Mentoring as a strategy to develop leadership potential of female employees

BY

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Submitted in complete fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Technologiae (Human Resources Management) in the Faculty of Business Management and Economic Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

Promoter: Dr P. Poisat
DECLARATION

I, Deidre Potgieter hereby declare that

- the work submitted in this thesis is my own produced under the guidance of my promoter

- information provided from other resources has been accredited to that source

- this thesis has not been previously been submitted for an equivalent qualification at any other recognised higher institution

Signed:

Deidre Potgieter
ABSTRACT

Institutions of higher learning should be doing leadership development of females to enhance the gender balance. The number of females employed in South African higher education is almost equal to the number of males, yet the highest proportions of females continue to hold the lowest academic and support positions. To compound the problem, after attracting suitable female staff, institutions do not have programmes to encourage them to remain within the system. Females need to surmount extra hurdles to be considered as leaders, and have different experiences of organisations from those of their male peers. Research suggests that women have the qualifications, skills and experiences required for leadership.

This study aimed to look at mentoring as a strategy to enhance female leadership development. A literature review was conducted to understand the term mentoring and all related aspects. The aspects included the functions and phases of mentoring, as well as the process of a mentoring programme. Recently organisations have begun to realise how important mentoring can be to their success. Research has shown that mentoring facilitates leadership development through the career and psycho-social functions that the relationship provides. The study also investigated gender and leadership, and highlighted the barriers faced by women.

The empirical part of this study was to determine employees’ perceptions of mentoring. It was conducted in a Higher Education Institution. Random sampling was used to select respondents. The sample size consisted of 110 respondents. A structured pre-coded questionnaire was used to collect the data. The data was analysed.
using the relevant statistical package. Independent t-tests and analysis of variance techniques were used to determine statistically significant differences in perceptions between groups according to race, qualifications, period of employment and the type of appointment (academic/administrative). Statistically significant differences were found between race groups and the period of employment. Qualification and type of appointment did not significantly affect employees’ responses.

The major findings indicate a general congruence towards mentoring as a suitable strategy to enhance female leadership development. Institutional barriers were identified and the organisation needs to acknowledge and understand the organisational culture before embarking on this process.

The theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed and recommendations based on these findings are provided.
I would be remiss if I did not thank the following people who helped make this research possible:

- My supervisor, Dr Paul Poisat for his patient, professional and constructive guidance during the course of my research.

- Dr Jacques Pietersen for patiently assisting me with data analysis.

- My colleagues at NMMU for their support.

- The respondents who supplied the empirical data that made this study possible.

- My friends their unflinching encouragement and continuous support, especially during the times when I was not sure if the research could be completed.

- My family for their unconditional love and support throughout the study. A special mention to my mother who inculcated a thirst for knowledge from a very young age. To my father and my siblings, thank you for the light and motivation when I needed it most - giving me no choice but to smile.

- In all that I do and achieve, I am dependent on my Heavenly Father and He therefore deserves my greatest gratitude.
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**CHAPTER TWO**

**FEMALES AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORKPLACE**

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION, MAIN PROBLEM AND OUTLINE OF RESEARCH STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

We live in an ever changing global economy and live in a world where focusing on internal and external customers is essential for future success. Organisations wrestle with the problem of identifying, developing and retaining leaders. Currently, the trend is for organisations to invest considerably in training and development of its leaders. This in turn ensures that organisations maintain a competitive advantage.

Leadership development is described as a collective process that positively affects organisational capacity (Barker & Christensen, 1998; Grint, 2005). According to Mc Cauley and Van Velsor (1998), it is an expansion of the collective capacity of organisational members to effectively assume leadership roles. Mentoring facilitates leadership development through role socialisation, reduced feelings of isolation, professional development, increased job satisfaction, improved leadership skills and leadership capacity building (Kram, 1985; Scandura, Manuel, Werther & Lankau, 1996). Formal mentoring programs are a recent and current phenomenon used to support graduates, new staff, women and aspiring leaders. The programs are also implemented to develop high-potential, fast track managers and to prepare them for key management positions (McCauley & Douglas, 2004).
While it is important to view the complementary and interdependent nature of gender roles, it is important to challenge the stereotypes and attitudes that keep people in low status positions and prevent them from reaching their full potential. In other words, women and men have to build respect for each other's roles and goals in life, share resources and decision-making, and demonstrate mutual support in order for gender equality to become a reality. Formal mentoring programmes have become a popular strategy to assist females with some of the difficulties they experience in a male-dominated environment.

