the organisation to embrace a mentoring culture that would encourage informal mentoring relationships. Protégés Na and Nb were the first two from their region that were on the programme and Protégé Nb said that although there might be a mentoring culture in the rest of the country, their region still needed to change their culture and that the programme was possibly one way of making people aware of the benefits of mentoring.

Even though this organisation's culture was one of people development, it has not prevented non-mentored employees from questioning the organisation. None of the mentors had noticed any jealousy from non-mentored employees but some of the protégés had heard other people asking the typical "Why him, not me?" question. Protégé Nb said that he was not concerned because he was sure that if those people showed their potential., they would be chosen for the next year's programme. One protégé mentioned that this "passage talk" had been less since they changed the way that they chose protégés. The line managers used to merely pin-point people who they thought had potential and nominate them for the programme. The organisation has since changed that system and they now discuss each employee in terms of their future potential in the organisation.

Two of the protégés stated that they had not heard any comments from colleagues about not being on the programme but say that this could possibly be because not everyone was aware of the programme. Some of the protégés only knew about the programme once they had been chosen. The programme was by no means a secret, but it was not advertised and protégés cannot apply. They can however work towards being chosen for the programme.

In terms of the relationship, time was not seen to be a big issue. One mentor stated that:

Obviously, the more senior, the more busy, you don't always have the time but once again, if you work in the culture, you believe in the programme, you committed to the programme, then you will make the time.

Most of the protégés felt that their mentors made the time to be available to them which they greatly appreciated. Protégé M felt however that it was not the mentor's time that was the problem but actually the protégé's time. This was because of all the extra responsibilities of the programme above their daily job whereas the only extra responsibility for the mentor was the formalized meetings that they had; this could have been once a month or once a week depending on the relationship and the responsibilities required.

With regards to the role of the line manager, the national co-ordinator stated that the line manager is very aware of what is going on with the protégé's development because the organisation encourages the mentor and line manager to discuss the protégé's performance. The organisation recognised that this was very important because the mentor had an understanding of the protégé from one side whilst the line manager could see the impact on the protégé's job as they developed. This is relevant for only one mentoring pair that was interviewed and the interview showed that the line manager was very involved in the development of the employee with the mentor and line manager discussing the employee's development plan at regular intervals.

4.7.3. SUMMARY OF FACTORS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT THAT AFFECT THE RELATIONSHIP

Clear communication about the programme and a supportive organisational culture are keys to success in a formal mentoring programme (Berry, 2003). From the results, Organisation B showed that an attempt is being made to promote an organisational culture that will increase the amount of informal mentoring that occurs within an organisation. Organisation A showed that jealousy arising from non-mentored employees may be particularly high in organisations that introduce mentoring programmes to new entrants to the organisation. This is largely unavoidable although it is important that these employees are advised on the nature of the programme. Communication and culture are two aspects of the organisation that featured

strongly in this study. An issue raised in the results that was not present in the literature is that of time constraints of the mentor and protégé. In Organisation A's mentoring programme in particular, there was evidence of protégés expressing that their relationships were not as successful as they could have been because of the mentor's own time constraints. In Organisation B, some protégés raised the issue that the responsibilities of the mentoring programme, couple with their everyday work, put a large amount of pressure on them. In terms of this study, a final important step is to evaluate the monitoring and evaluation practices of the formal mentoring programmes.

4.8. MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME AND THE RELATIONSHIP

From the theoretical framework, there is little information on how monitoring and evaluation should be conducted. Hofmeyr *et al.* (1995), Hansford *et al.* (2002) and Berry (2003) merely state that organisations having formal mentoring programmes should monitor and evaluate them to see that the relationships are being managed effectively. The evaluation should cover aspects of the mentoring programme, the performance of mentors and protégés and the relationship (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). This has been the focus on the entire study but each organisation's mentoring programme will be looked at in terms of the current methods of evaluation and the aspects of the programme that the evaluation addresses.

4.8.1. ORGANISATION A

In Organisation A, monitoring of the programme is done through report writing. A copy of the Mentor Report guidelines was made available for this research. This is a report written by the mentor and covers the following areas: teaching ability, research ability, administrative ability, personal attributes, relations with staff and students, community service. There was also a place for general comments on the protégé. The focus was mainly on the performance of the protégé. This report, although written by the mentor, is seen by the protégé who needs to sign that they agree that the assessment of them is fair. This report is submitted after the first six months and at the end of each year. The reports are then submitted to and signed by

the Head of Department as well as the Vice-Chancellor, and any problems that are identified in the reports are picked up by the co-ordinator and managed accordingly.

There is no copy of a "Protégé report" available but the co-ordinator mentioned that at regular intervals over the first year they are given the opportunity to confidentially evaluate the mentor in terms of the success of the relationship by writing a report to the co-ordinator. This evaluation, addressing performance of the mentor and the perceived successfulness of the mentoring relationship is seen only by the co-ordinator of the programme.

The co-ordinator mentioned that there was a report on the programme that was expected to be completed by the mentor and protégé together six months into the relationship. There is then another report and evaluation at the end of each year. This report enables mentors and protégés to give general feedback on the programme and state whether or not there are aspects that they would like to change.

The concern of one of the mentors was that the areas addressed by the reports do not change from year to year to incorporate development of the relationship. He found this out by asking for the current report format to be sent to him and was told by the co-ordinator that it was the same as the previous year if he still had that one. His main concern was that the reporting system had not taken into account any changes that were being suggested from year to year about the evaluation. The other concern was that the reports were signed off by the protégé, the Head of Department, the Dean and the Vice-Chancellor. As one mentor stated "you're not going to put anything into that that puts you in a bad light". The co-ordinator's response to that was that by allowing all those people to sign off the report, it was signifying the importance of the programme.

In contrast, one of the protégé's felt that the reports were sufficiently interactive to allow the mentor and protégé to state their true feelings. A suggestion that was made by one of the mentors was that there be an informal evaluation where the co-ordinator engage the mentors and protégés in conversation about the programme and the relationship as that will give a truer reflection. One protégé felt however that the type of evaluation would not make a

difference although her mentor agreed with the point raised earlier that one would not write down anything that was going to reflect badly on you as a person.

The effectiveness of this type of monitoring is questionable in terms of identifying problems with the programme. A number of mentors and protégés mentioned that they were visited by the sponsors of the programme and the sponsors were asking everyone questions about the programme. The mentors and protégés were questioned in a group interview. The general feeling among these mentors and protégés was that the programme was portrayed negatively to the sponsors with the protégés especially showing unhappiness with the programme.

During a member check where the programme co-ordinator of Organisation A reviewed the data in the study to establish credibility, the lack of ability of the monitoring processes to pick up on problems within the programme was taken into account and she decided to conduct a more qualitative evaluation of the programme in the form of individual interviews with the mentors and group interviews with the protégés to elicit feedback specifically about the programme.

4.8.2. ORGANISATION B

This programme has two types of reports that are submitted over the year and the content of each is the same. The first one is a programme evaluation which the protégé and mentor fill in individually, twice over the year, and covers the following areas: programme design, roles of associates, programme activities, and communication. The format of the report is statements presented on a Lickert scale. The last part of the report is a general section that asks the protégé and mentor to comment on what the programme should stop, start and continue.