According to Clutterbuck and Ragins (2002), organisations have established mentoring programmes aimed specifically at the development and advancement of women. In South Africa formal mentoring programmes have also become a tool for promoting the growth and development of junior employees (Young & Perrewe, 2004).

Despite the strides women have made, there are still significant barriers preventing them from reaching senior positions within companies or organisations. This has emphasised the need for individuals to be responsible for their own career development and created an even greater need for mentoring. Mentoring is a powerful means of helping people make significant transitions, both professionally and personally and has seen a rapid up-take in recent years. This rapid uptake is particularly due to the need for individuals in organisations to accelerate their learning to gain an understanding of self-management and develop their leadership abilities.

The above discussion gives rise to the main problem of this study.
1.2. THE MAIN PROBLEM

To what extent are female employees at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) mentored to develop their leadership potential?

Sub-problems and objectives
The following sub-problems have been developed from the main problem.

Sub-problem 1
What is mentoring?
This sub-problem will be addressed by a literature study of mentoring theory.

Sub-problem 2
What kind of organisational culture is required for mentoring to be effective? A literature study will be conducted to identify how culture influences employee behaviours, assumptions, beliefs and communication.

Sub-problem 3
Does mentoring currently take place at the NMMU?
This sub-problem will be addressed through the empirical study. Female employees will be requested to indicate the extent to which they believe mentoring takes place. This sub-problem will be addressed by means of a survey, utilising a questionnaire as a data collection instrument.
Sub-problem 4
What are the mentoring needs of female employees employed at the NMMU?
This sub-problem will be addressed by the empirical study. A self-administered questionnaire will be administered to female employees at the NMMU to identify their mentoring needs.

Sub-problem 5
To what extent is the culture at the NMMU conducive to the mentoring of female employees?
This sub-problem will also be addressed in the empirical study and specifically in the survey to be conducted among female employees.

Therefore, the objectives of the study are:

- To conduct a literature study to gain an understanding of mentoring and an empirical study to determine the extent to which female employees at the NMMU are mentored and to identify their mentoring needs.

- To conduct a literature study to determine what kind of organisational culture enhances mentoring, and an empirical study to determine the extent to which employees believe that the culture at the NMMU is conducive to mentoring for female employees.

- To make recommendations to the management of NMMU for the implementation of a mentoring programme for female employees and the kind of organisational culture that will support such a programme.
1.3 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

Demarcating of the research enables the researcher to focus on a manageable research structure. The fact that certain aspects are excluded from the research does not mean that they are not important. The problem statement gives a clear indication of what is included in the research.

1.3.1 Geographical demarcation

The study was conducted at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) The NMMU opened on 1 January 2005, as the result of a merger of the PE Technikon, the University of Port Elizabeth and the Port Elizabeth campus of Vista University. This union of three very different institutions came about as a result of government’s countrywide restructuring of Higher Education – intended to deliver a more equitable and efficient system to meet the needs of South Africa in the 21st century.

The NMMU currently has more than 24 000 students and approximately 3666 staff members, based on seven campuses or delivery sites in the Nelson Mandela Metropole and George. Females constitute 52 percent of the staff complement, and only 20 percent occupy senior management positions (Webb, 2010). The empirical component of the research will be conducted at the NMMU, which is situated in Port Elizabeth, in the Eastern Cape.
1.3.2 Demarcation of job category and level

The empirical study was limited to personnel categories that satisfied the following criteria:

- Female personnel on the permanent post structure of the NMMU who have been employed for longer than one year as well as those employed on a fixed term contract for longer than one year.

- Academic and administrative female personnel on the Peromnes grade levels seven to 12.

The following personnel categories were, for the purpose of this research, excluded from the study:

- The Executive Management of the NMMU;

- Females staffed on a Peromnes grade level higher than 12; and

- Those in the temporary post structure of the NMMU.

This study is aimed at females and the empowerment of women through mentoring. Although women constitute 50 percent of the higher education workforce in South Africa, a survey undertaken in 2007 revealed that the highest proportion of women are in the lowest academic positions and in the lowest pay classes in support departments, despite Employment Equity legislation. Statistics show a similar pattern in other parts of Africa (HERSA, 2009).
1.3.3 Organisational departments
The study includes personnel in all existing departments at the NMMU, namely, academic units, faculties, administrative and support services.

1.3.4 Subject demarcation
The main focus of the study is mentoring, and does not include related aspects, such as career coaching, executive coaching, action learning and learnerships.

1.4. DEFINITION OF SELECTED CONCEPTS

The following concepts that appear in the title, main problem and sub-problem were briefly explained to prevent different interpretations.

1.4.1 Mentoring
Fowler and O’Gorman (2005) describe mentoring as a relationship between a person with advanced experience and knowledge and a more junior person who seeks assistance and support in their career, personal and professional development.

Parsloe and Wray (2000) define mentoring as a process that supports learning and development and by doing so improves performance of the individual, team and organisation.

Morgan and Smit (2001) claim that mentoring in higher education mostly occurs in a face-to-face setting; that it generally takes the form of either staff-to-staff mentoring, where experienced staff provide support for new academic staff or student to student schemes, where on-campus students provide support to new learners.
1.4.2 Organisational culture

Schein (1992, p.12) offers the following formal definition of organisational culture:

‘a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems’.

According to Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002), organisational culture is passed on to new employees through the process of socialisation, and influences their behaviour at work.

Hofstede, Neuijen, Dval Ohayv and Sanders (1990, p.311) found:

‘shared perceptions of daily practices to be the core of an organisation’s culture..... employee values differed more according to the demographic criteria of nationality, age and education than according to membership in the organisation per se’.

Organisational culture is the way things are done in an organisation.

1.5. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

In recent years, institutions of Higher Education have been experiencing immense pressure for accountability in an array of fields, one of specific importance being female empowerment.
Skills development, gender equality and women empowerment are a few of the mechanisms employed by the government in promoting female empowerment. Evidence of the commitment from government is reflected in the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, the National Gender Policy Framework, as well as the Skills Development Act, 97 of 1998. From the organisation’s perspective, failure to identify and utilise female talent, reduces effectiveness and may result in the organisation not meeting employment equity and affirmative action goals.

Female representation at senior management level at the NMMU is as follows: two females on the Executive Management Committee (20% female representation) and three female deans (42% female representation). The lack of females within senior echelons of the institution is evident.

Developing leaders is a daunting task for institutions. Dr Ramphele, at the Conference on Women in Leadership in Higher Education, held in Cape Town in March 2008, remarked: ‘Leadership of higher education institutions comes with a responsibility to contribute to transforming the socio-economic and political landscape that continues to be dominated by authoritarian, sexist, racist and inequitable value systems’.

The term glass ceiling was frequently used in the 1990’s. According to Baxter and Wright (2000), it describes the inequalities between men and women in the workplace. Wirth (2001) describes the glass ceiling as the struggles women face in trying to move to the senior, executive and top management positions in corporate organisations.
Burke, Burgess and Fallon (2006) predicted that it would take as long as 400 years before women should achieve senior management in similar proportion to their male counterparts, based on the current rate or career progression recorded between men and women in management worldwide.

As organisations continually strive for success and struggle with change, senior management cannot be solely responsible for initiatives. A range of change agents are required to deal with stress associated with change and implement appropriate strategies. Effective leaders will be required at all levels to mobilise their colleagues to fulfil the mission of the institution. Organisations with the foresight to identify and invest in the next generation of leaders will be able to achieve and sustain success.

Mentoring is a powerful strategy that can be used to get to the top. If organisations are serious about developing women, mentoring should be part of the organisational strategy that will accomplish the goal of developing female leaders with high potential. The mentoring process can be a very empowering one. Women need to become more aware of their abilities and realise their self worth.

The results of this study can be used by:

- Managers at the NMMU, to understand the perceptions and needs of female employees, and if necessary, develop a strategy for the implementation of a formal mentoring program.
• Managers in Higher Education, who are concerned about the advancement levels of permanent female employees and who want their organisations to become more competitive.

• Managers at the NMMU who are responsible for effective transformation, specifically focussing on female employees.

1.6. ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions apply to this study:

• That mentoring will positively impact female employees.

• That implementation of a mentoring programme will have a positive impact on employee morale and attitudes, productivity.