The second report is filled out by the managers of the departments where the protégé completes the departmental rotation. This is an evaluation of the protégé that measures his/her progress or improvement as per the requirements of that departmental rotation. The areas covered are: analytical ability, judgement, strategic global perspective, communication, individual leadership, initiative, planning/organizing/control, intrapreneurship, customer

focus, flexibility and business acumen. The main focus here is on the performance of the protégé.

When asked how the programme was evaluated, only one mentoring pair mentioned the mid year and end of year report that had to be submitted and they had already completed the programme. The other mentoring pairs stated that the programme was evaluated in terms of their progress through the different areas. The reason for the mentoring pairs not stating that there were evaluations was because at the time of this research, the mid-year evaluations had not yet been done. Although, Mentor O, who has been a mentor before did not know of any specific reports used to evaluate the programme. Regarding the mentoring pair that was aware of the reporting structure, only the protégé seemed to have filled in the entire report and was able to comment on its content. The mentor stated that there was no evaluation except for one page that he had to sign and submit but he could not recall what was on the page.

4.8.3. SUMMARY OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Monitoring and evaluation is important to not only determine the success of a formal mentoring programme but also to ensure that the programme and the relationships are being managed effectively (Hansford *et al.,* 2002). To monitor and evaluate their programmes, Organisations A and B used written reports and questionnaires respectively. Organisation A, in their evaluation attempted to address the programme, the relationship and the performance of the mentors and the protégés, yet the feedback from some of the participants of the programme was that a more qualitative evaluation be conducted. Organisation B's evaluation had a strong developmental focus but failed to comment on the performance of the mentor.

4.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the relevant literature according to the framework developed in the previous chapters and outlined the results from the interviews with the mentoring pairs from the two organisations and their programme co-ordinators. First, the characteristics of each mentoring pair was discussed. The chapter was then divided into the following sections: the

goals of the mentoring programme, the roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés, supportive resources, factors of the organisational context that affect the relationship, and monitoring and evaluation of the programme and relationship.

In examining goals, a pertinent issue that was raised was that if the programme is not seen to support succession planning, the result would be a large amount of anxiety among the protégés regarding their future in the organisation. Regarding roles and responsibilities, it was found that the success of the formal mentoring relationships seemed to depend more on the individual personalities of the mentors and protégés than on whether or not the roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés are clarified at the beginning of the programme. The roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés were explicitly expressed in one of the programmes but that programme's relationships were not seen as more successful than the relationships in the programme that did not explicitly clarify the roles. Rather, the nature of the activities in the programme were cues to both parties on the appropriate roles to play.

Regarding matching, the results highlighted that it is more beneficial to the relationship if the protégé is able to choose his/her own mentor and where this is not possible, to allow all the staff in the department hosting the protégé to make a decision regarding the choice of mentor. This process of choosing the right person to act as mentor needs to include finding someone who expresses a willingness and desire to be on the programme.

Training and ongoing support was vital. An early orientation training session is important to introduce the mentors and protégés to the programme. The literature does not expand on further supportive resources but it was found that protégés both appreciated and found value in additional forms of support such as training relevant to their development and informal meetings with other protégés.

Within the organisational context, it was found that clear communication and a supportive organisational culture greatly aids in successful mentoring relationships. The results also showed that there was more jealousy among non-mentored employees when the formal mentoring programme was aimed at employees that were new to the organisation. Although

not noted in the literature, it was found that a critical issue in formal mentoring programmes could be time constraints placed on mentors and protégés.

Both organisations rely on written feedback for their monitoring processes yet through this monitoring it was found that there may be merit to combining written evaluation with other qualitative methods such as individual interviews. There were some issues raised in this evaluation that was not yet picked up by the organisations' current evaluation methods.

This is a theory-based evaluation and thus the results were presented in such a way as to benchmark the programmes of Organisation A and Organisation B against the literature. However, following this approach also served to highlight discrepancies between the literature and the actual occurrences in the mentoring programmes. In some cases there were "gaps" in the literature. These discrepancies and the implications will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter is based on the literature review and the results presented in the previous chapter. The discussion will revolve around how to evaluate a formal mentoring programme with regards to the framework established in the literature and methodology chapters and explores how the framework can be modified. There will also be a report on the two South African organisations evaluated in terms of what they are doing well and what needs to be improved. Lastly, recommendations will be made for future research.

5.2. EVALUATING FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMMES

When evaluating formal mentoring programmes, one needs to consider two things: the perspective of the individuals participating on the programme and the organisation's goals and objectives (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). This is done by specifically looking at the dimensions surrounding the relationship and programme process, and outputs (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). Berry's model (2003) of implementing formal mentoring provides a framework which acts as a basis for developing evaluation questions that addresses the points raised by Megginson and Clutterbuck (1999). Although questions to the participants of the programme were mainly asked according to the categories proposed by Berry's model (2003), the evaluation was not prepared exactly according to this model because it was found that some of the phases of implementation are closely linked and could be evaluated together and expanded by one phase.

5.2.1. THE GOALS OF THE PROGRAMME

To evaluate the programme outcomes (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999), the organisation needs to have set clear and concise goals for the programme. These need to be communicated

to and understood by the participants of the programme for them to be achieved. Tabbron *et al.* (1997) state that if the objectives of the programme are misunderstood by the participants on the programme, it might cause the programme to fail.

Related to the goals is the placement of the formal mentoring programme within the strategic framework of the organisation. Here the organisation needs to have considered their strategic human resource plans for the organisation as well as where the protégé's succession lies. Defining the goals of the programme and identifying the strategic human resource needs of the organisation are the first two phases in Berry's model (2003) of implementation and relate to evaluating programme outcomes. This also relates to Babbie and Mouton's model (2001) of programme evaluation where the goals of the programme are key to evaluating a programme's success. The importance of clarifying the goals cannot be emphasised enough as the goals signal the organisation's commitment to developing people (Cook and Adonisi, 1994).

Meyer and Fourie (2004) claim that programmes might fail if employees are not actively involved in planning the mentoring programme yet in this research there is no evidence to suggest that this is the case. In many formal mentoring programmes this is unrealistic as the participants might have just entered the organisation and it would have been impossible for the employees to be involved. In this study it was found that a lack of involvement of employees in the planning process did not seem to hinder the success of the formal mentoring programme. The important point to remember in evaluating the programme outcomes is that the goals and strategic intent of the organisation is clearly communicated to the participants.

In evaluating the programme outcomes, one also needs to consider the involvement of top management in the programme. Commitment from top management should be obtained at the start of the programme and communicated to the participants of the programme as this signals the importance of the programme to the organisation (Hofmeyr *et al.*, 1995). In the evaluation one could look at the impact of top management commitment on the attitudes of the employees participating on the programme.

5.2.2. THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

Berry (2003) does not include a phase for the clarification of the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and protégé but states that this should occur within an orientation session at the start of the programme. Babbie and Mouton (2001) show that the goals of the programme directly relate to the target group and for purposes of evaluation, this target group needs to be certain of their role within the programme. Especially for programmes where protégés are chosen based on their potential., role clarification will ensure that they are fully aware of what is required of them and they can decide whether or not they would like to actually be on the programme (Phillips-Jones, 1983). The literature states that role clarification is important to ensure that commitment to the programme is obtained (Meyer and Fourie, 2004) yet in this study it was found that in Organisation B, where the roles of the mentor and protégé were not always clearly understood by the participants of the programme, there seemed to be little effect on commitment to the programme.