• That implementation of a mentoring programme will assist in identifying and developing female leaders.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Clutterbuck (2001) defines mentoring as an empowerment tool, which liberates mentees to take responsibility for their personal lives and take control over their environments. Clutterbuck (2004a) also views the mentoring relationship as a developmental one; it is a two-way learning process where mentors and mentees can benefit.
Mentoring has a long tradition in Higher Education. Traditionally, a professor seeks out younger colleagues or students to nurture their development. S/he may encourage them to undertake particular research or to become research assistants. During this period, skills and expertise are shared, as well as information about finances and resources (Chesterman, 2001).

Five studies on mentoring in relation to leadership development have identified the following positive outcomes:

- career advancement (Brown, 2005; Linehan & Walsh, 1999; Rosser, 2005);

- enhanced organisational commitment (Scandura & William, 2004); and

- increased interpersonal competence (Stead, 2005).

Research by the Higher Education Staff Development Association (HESDA) in the United Kingdom indicates that managers prefer mentoring as professional development as it provides a reflective, individualised and supportive, but challenging opportunity for engagement with work related issues.

Mentoring is a protected relationship in which learning and experimentation occur through analysis, examination, and reflection on practice, situations, problems, mistakes and successes (of both the mentors and the mentees) to identify learning opportunities and gaps. Mentoring is about helping the mentee to grow in self confidence and develop independence, autonomy and maturity.
The mentoring relationship is a special relationship where two people make a real connection with each other; they form a bond. It is built on mutual trust and respect, openness and honesty where each party can be themselves. It is a powerful and emotional relationship. The mentoring relationship enables the mentee to learn and grow in a safe and protected environment. The quality of the relationship is crucial to a successful outcome; if bonding does not occur and one or both of the two parties are not comfortable within the relationship then neither learning nor mentoring will be sustained. A good relationship recognises the need for personal development and the partners have some idea of where they want to go (Clutterbuck, 2001).

According to Shea (1992) mentoring is one of the oldest forms of human development where one person invests time, energy and personal knowhow in assisting in growth and skill of another person.

Day (2001, p.841) defines leadership development as ‘the act of expanding the capacities of individuals, groups and organisations to participate effectively in leadership roles and capacities.’ The development of leadership is viewed as a process that will include interpersonal relationships, social influences and the dynamics between a leader and his/her team.

Individuals that participate in mentoring programs form part of the organisational structure. The impact of mentoring on organisations stems from this (Kram, 1985). Understanding the organisational climate and institutional culture in which a potential mentee is currently working is fundamental. Organisational culture provides the context in which motivation takes place as it has a bearing on the behaviours and attitudes of employees.
“If a mentoring program is not sufficiently embedded in a supportive organizational culture that values learning and development, it rarely flourishes…It becomes too easily expendable” (Zachary, 2005, p.xxii).

1.8. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section describes the specific strategies or methodology that was used for data collection and analysis in order to address the main problem of the study.

1.8.1 Literature Study:
A thorough literature study was conducted to explore what research reveals about mentoring. The literature study addressed sub-problems one to three and focused on:

- the definition of mentoring;
- advantages of mentoring;
- gender in the workplace;
- the implication of mentoring on leadership development; and
- the influence of organisational culture on mentoring.

1.8.2 Empirical Study
A quantitative research design was used. According to Struwig and Stead (2001), the quantitative approach requires that the data be expressed in numbers. The design is suitable when large amounts of data are collected from a large target group. For the empirical study, a
self-administered questionnaire was designed and used as the data collection method. The researcher developed the questionnaire based on the literature study mentioned above. The results of the survey were analysed to determine the perceptions of managers/supervisors and employees at the NMMU, the mentoring needs of employees, and whether the organisational culture promotes mentoring. The results are presented in tables, and a cross-tabular analysis was made. In addition, a correlation analysis of the responses obtained from managers/supervisors and employees were conducted. Section A of the questionnaire made provision for restricted responses, Sections B to E were based on a Likert-type scale response, and the survey ended with an open ended question.

1.9. OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The thesis includes the following chapters:

**Chapter 1**: Introduction, problem statement, demarcation of the study, definition of concepts, significance of the study and outline of the research.