There were cases where the mentor did not receive an orientation to the programme or to mentoring. A session on role clarification is important to ensure that mentors are aware of the role that are going to play in the protégé's development. Kram (1985) identifies career and psychosocial roles of the mentor that can play a positive part in the development of the protégé. If mentors are made aware of these roles, it can only serve as a positive influence on the relationship. These roles would tie in with the aims and objectives of the programme. The literature on mentoring does not define roles for the protégé yet it does identify certain characteristics that the protégé should have such as career commitment and the ability and willingness to learn (Purcell, 2004). It is important that protégés possess these characteristics if the relationship is to be successful.

Questions of evaluation should address whether the mentors and protégés are aware of their roles and responsibilities as well as whether or not they have a desire to be on the programme at all. If the mentors and protégés do not desire to be on the programme then they should be probed as to the reasons. If the mentors and protégés are not clear on what their roles and

responsibilities are in the programme, the evaluation should assess how this can be addressed in the future.

5.2.3. SELECTION AND MATCHING PRACTICES OF MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

In selecting participants, the programme needs to develop a set of criteria that the selection is going to be based on. These criteria serve as a foundation for the selecting process (Kiltz *et al.,* 2004). This ensures that selection is fair and unbiased in terms of the target audience. Selection and matching are closely related in terms of the criteria used to select the mentor for the protégé as this selection of the mentor is in essence, matching.

In terms of matching, the ideal scenario would be that the protégé chooses a mentor who they know as a person and who is willing to help in the development of that individual. In many mentoring programmes this is not realistic because the protégé may be new to the organisation and/or does not have access to senior management members that would serve as mentors.

Each method of matching has its advantages and disadvantages but whatever method is used, great care should be exercised in the matching process (Chao and Walz, 1992). In evaluating the selection and matching approach, it should be evaluated in terms of the context of the organisation. Questions need to be asked regarding whether those specific methods of selection and matching are successful in terms of the goals of the mentoring programme and the relationships experienced by the mentoring pairs.

There also needs to be a negotiation between the mentor, the protégé and the line manager in terms of the protégé's development. Berry (2003) states that first the protégé and line manager should meet to discuss the developmental plans, then the mentor and the line manager meet and finally the mentor and protégé have their first meeting where a negotiation occurs regarding the setting of realistic expectations (Kiltz *et al.,* 2004). The relationship between the line manager and the mentor is important because of the impact of the protégé's

development on their job. Questions asked here should address aspects of the relationship between the mentor and line manager relationship with regard to the protégé.

5.2.4. SUPPORTIVE RESOURCES

Insufficient training of the mentor and protégé can have an impact on the success of the formal mentoring programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). Training about mentoring should cover mentor and protégé competencies, pitfalls of the programme and implementation of the process. The literature states that there should be training for both mentors and protégés although it is often taken for granted that the mentors need to be trained.

This training is usually in the form of an orientation session at the beginning of the programme and Berry (2003) says that it should communicate the programme objectives, define the roles and responsibilities of mentors and protégés, and clarify mentoring ground rules. Kiltz *et al.,* (2004) states that the focus for the relationship should be on building trust, communication and understanding. The orientation session should also address any concerns that the mentor or protégé has about the programme. Questions asked about this early training session should revolve around if the mentors and protégés found the training beneficial., relevant and they should be asked to point out any areas that were not addressed in the training that they felt it should have covered.

Berry (2003) places "orientation and training" between phases 3 and 4, those being selection of mentors and protégés and matching of the mentoring pair. It seems to be an issue of debate as to when this training should occur. The mentoring programmes evaluated in this research placed the training after matching but again this is dependant on the implementation of the programme within the organisational context. The important thing is that the various aspects are addressed and that the mentor and protégé both undergo some sort of orientation session.

Babbie and Mouton (2001) show that coupled with training there should be courses and workshops. These serve the purpose of aiding the development of the protégé on the mentoring programme. For evaluation, questions should centre around the other types of

supportive resources that are available to the mentor and protégé and the impact that they have had on the protégé's development according to the participants on the programme.

There is also the issue of setting ground rules as a base for confidentiality and trust. This is where the relationship processes are evaluated (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2001). Evaluation of relationship processes involves determining the frequency of meetings and how the meetings are run. This however may depend on the needs of the protégé. Some protégés prefer that the meetings are more formal and structured whereas others may prefer a more informal approach. However, whichever is used, the mentor and protégé should meet formally at least once a month.

5.2.5. FACTORS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT THAT AFFECT THE RELATIONSHIP

According to the literature, for a formal mentoring programme to be completely successful, the benefits should be highlighted and features of the programme should be communicated to everyone in the organisation (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). This may however bring jealousy from non-mentored employees but the organisation will need to manage this by informing the members of the organisation about the target market and the goals of the programme. Linked to this is the organisational culture which strongly influences whether or not the programme is a success. The aim is for the culture to support both informal and formal mentoring and for the mentors to be transfer agents of that culture.

Berry's model (2003) illustrates that a mentoring programme should be implemented in an organisation with a transformational culture but his paper has no explanation of this concept. What is vitally important and is recognised by the model is that culture is central to the success of the programme. In academic institutions, such as Organisation A, this refers to departmental culture where it is beneficial if the departments hosting a protégé are supportive of the mentoring relationship. In organisations such as Organisation B, where the programme is national., it is important that the culture of the entire organisation supports the mentoring programme.

Nowhere in the model does Berry (2003) refer to communication towards the rest of the organisation and this is a weakness. For protégés to gain support from the organisation, the other employees need to be informed of the programme so that they can assist the protégé in their development where necessary. This study found that in Organisation A, a successful means of informing employees of the programme was for the mentoring programme co-ordinator to address the departments hosting protégés. If the opportunity of mentoring is available to other employees in the department, this may encourage other members who were not chosen on the programme to engage in activities that may place them on the programme in future years.

Questions for evaluation centre around identifying whether or not the protégé's department was informed about the programme and how this impacted on the protégé's experience. The mentor and protégé should also be probed on their view of the organisation's policy of people development to establish whether or not the organisation's culture supports a people development programme such as a mentoring programme.

5.2.6. MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME AND THE RELATIONSHIP

In terms of Megginson and Clutterbuck's model (2001), the programme processes and relationship outcomes would be evaluated here. The evaluation should cover the quality of the mentoring programme and the performance of the mentors and protégés and the relationship. When evaluating the programme processes, the questions should be based on the mentoring pairs' experiences and the number of relationships that succeeded or failed. Mentors and protégés can be questioned on why they thought the relationship and the programme was a success or not.

The relationship outcomes can be evaluated in terms of the mentor and protégé's goal achievement. Johnson *et al.*'s model (1999) can be used as a framework for evaluating the different dimensions of the relationship and identifying where the differences are between the mentor and protégé and how these impact on the goal achievement of the relationship.

This general evaluation should also cover how the mentoring programme is currently being evaluated and whether or not this internal evaluation is effective in allowing the programme to make improvements for the future. Comments should be invited at this point as to any changes that the participants of the programme would like to make that can improve the implementation.

This study found that the two mentoring programmes had sufficient monitoring processes in place but very little evaluation. The distinction is that monitoring requires gathering information or data about the programme whereas the evaluation aspect involves using that information to make decisions about the programme such as what improvements should be made and whether or not the programme should be continued. When evaluating these processes, it is necessary to be aware of the monitoring processes and suggest ways that this information can be used for further evaluation.

5.3. PRACTCAL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FORMAL MENTORING

The evaluation of the two formal mentoring programmes studied is based on the theoretical framework presented in the literature as well as the steps outlined above. The programmes will be evaluated along side each other to highlight areas that are lacking in one yet maybe present in another thereby adding to the effectiveness of the recommendations.

5.3.1. THE GOALS OF THE PROGRAMME

The goals of the two mentoring programmes are essentially the same: to develop people for the future of the organisations. Mentoring Programme A is aimed at equity candidates whereas Mentoring Programme B is aimed at development of high potential employees.

When the aim of the programme is to develop people from a previously disadvantaged background, such as in Organisation A, it may create a stigma that not everyone on the programme may be comfortable with as mentioned by a protégé on the programme. This protégé thought that other people may feel that the protégé is merely on the programme because of their race or gender and not because of their qualification or ability. Care needs to

be taken by the co-ordinators of the programme to dispel any stigma and ensure both mentored and non-mentored employees are aware that the intent of the programme is to develop people who have the potential to pursue a career in the organisation.

The goals of a programme can only be met if they are clearly laid out at the beginning of the programme and if they are clearly communicated to the participants. In both mentoring programmes an attempt was made to clarify the goals and objectives of the programme at an orientation session at the beginning of the programme. Mentoring Programme B also gave the participants of the programme a copy of these objectives in written form which they could refer to in their own time. The written format was attached to a module that would be used for the duration of the programme and so was not merely something that would be looked at and then filed away. This helped to reinforce the goals in the minds of the participants.

Meyer and Fourie (2004) state that the success of the programme might be hindered if potential participants are not involved in its planning. In both programmes it was not realistic to actively involve certain members in the planning because most of them were not yet a part of the organisation at this time. In Mentoring Programme B some of the mentors were asked their opinions during the planning of the process and this may have contributed to the success of that programme. This could however be due to the fact that the culture of the organisation supports development of people. In Mentoring Programme A, the Human Resources Department and Academic Development Department planned and co-ordinated the programme and although it was not feasible to involve all of the departments in the planning, more of an effort should have been made to inform departments of the purpose of the programme and its processes. This could be done by addressing the head of each department and providing them with information about the programme to obtain their buy-in to the aim of people development. The first time that some departments had heard of the programme was when they were due to receive a protégé and in some cases this created problems. These issues could be avoided by communicating the intent of the programme from the start.

Some of the protégés in both mentoring programmes mention that they would have liked to be part of the planning of the programme because there are a number of suggestions that they would like to make that they feel would improve the programme. Although they could not be

part of the planning, a concerted effort should be made to implement these improvements in the future years of the programme.

A critical issue in Mentoring Programme A, is that of the programme tying in with the larger strategic human resource goals of the organisation. In this mentoring programme, there were participants who were unsure of whether or not they will remain in the organisation at the end of the programme, as the organisation does not have the capacity to retain them after the programme. Although that person will develop within themselves, the protégés viewed it as a waste to spend resources on someone who will not remain in the organisation. There is no formal succession planning for the protégés and so their development plan that is written up at the beginning of the programme is not further developed once the programme is complete if they do not remain in the organisation. There is a positive aspect in that over the course of the programme, the protégés are being developed and thus may be offered jobs in their field as a result of the extra development. The important point to note is that the mentoring programme is actually achieving the goal of development.

The aligning of the programme goals to the strategic human resource goals implies a continued involvement by the Human Resources Department. In Organisation A, the Academic Development Department took over from the Human Resources Department at a point in the programme and this resulted in a lack of focus on succession planning. The HR Department, although available for consultation, had limited involvement in the programme. The lesson learnt here is that the HR department needs to be actively involved in the development and development plans of the protégés on the programme.

Mentoring Programme B is aimed at developing the protégé for a future in the organisation. The development plan that is drawn up for the individual covers not only the duration of the programme but also a few years thereafter. The HR department in each region is actively involved in the programme and there is a designated HR Officer that receives feedback from and offers support to the mentors and protégés on the programme. The HR Officer is also responsible for monitoring the protégé's development. This approach has been successful in terms of the programme.

This being said, one protégé in Mentoring Programme B felt that the mentoring programme came too late for her because she had already been in the organisation for seven years. Part of the responsibilities on the programme requires that the protégés learn about the inner workings of departments other than their own, yet she believes that she has this knowledge already and thus did not learn much over the course of the programme. This brings the argument as Babbie and Mouton (2001) illustrate and that is that the goals are aligned with the target market. The target market should have been more clearly defined so as to avoid participants on the programme feeling as if they have not gained anything. The organisation does not prescribe that employees cannot be promoted unless they have been on the programme and it was therefore not necessary for this individual to be on the mentoring programme, even if she had been recognised as future management potential.

In both programmes, top management support is evident. Neither of the organisations had trouble convincing top management of the programme because it was the Vice-Chancellor and the CEO of each organisation respectively that commissioned the mentoring programme. Aside from pointing out to mentors and protégés the importance of the programme, this aided the continuation of the programme. The mentoring programme of Organisation A is soon to be discontinued because of lack of funding but the Vice-Chancellor has stated that there will be future development programmes in the organisation.

5.3.2. THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

According to Kram (1985), mentors have two main roles in the mentoring relationship: a career role (sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection and setting challenging assignments) and a psychosocial role (role modelling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling and friendship). To benefit from these roles, protégés need to be open to receiving help, have the ability to learn, have career commitment and competence and a strong self-identity (Purcell, 2004). To pursue a relationship that will be beneficial for the protégé, mentors and protégés need to be aware of their roles.

In Mentoring Programme A, an attempt is made to ensure that mentors and protégés are aware of the role they are meant to be playing by attending an orientation session that clarifies this. Mentoring Programme B only addresses role clarification with the protégés but mentors are made aware of some of the roles they are meant to play by the activities that the mentors have to complete in the protégé's development. For example, mentors play an exposure-and-visibility role during the "shadowing sessions" where protégés observe the mentor at a high profile meeting to which the protégé would normally not be eligible to attend. Linking roles to particular activities makes them more concrete and this is a potential strength of Mentoring Programme B. At an orientation session, where a lot of information is given, little would probably be remembered about roles and thus, linking them to activities reinforces the roles to the mentors and protégés.

Although the orientation session is important as a starting point for role clarification they should however be further emphasised throughout the programme by incorporating them into tasks that protégés need to be guided through. Mentoring Programme A states the roles in the orientation session and because their responsibilities of the programme are linked to everyday academic work, there is little room for mentors to be encouraged into roles such as sponsorship as identified by Kram (1985). Unless the mentor is inclined to be more interested in the further development of the protégé as opposed to just fulfil a duty to ensure that the protégé "gets through", these roles will not become evident.