**Chapter 2**: Leadership development of female employees.

**Chapter 3**: A theoretical overview of mentoring as a strategy and process.

**Chapter 4**: Research methodology used for the study.

**Chapter 5**: Presentation and analysis of the research results
Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

1.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter the problem and sub-problems to be addressed in the study were formulated. Key concepts were defined. The relevance of the topic was followed by an outline of the research study.

The next two chapters will be dedicated to the literature study. In chapter 2 the leadership development of females will be discussed.
# CHAPTER TWO
## FEMALES AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

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CHAPTER TWO
FEMALES AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on females and leadership development by exploring the concept of female leadership and associated challenges. It presents a brief overview of existing leadership theories and offers a view on the most effective type of leadership style. The chapter ends with an overview of leadership development and the different types of leadership development methodologies.

South African organisations have not evolved enough in terms of women occupying strategic management positions. Too few women occupy top positions, confirming that the inequalities of opportunities for women still exist. In an effort to continue increasing the number of women in leadership positions, organisations will need to focus on the recruitment of females, promoting and developing females for leadership positions. Strategies that fit into the organisational culture should be used to enhance female development. Organisations should remember that gender equity at senior management levels offers different perspectives, experiences and contributions from women.

Leadership development has become an important human resource development strategy. Organisations are realising the benefit of investing money in training and development initiatives that will enhance the human capital, which in turn enables them to remain competitive. According to Rivera and Paradise (2006) leadership development gets the largest allocation of a training and development budget.
Leadership has been defined as an influencing process through which leaders interact with others to affect individual, team and organisational performance (Yukl, 2006). Leadership literature has been developed and dealt with from a male perspective, promoting male values as the managerial norm (Lamsa & Sintonen, 2001). Recently there has been an increased trend to include a female perspective, and the feminine advantage (Yukl, 2006).

2.2 NUMBER OF WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Research shows that women are underrepresented at executive and senior managerial levels in organisations. This section reviews the national and international representivity of women in executive and senior managerial positions.

The BWA Women in Leadership Census (2009) reveals that South Africa has 2,761 (18.6%) female executive managers out of a combined total of 14,839, and a total of 574 (14.6%) directors out of 3,939. The 2009 key findings when compared to the 2004 inaugural census, shows a positive increase in the representation of women in leadership positions. Women in directorship positions increased from 7.1 percent in 2004 to 14.6 percent and women in executive management positions increased from 14.7 percent in 2004 to 18.6 percent. This confirms that women are still underrepresented in senior leadership positions.

Even though there has been an increase – albeit slight – in women leaders, not one country in the world achieves even close to 20 percent of directorships held by women in companies. Fortune 500 companies in the US, which is the closest, have 15.2 percent of directorships held by
women (2008), and less than one tenth of women in Australia hold directorships in companies listed on the Australian Securities Exchange. This disparity is evident in the higher education sector as well. Currently, the representation of females in senior leadership positions at universities in South Africa is as follows: 17% Vice Chancellors, 22 % Deputy Vice-Chancellors, 21 % Executive Directors and 28% Deans (Riordan, 2007).

The absence of women in senior leadership roles is indicative that the process of selection, recruitment and promotion in educational organisations is in need of an overhaul (Trinidad & Normore, 2005). It may also indicate a need for a structured developmental approach for women leaders, such as mentoring.

2.3 CHALLENGES TO FEMALE EMPLOYEES

There is a general agreement that females encounter more barriers in becoming leaders than men do. Research suggests that South African women face similar barriers as compared to their female counterparts worldwide such as employment legislation, women’s added responsibilities at home and the wage gap (Mathur-Helm, 2002).

This section will examine some of the challenges women face and will focus on labour legislation, work life issues, wage gap and promotions.

2.3.1 Employment legislation

Post 1994, education, training and fair workplace practices were recognised as critical elements for success for all organisations (Mdladlana, 1999a). Laws such as the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 and the Broad Based Black
Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003 are but a few that were promulgated. The aim is to promote equal opportunity and access to education and jobs, as well as contribute to the economic transformation of South Africa. Employment equity and Black Economic Empowerment legislation will be discussed.