There are some mentors who have had previous informal mentoring experience and this has influenced their view on mentoring roles. These mentors are more inclined to play roles of role modelling, protection and sponsorship. Interviews with mentors from both mentoring programmes indicated that some people are more inclined to play some roles than others because of the types of people they are yet these mentors do have the ability to learn new roles if they are made aware of them.

Protégés on the programme are made aware of their roles and responsibilities at the orientation session and these are reinforced by the tasks that they have to complete by the end of the programme. However, in Mentoring Programme A, there is not a strong sense of commitment to the organisation amongst some of the protégés and they admit that they are

on the programme because it was "part of the job". This has an effect on their mentoring relationships and they feel that the programme is not beneficial for them. This feeling however could also be linked to the lack of provision of future career for the protégés within the organisation.

When implementing programmes to develop people, it is important to ensure that there is that desire to be developed and that there is some commitment to furthering oneself in the chosen career. This can be assessed by gathering information from potential mentors and protégés at the outset of the programme. Questions about their future development aspirations could be asked to determine if they wish to be on the programme. If there is no desire and commitment, it would be more beneficial for the organisation to place someone else on the programme that has the desire to succeed and be developed.

5.3.3. SELECTION AND MATCHING PRACTICES OF MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

In selecting mentors and protégés, organisations needs to develop a specific set of criteria that possible participants of the programme can be evaluated against to see whether or not they qualify to be on the programme in terms of the programme goals (Berry, 2003). In Mentoring Programme A, the only criteria are that they are accepted into the academic post (which is what they apply for) and the mentoring relationship is part of the requirements of that development programme. Protégés are from previously disadvantaged background and are seen to have the potential to be developed in the academic arena.

Mentoring Programme B has also defined specific criteria for the protégés. These protégés have to have the potential to take up future management positions in the organisation and this is evaluated according to their performance as well as psychometric tests. These criteria are clearly laid out so that there is recourse if someone questions the reasons as to why they are not on the programme. The criteria provide the most fair and unbiased way of selecting participants.

In Mentoring Programme A, there were two protégés who expressed that they were on the programme because it provided a job and not because they expressed a wish for development. This indicates that either they misrepresented themselves during the selection processes or the job screening processes of the organisation are not as good as they could be. In terms of those positions, there might have been other candidates who would have possibly been better with respect to the aims of the programme. There was no problem of misrepresentation among the sample interviewed in Organisation B. The reason for this could have been the difference in employment. In Organisation A, the protégés were job applicants whilst in Organisation B, the protégés were already employees. The context of Organisation B was also different in terms of the focus of the programme being on future career prospects.

The literature on mentoring recommends that the protégés to choose their mentors for the relationship to be a success. In Mentoring Programme B this is the case and all the mentoring pairs interviewed have given no indication of problems within the relationship. In Mentoring Programme A, it is not realistic for protégés to choose their mentors because they are new to the organisation and have no knowledge of previous mentors. This has proved problematic to some of the mentoring pairs and mentors and protégés alike have admitted that their relationship bordered on dysfunctional. This has an impact on the protégé's development and their willingness to remain in the organisation if given a choice at the end of the programme. A recommendation here would be that potential mentors be involved in the selection of the protégé based on the information that is gathered about the protégé during the selection process.

There is also a reported problem in Organisation A where a line manager (in this case the Head of Department) was nominated as a mentor. Berry (2003) prescribes that line managers should not be mentors because of the different roles that they play in the protégé's developmental plan. The problem found in the study however was time constraints of the head of department as mentor. Although these time constraints should have been an intervening factor in Organisation B because of the high rank of the mentor, all the mentors said that it was just a matter of making time.

A recommendation would be to firstly have a list of people that are willing to act as mentors and who think they will not be constrained by time. Psychometric assessments should be performed on these potential mentors to find out certain personality characteristics and to form an idea of the type of person they are. Future protégés should then be questioned on what type of person they think they could work best with and every effort should be made to match the mentor assessment results to the answers from the protégé. This seems a more effective method of matching than allowing the head of department to merely put forward a name of someone who thinks he has the time to mentor.

Another question raised was whether or not the mentor and protégé's field of interest should be the same. In this evaluation the mentor and protégé of each mentoring pair were in the same department although in Organisation A, may have had different research interests. The fact that the department was the same had a positive impact on the relationship because it meant that the mentor was more accessible to the protégé. Some of the partners in the mentoring pairs had different specialised interests yet only one or two participants felt that it was a hindrance to the relationship. In Organisation B it was found to be highly beneficial if the protégé was in the same department as the mentor. One mentor had a previous experience with a protégé from another department and he felt that this relationship was not as successful because he could not develop the protégé in his field. The recommendation is again that the programme co-ordinators find out from the potential mentors and protégés as to what they think would work best for them.

5.3.4. SUPPORTIVE RESOURCES

Organisation A has an extensive orientation session for both the mentors and the protégés that covers areas from the first meeting of the mentor and protégé to evaluation of the programme. This has worked well as an introduction to the programme and acts as a way to address any concerns that the mentor and protégé might have about the forthcoming relationship or programme.

Mentoring Programme B, although having an orientation for the protégés, has no orientation or training for the mentors. This could create potential problems for the relationship in terms

of goal and role clarification. Unless the mentor has had some prior mentoring training, they might not be able to be as effective as a mentor without some type of orientation. Fortunately in this organisation, the mentors are all aware of the goals and purpose of the programme because they are involved in protégé selection and their departments are involved in the protégé's development.

The timing of this orientation is also important. Mentoring Programme B holds the orientation before the mentor and protégé even meet and this works well to introduce the programme. In Mentoring Programme A, the protégés begin in the organisation in January and are only given an orientation to the programme in March and this was a concern of a few of the protégés. The general feeling was that they were unsure of their responsibilities until the orientation session and by that time two months had already passed. A recommendation would be that the orientation programme be held before the programme officially begins so that mentors and protégés are not thrown in "the deep end".

In both mentoring programmes, confidentiality and trust are not explicitly addressed in the orientation session but is rather assumed in the relationship. In both programmes it seems to be implicitly implied that there will be a certain amount of confidentiality and trust and especially in Mentoring Programme B, the general feeling is that ground rules are not forced upon the mentoring pair because the organisation wants the formal relationship to be as natural as possible. Mentors and Protégés in Mentoring Programme A feel that these ground rules will be established once the relationship develops. In terms of the relationships in the different mentoring programmes, there have been no issues concerning ground rules, confidentiality and trust.

Both programmes also have a variety of supportive resources in the form of extra courses that the protégés need to attend that will aid them in reaching their development goals. Generally the protégés have found these helpful in terms of their development and similar supportive courses are recommended in future evaluation programmes. There could possibly be more supportive resources for mentors throughout the programme.

5.3.5. FACTORS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT THAT AFFECT THE RELATIONSHIP

In Mentoring Programme A, there was a concern that the employees in the protégé's department are not informed about the programme or even that there is a protégé within the department. What occurred was that the protégé arrived in the department and had to fight for office space or to be recognised as a full-time staff member. This led to the exploitation of the protégés in some departments. There is confusion in the programme as to whose duty it is to inform the department about the protégé and the programme and the result is that it is not always being done.

In Organisation B, the protégé's department is informed that the protégé is on the programme The other Heads of Department are also made aware of the mentoring programme and have pledged support of the protégés. When the protégé visits the departments (other than their own) as one of their departmental rotation duties, everyone in the department is informed and they show a willingness to help the protégé through that part of the module. This is due to the fact that all departmental managers are involved in the selection of the protégé from the beginning when all the employees are evaluated to determine whether or not they will go on a developmental programme.

In Organisation A, the programme does not require that departments who do not have protégés are informed of the programme and the protégés. This caused a barrier between departments in the few cases where protégés of one department have mentors that are in other departments and inter-departmental communication is lacking. Some departments foster strong mentoring relationships, while other departments host mentoring relationships that are dysfunctional. This difference in relationships is an issue of culture where the departments are not unified in their vision of people development across the organisation. Where a culture of people development is instilled by providing various other developmental opportunities for their employees and linking managerial incentives and bonuses to development, developmental relationships might be more effective.

There also seems to be more jealousy from non-mentored employees in Organisation A and this may be caused by the lack of a unified developmental culture across the organisation and within departments. There is a feeling that non-mentored employees have a very individualistic view of the programme in that instead of seeing the merit, they criticise it because they were not given the opportunity to be on the programme. This could also be because the programme is available only to designated groups. Organisation B has relatively few problems of jealousy because all employees that aspire to be on the programme recognise that they have a fair and equal chance of making it onto the programme.

Before implementing formal mentoring programmes it is recommended that the organisation culture be developed to welcome people development prior embarking on development projects. It seems that a supportive culture is just as important as top management support in making mentoring relationships a success.

5.3.6. MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME AND THE RELATIONSHIP

Both mentoring programmes have some sort of internal monitoring to check that the programme is running smoothly and that there are not any major relationship problems or if there are, that these are dealt with early. Over the three year period of the mentoring relationship in Mentoring Programme A, there are two sets of reports that are submitted four times. An area of concern is that as the dynamics of the mentoring relationship change and as the programme evolves, there is no change to the content or structure of the reports signifying that any suggestions surrounding reporting are not taken into consideration.

The reporting systems in both mentoring programmes are also very structured in terms of the areas they address which may result in mentors and protégés not being able to express themselves fully unlike if there was a one-on-one interview. This may however not be feasible if there are a lot of people involved in the evaluation although then group interviews can be conducted. If this qualitative analysis is not feasible, a suggestion then would be to follow the reporting structure where open ended questions are asked such as in Organisation A rather than statements being graded on a Lickert scale as in Organisation B.

In Organisation A, the report is viewed not only by the mentor, protégé and co-ordinator but also by the Head of Department and Vice-Chancellor making it possible that people filling in the reports may not be totally open because they would not want to incriminate themselves. A recommendation here would be that the report be confidential and be seen only by the co-ordinator who can then give a general report about feedback to the interested stakeholders.

When asked to evaluate Mentoring Programme A and their relationships, there were mixed results by the mentors and protégés. Generally, participants of the programme who felt that the programme was a success thought that their relationships were a success. The organisation would need to explore the reasons for these unsuccessful relationships in depth and learn from those relationships that are successful, especially pertaining to the choice of mentor. In Mentoring Programme B, there were no reported relationship problems and in mentors and protégés felt that the programme, in terms of its goals and objectives, was a success.

Both programmes had sufficient monitoring of the programme but no evaluation. The information gathered in this evaluation showed that it is important that some type of evaluation occurs above the programme monitoring.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The objective of the study was to firstly evaluate formal mentoring programmes within South African organisations and secondly to add to the body of knowledge about the evaluation of formal mentoring programmes. Little is known about formal mentoring within the South African context and thus the research was based on theoretical mentoring and programme evaluation models. The mentoring programmes within two South African organisations were then evaluated against this theoretical framework.

This research was conducted from the perspective of the organisation and looked at the views of the participants of the programme with the aim of advising the organisations involved on the more effective implementation of their mentoring programmes. If this was designed to

serve the interest of other stakeholders and the study had approached the mentors and protégés with regards to their views on how an evaluation should have been conducted, the outcome may have been different. In other words the evaluation represented by this study, was from the limited perspective and interests of the organisations involved. Future research could incorporate the interests of other stakeholders more expressly, and address the issue of balancing stakeholder interests – a matter that has not been addressed here

Future research might like to explore the possibility of an experimental design that aids a theory-based study. This study reports on the effects of certain processes but cannot adequately qualify whether or not the programmes being evaluated were a success. It will be useful to research a formal mentoring programme by comparing the effects of a programme on a mentored and a control group.

The evaluation conducted for this study was formative. Formative evaluation is useful to suggest improvements to programmes but the information gained in formative evaluations can also be used in a summative evaluation if this was needed. This study does not focus on a summative evaluation yet questions such as those addressing cost-benefits could be expanded in future studies.

To obtain information for this research, only participants and co-ordinators were interviewed. Babbie and Mouton (2001) recognise that there are other stakeholders involved in formal programmes such as shareholders, top management, sponsors and non-protégés or mentors. To further evaluate the success of formal mentoring programmes, these stakeholders could be interviewed.

Future research might also like to address the differences in formal mentoring programmes within other types of organisations such as non-profit organisations and hospitals as some of the variety of the findings of this study was due to the different contexts of the organisations. The type of organisation may impact on the evaluation of the formal mentoring programme and the extent of this impact can be explored.

In this study, the focus of supportive resources is mainly on their availability. This was appropriate for this research but further research might like to address the appropriateness and sufficiency of those resources.

Culture seemed to be central to the success of formal mentoring programmes in terms of the attitude of the mentor, the protégé and non-mentored employees. A recommendation for future research is that there be a more in-depth evaluation on the influence of organisational culture on formal mentoring programmes and also how formal mentoring programmes can create an informal mentoring culture.

The framework to evaluate formal mentoring programmes in this study is by no means unchangeable. Although the questions of the evaluation address termination of the relationship, it was found that this could not be adequately reported on because there was only one relationship that had formally ended, the rest were still in progress. It will be useful in future research to evaluate the programme from the perspective of the participants that had already completed the programme.

5.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

There is little information about the success of formal mentoring programmes within South Africa. This research as one of its goals, aims to provide a basis for which further evaluation can take place so that information may be added to the literature on formal mentoring programmes within the South African context. This chapter provided a model on which to evaluate formal mentoring programmes and undertakes the task of evaluating two formal mentoring programmes within two types of South African organisations. There were some pertinent issues raised in terms of the organisation's ability to link the formal mentoring programme to their larger Human Resource goals. In the evaluation it was also found that some factors that hinder the success of formal mentoring programmes outside of the South African borders are not relevant here.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

There are numerous benefits that accrue to the mentors and protégés that participate in informal mentoring relationships and organisations, recognising these benefits, organisations have attempted to enjoy them through the introduction of formal mentoring programmes where a prospective talent is "forced" into a mentoring relationship by a third party (Chao and Walz, 1992). There is a need for these formal mentoring programmes because of the pressure on training and development departments to add value to the organisation as well as the inability of line managers to manage broader development issues (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1999). Formal mentoring programmes are a potentially faster and more effective way of developing employees and to ultimately retain talent. Research also shows that formal mentoring provides a way to pass on the organisational culture and inform protégés of internal politics (Orpen, 1997).