2.3.1.1 The Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998
As more women entered the workplace, gender equity legislation followed. The South African Government implemented employment equity (includes affirmative action) and black economic empowerment legislation that is not only aimed at promoting and advancing black people, but also aimed at enhancing the status and economic welfare of women. Many organisations focus on the legislation (Employment Equity Act) to include all previously disadvantaged people and to shift the racial imbalance, giving less attention to women’s issues, which explains the continued lack of females in strategic leadership roles. According to MacGregor (2009), in terms of gender, South African higher educational institutions display a pyramid with men still at the top. Statistics show little progress at a senior management level for women, this is confirmed by Nierenberg and Marvin (2006), who state that women are still marginally represented in executive leadership ranks despite an increase in numbers in the workforce.

The Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998 focuses on redressing discriminatory practices relating to employment, occupation and income within the country’s labour market. The Act designates blacks, women and the disabled as groups that have been historically disadvantaged by disparities in employment practice. The act achieves equity in the workplace by:

a) promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
b) implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.

In the public service, the number of female managers has increased from 17 percent in 1995 to 44 percent of managerial positions in 2007, evidence that some progress has been made in terms of female empowerment (Mello & Phago, 2007).

Employment equity is seen as a long term process to ensure all employees have a fair chance in the workplace. This could be achieved when no-one is denied employment opportunities or benefits for reasons unrelated to abilities (Thomas, 2002). In South Africa the Act may also be seen as a tool to ensure upward mobility of women in the labour market, an opportunity to break the glass ceiling and to have the same opportunities as their male counterparts (Mdladlana, 1999a).

2.3.1.2 The Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003

The Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003 (BBBEE) reflects the government’s approach, which is to ‘redress the racial inequalities created by the systematic exclusion of the black majority from meaningful participation in the economy during the apartheid era focused on historically disadvantaged people, and particularly black people, women, youth, the disabled, and rural communities’ (Government Gazette, 2004).

BEE compliance is measured by means of a broad based scorecard. The scorecard is based on various elements and a company is measured out of a maximum of 100 points (in some cases it is possible to obtain more
than 100 points). The empowerment process is benchmarked through three core components: direct empowerment, human resource development and indirect empowerment. These three core components cover seven elements. A comprehensive empowerment process should take all of the following seven elements into consideration:

1) Ownership - measures the percentage of shares in the business that are owned by black people
2) Management - the directors and top management of the business
3) Employment equity - the employees in the business
4) Skills development - measures the amount of money spent on training of black employees
5) Procurement - the suppliers and their scores
6) Enterprise development – the spend on helping other black owned enterprises
7) Socio-economic development – the spend on assisting charitable organisations
Table 2.1:  
A generic BBBEE scorecard:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Weighting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Empowerment</td>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>20 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>10 Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>15 Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>15 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect empowerment</td>
<td>Preferential</td>
<td>20 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>procurement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enterprise</td>
<td>15 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>Socio-economic</td>
<td>5 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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(Source: Econobee, 2009)

The BBBEE codes define three types of companies:

- **EME** (Exempt Micro Enterprise) - a company that has an annual turnover of less than R5 million. These companies are automatically given a BEE score of 65 points (level 4) or if majority black owned, a score of 75 points (level 3).

- **QSE** (Qualifying Small Enterprise) - an enterprise with an annual turnover of between R5 million and R35 million. QSE’s will need to fill in a scorecard, but must choose only 4 of the 7 elements.
• **Generic** - all companies with an annual turnover above R35 million per annum. They need to comply with all 7 elements of broad based black economic empowerment. (Econobee, 2009)

The BBBEE Act sets out a measurement tool, by which companies will be measured against in terms of transformation initiatives. Through the introduction of the adjusted recognition for gender, black targets are set at 50% of most of the targets on the large business scorecard.

One of the main aspects of BBBEE is to give more opportunities to black women to get involved in the business world as entrepreneurs and as managers. The key principles of ownership are to get black women empowered and encourage companies to employee share schemes within the company. Enterprises receive points for the participation by black people in its rights of ownership. A measured entity receives points in proportion to the extent that it meets the targets for participation of black people and black women at top-management level. The statement also emphasises the importance of black women within employment equity through the allocation of half of the points to the inclusion of black women in senior to middle management positions. Built in to the application of this scorecard is the need for enterprises to implement measures in their organisations that will ensure the development of black employees for the occupation of middle to senior management positions.

Along with equal employment and affirmative action policies, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act provides for family and maternity leave. The aim is to improve the participation of women in the workplace and to address barriers in achieving senior positions for women already employed as well as those stuck at junior level (Noble & Moore, 2006).
The policies give hope for an improved future, a chance at leadership roles and an opportunity to secure a position at management level.