The evaluation described in this study began with a study the literature on the implementation of formal mentoring programmes and their benefits, as there were no models found of the evaluation of these formal programmes. Implementation models addressed the processes and outputs of formal mentoring programmes. In this research of formal mentoring programmes within two South African organisations, it was found that the evaluation could be conducted within six broad categories. The study focused on two organisations of different natures to gain an understanding on the types of issues that formal mentoring programmes create within the South African context. The study also highlighted factors that make these South African formal mentoring programmes successful.

Formal mentoring programmes within the two organisations were implemented as a tool to develop people within the organisation. The secondary goals of each programme differed between the organisations but the main aim was people development.
The main goal of people development as well as the secondary goals needed to be clearly communicated to those participating on the programme as well as other members of the organisation (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). If the goal is people development, it is in the best interests of the organisation to align these goals with broader strategic human resource goals.

By showing an alignment with future human resource plans, it is easier to gain top management support if this has not occurred already. These goals, besides providing a starting point for an evaluation, also aid in identifying selection criteria for mentors and protégés.

Mentors aid in people development by providing career and psychosocial support for the protégés (Kram, 1985). Although these career and psychosocial functions should be clarified at the start of the programme, the roles that the mentors play in the individual relationship may be dependant on the mentor's inherent personalities; some people may be able to fulfil certain roles more effectively than others. This being said, the evaluation found that mentors can be encouraged into certain roles through the responsibilities they are required to fulfil. For example, if the protégé is forced to observe the mentor at an executive meeting, it may reinforce role modelling. Protégés do not have defined roles (Purcell, 2004) yet do need to possess certain qualities such as the willingness to learn and be developed. This should be considered when selecting protégés for the formal mentoring programme.

In the selection of protégés, it is vitally important that the target group is defined according to the goals of the formal mentoring programme (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Having fair and transparent selection criteria for this target group may decrease jealousy of non-mentored employees by ensuring that all those that are eligible for development in terms of the programme will have an opportunity to participate on the programme (Meyer and Fourie, 2004). It is also important that both mentors and protégés express a willingness to be on the programme. Matching of mentors and protégés has an impact on the relationship and in the evaluation of these formal mentoring programmes it was found that it is not always feasible for the protégé to choose a mentor, especially if the protégé is new to the organisation. There should be a thorough analysis of the protégé in terms of the types of people they potentially think they are able to build a development relationship with. At this point, a cautionary note should be made of considering line managers as potential mentors as this evaluation revealed that there is the possibility of a line manager not having sufficient time to act as a mentor.

The formal mentoring programme should not be the only support for the protégé in their journey of development. There should be sufficient mentoring training to orientate them to the concept of mentoring and to the nature of the programme (Berry, 2003). It is also important that first time mentors are trained in the roles that they are expected to fulfil as not

all chosen mentors are aware of the important role that they play in the life of the protégé. A recommendation from the study was that there be some sort of follow-up training a little way into the programme to refresh and clarify the roles and responsibilities of the mentors and protégés. Another supportive resource, especially for protégés, is informal gatherings with other protégés that can be used a forum to discuss and compare issues that are occurring in the relationship.

If the formal mentoring programme fits in with the overall organisational culture, this provides a supportive basis for the protégé who will not feel that they are an outsider. An organisational culture supporting people development will encourage and accept the possibility of informal mentoring relationships. This may result in there being less jealousy from non-(formally) mentored employees as they are in their own developmental relationships.

In evaluating the formal mentoring programmes within the two South African organisations, it was found that a common practice of monitoring is in the form of written reports. This study conducted a qualitative evaluation based mainly on interviews which yielded some information that was not made known to the mentoring programme co-ordinators via the written reports. One co-ordinator, after reading the study, decided to conduct group interviews with the protégés to evaluate the programme and found this to be highly successful. Further research on evaluation of formal mentoring programmes could investigate the impact of quantitative versus. qualitative evaluation in evaluating formal mentoring programmes within the South African context.

This evaluation was merely a small contribution to a very large body of knowledge about formal mentoring programmes but also represents new avenues in research of the evaluation of these programmes. It provided a basis which South African organisations can now use to evaluate their own formal mentoring programmes as a way of highlighting factors that may hinder the success of their programmes. The list of evaluative questions proposed is by no means exhaustive and it is hoped that future evaluation research will continue to build the wall that this study has begun.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

QUESTIONS FOR THE MENTORS AND PROTÉGÉS

Introductory Questions

1. Look for Gender and race
2. When did you start in the organisation?
3. What position did you hold?
4. What position do you hold now?
5. Can you give a brief account of your work history (no. of years work experience vs. no. of years work experience in the industry vs. no of years working in the organisation).
6. What qualifications do you hold?
7. What is your understanding of the term mentoring?
8. What does mentoring entail for you? What exactly is your role as you understand it?
9. Have you ever had prior mentoring experience (either being mentor or being mentored)?
10. Why are your reasons for being part of this mentoring programme?
11. What responsibilities (if any) did you acquire by joining this programme?
12. What is your experience of mentoring so far?

Definition of Programme Objectives

13. How were you involved when the programme was being designed? **If there was no involvement:** How did it make you feel to not be involved in setting up such an important programme?
14. What are the goals of the mentoring programme as you understand them?
15. How were these goals communicated to you?
16. Do you feel that these goals are being met?
17. Do you feel that you are a positive contributing factor to the achievement of these goals so far?

Identification of Management Development Needs

18. Do you believe that the organisation is committed to developing people? Why or why not? How does the organisation show/ not show this commitment?
19. How does top management show commitment to the programme? Do you think that they are sufficiently committed?
20. How does the organisation support the mentoring programme?
21. How does your department support the mentoring programme?

Selection of mentors and protégés

22. What process did you undergo when you were selected to be a mentor/protégé?

23. What qualities do you think mentors/protégés should possess?
24. Does your mentor/protégé possess these qualities? How does it affect the relationship?

Orientation and training

25. What type of mentoring training did you undergo?
26. When was the training (ie. At beginning of process? Half way through?)
27. Would you have changed the time that the training occurred (e.g. If it was at the beginning, would it be preferred after some time?)
28. Was the training beneficial? Why or why not?
29. Do you think the training was relevant? Why or why not?
30. What do you think was lacking in the training?

Matching

31. How were you matched? Do you feel that this is a successful way of matching mentors and protégés?
32. How does race/gender affect your relationship?
33. How has the programme helped in overcoming these differences?

Establishing developmental needs

34. What is the role of the line manager (HOD) with regards to your position in the mentoring programme?
35. What was the general response of your line manager (HOD) to the programme?
36. Can you provide specific examples where your line manager (HOD) has not agreed to the programme? How was this managed?
37. Do you agree with the role that the line manager (HOD) plays? Why or why not?

Engaging in the relationship

38. How important is it to ensure that ground rules for the relationship are set?
39. How does the programme assist with issues of confidentiality and trust?
40. What type of support structures are in place for you?
41. What is the procedure if you are experiencing a problem with the relationship or programme?
42. What do you think are the benefits and drawbacks of this system?

Feedback and evaluation of the relationship

43. Describe the relationship that you have with your mentor/protégé. Do you find the relationship beneficial? Why or why not? Are there any aspects about the relationship that you regret or find to be detrimental?
44. Do you feel that your mentor has sufficient expertise to be successful at their responsibilities towards you? Why or why not?
45. Do you think that your mentor/protégé has sufficient time to be on this programme to realise its full benefit? What type of limitations does the time frame impose?
46. Do you feel that you have sufficient time to devote to the programme?
47. What is the level of commitment from the mentor/ protégé?

48. What is the attitude of the employees not being mentored?

Dissolution of the relationship

49. When is your relationship due to end?
50. How does that make you feel?

Evaluation of the programme

51. How is the programme evaluated?
52. Do you think that this is an effective method of evaluation?
53. Are you able to provide examples where elements of the programme have made you feel uncomfortable or threatened?
54. Would you recommend any changes in the implementation of the programme?
55. From the experience that you have gained in this programme, would you enter into other mentoring relationships?

APPENDIX B:

QUESTION FOR THE PROGRAMME CO-ORDINATOR

Introductory Questions

1. How does your programme define mentoring?
2. What does mentoring entail?
3. What is your role within the mentoring programme?
4. What is your experience of mentoring so far?

Origin and Goals

5. Why was this mentoring programme launched?
6. Who was involved with its conceptualisation and how were they involved?
7. What are the goals of your mentoring programme?
8. How were these goals determined?
9. How do you think clearly defined programme objectives aid in programme design?
10. How important is it to secure top management support of programme objectives? Did you secure top management support?
11. Please describe for me what your mentorship programme entails.

Identification of Management Development Needs

12. How is the mentoring programme placed within the strategic framework of the organisation?
13. How is it determined which department needs to have people that are going to be part of the mentoring programme?
14. Does your programme support succession planning?
15. What plan has the organisation made for dealing with raised expectations among protégés considering that raising abilities also raises expectations?
16. Do you have an affirmative action developmental strategy (if this is not obvious)? If so, has this had any affect on the mentoring programme or influenced the form that the programme has taken?
17. How do you communicate the programme to prospective mentors and protégés? How do other people in the organisation react?
18. How do you obtain commitment to the programme?

Selection of mentors and protégés

19. What is the process that mentors and protégés go through up to the point that they are paired?
20. When you are recruiting for the programme, do you bear in mind the conditions set out by the EEA?
21. What are the selection criteria used in selecting mentors and protégés?
22. What, if any, are the specific conditions of placement for the protégés?
23. What competencies do you think mentors should possess?
24. What competencies do you think protégés should possess?
25. Have the competencies of mentors and protégés increased?

Matching

26. How are mentors and protégés matched? What have you found are the advantages and disadvantages of this?
27. How are gender and race taken into account in the matching process?
28. What is the protocol after pairing?

Orientation and Training

29. How are the goals clearly communicated to those participating on the programme?
30. What types of training occurs with respect to the mentoring programme?
31. What was the impact of the training programmes on mentors and protégés?
32. How does training address aspects that support diversity in the relationship? Does this training teach mentor and protégés to deal with office politics or gender/cultural issues?
33. How does the programme assist with issues of confidentiality and trust?
34. How do you ensure that there is a synergy between the programme objectives and the expectations of the mentor and protégé?

Establishing Developmental Needs

35. What is the role of the line manager in the mentoring relationship?
36. What is the status of the relationship between the mentor, the protégé and the line manager?
37. How does the programme aid this relationship?

Engaging in the relationship

38. How important is it to ensure that ground rules for the relationship are set?
39. What type of support structures are in place for those participating in the mentoring programme?
40. What type of monitoring occurs to ensure that mentors and protégés are satisfied with the relationship and the programme?
41. What is the procedure if either the mentor or the protégé are experiencing a problem with the relationship or programme?
42. What do you think are the benefits and drawbacks of this system?

Feedback and Evaluation of Relationship

43. Can you identify any specific benefits to the mentor, protégé and organisation that are specific to your mentoring programme?
44. Can you identify any specific relationship problems that were encountered over the course of the mentoring relationship?
45. There are certain factors that are identified in the literature that prevent the successful progression of mentoring programmes. Did you experience any of the following problems or are you aware of any of the problems? Response
   After each point ask the following: How was this identified, what exactly happened and how was it dealt with?
   If the problem has not occurred, ask what has been done to prevent it from occurring.
       a. Lack of commitment from mentor and/ or protégé?

b. Misunderstandings about the mentoring programme from mentor and/or protégé?
c. Questioning from the mentor and/or protégé about the organisation's commitment to developing people?
d. Jealousy from non- mentored employees?
e. Neglect of the protégé by the mentor?
f. Lack of mentor expertise which made the mentor ineffective?
g. Breaches of confidentiality?
h. Mentors/ protégés not having sufficient time to devote to the programme?
i. Resistance to change?
j. Mismatches between the mentor and protégé?
k. Talent that is overlooked because of the goals of your mentoring programme?
l. Employees and managers being unsure of their role in the mentoring process?
m. Lack of support systems?
n. Lack of commitment from top management?
o. Lack of monitoring?
p. Lack of integration with other human resource functions, such as promotion, equity plans, staffing plans for the future?

Dissolution of the relationship

46. When and how does the relationship end naturally?
47. Are there any conditions that allow for premature ending of the relationship?
48. What is the procedure when the relationship ends "before its time"?

Evaluation of the programme

49. Do you feel that the goals of your mentoring programme are being met? Why or why not?
50. Has the programme been effective in terms of increasing retention of key staff, or raising the competence of protégés in critical areas?
51. Based on your experience with this mentoring programme, what can you identify as factors that are critical for the success of a formalised mentoring programme?
52. How do you evaluate and review the programme?
53. How is this an effective method of evaluation?
54. Does your organisational culture support the mentoring programme? If yes, how and if not, in what ways?
55. Does the organisation have sufficient resources to continue supporting this programme?
56. Do you think that your mentoring programme stifles fresh insights that are brought into the organisation by new members or does your programme encourage ideas brought in by new members? What results from the programme gives you this opinion?

Has the organisation tried to introduce other formal mentoring programmes which have failed? If so, why did these programmes not get off the ground?

APPENDIX C:

<u>AGREEMENT OF CONSENT</u>

I, Delyse Shelton (the researcher), and …………………………………, the interviewee, hereby consent to hold this interview provided that:

1) The information contained in these interviews that is of a highly sensitive nature be kept in strict confidence.

2) Although the interview is being recorded, the tapes or any notes taken in the interview will not be viewed by any other party except the researcher and the interviewee.

3) The information obtained is used for the purpose of research for the Masters thesis of Delyse Shelton only and not be passed on to any third party.

4) The name of the mentoring programme and the person being interviewed will not under any circumstances be released in the publication of the research.

5) The interviewee has the right to view the typed transcripts and make any changes where questions were misunderstood or where answers were misinterpreted.

Signed:……………………………. (The researcher)

Signed:……………………………. (The interviewee)

Date:…………………………………