**2.3.2 Work life balance**

According to Bloisi, Cook and Hunsaker (2003), choosing between family and career is a dilemma faced by women in the workforce today. An increase in the number of females occupying senior positions has forced organisations to take cognisance of the problems females are experiencing and to implement strategies that will assist them. Work-life balance is the second most important driver of employee attraction and commitment (Corporate Executive Board, 2009). More educated women than ever are progressively advancing their positions in the workforce while raising a family, juggling their roles as moms, wives, and professional workers.

Reinhold (2005) states that women eagerly confirm that they are more affected by unfriendly work policies and organisational cultures than men are regardless of the industry and the woman’s professional dedication to her job. Women’s schedules are more likely to be impacted by soccer games and sick children than men’s schedules. Women are also less likely to complain about workplace challenges or scheduling inconveniences than men. Women felt they needed to be accommodating to get ahead.

Employment policies reflect and further reinforce gender differences in family roles and responsibilities. The majority of work places in SA and USA fail to offer the same period of parental leave to fathers as to mothers, and few men take extended periods of time away from their jobs for their family. As long as company policies emphasize the need to sacrifice home life for the job through a rigid organisational structure and
inflexible policies, women will continue to be a minority at the top (Glass &
Estes, 1997). In South Africa, family is still a women’s responsibility and
this compels them to compromise on their careers. Several women in SA
would rather choose to stay at the senior management levels by declining
executive management job offers with extra job demands and
responsibilities, to continue their family obligations. Some women leave
organisations to become entrepreneurs, providing themselves and other
women with challenging work and the flexibility to balance work and family
(Moore, 2002).

Restructuring the work-force and implementing more progressive polices
(on-site day care, flex-time, etc.) will allow both men and women to
succeed in the home and in the workplace, showing dedication to both
spheres. Through redesigning work processes, shifting organizational
culture or integrating work-life initiatives with business strategies and
human resource systems, management can support work-life balance
(Jacobson & Kaye, 1993).

2.3.3. Wage Gap
Recent studies on the lack of women in senior management (Helfat,
Harris, & Wolfson, 2006) and the gender paygap (Blau & Kahn, 2007)
indicate that women are disproportionately underrepresented in top
management and are paid less than men are when they do reach the top
(Kochan, 2007).

The gender pay gap in South Africa, under 25 percent. The information
and telecommunications sector leads the field with a pay gap of 18
percent, followed by the industrial sector at 19 percent, services at 27
percent, financial services at 28 percent and resources lagging at 37
percent. Research shows that single women earn more than or the same
as men after graduation and for the first five years of their careers, and thereafter men take over (Burmeister, 2009). ‘In the past,’ says Burmeister, ‘studies have attributed this to differences in the skills and experience women bring to the labour market, family status, education, career choices and discrimination.’

According to Eagly and Carli (2007) there are many variables which affect the wages of women and men. Marriage and parenthood are associated with higher wages for the men but not for the women while characteristics like the years of education have a more positive effect on women’s wages than on men.

Van Vianen (2002) examined the relationship between women’s motives to pursue a career in top management with their relative absence in management positions. She concluded that organisational culture, policies and practices foster unfavourable processes for the top job advancements that work against women, making them feel excluded from management.

According to Business Week (2009), organisations investing in rebuilding the Employee Value Proposition (the value employees’ gain by working for a particular organisation) will benefit by improved employee performance and retention. Organisations need to consider the value of the benefits they offer women. According to Working Mother Magazine, Mc Kinsey is one of the “100 best companies” for working mothers and one of the “10 best companies for Paternity Leave” Mc Kinsey introduced the Women’s Initiative that makes the company attractive to women. The elements of the initiative include tailored recruiting; flexible programmes, mentoring and career support, institutionalising supportive communities and skill building and development programmes. Oakley (2000) confirms the above and states that recruitment, retention, and promotion practices of the
corporation itself may also contribute to an underrepresentation of women in leadership roles. These contributing factors could result in a glass ceiling.

2.3.4 Promotion: The glass ceiling

The *glass ceiling* is a term coined in the United States and is a metaphor used to describe the condition that keeps women from attaining senior-level leadership positions (Wirth, 2001).

In most literature, the glass ceiling is conceived as:

- the barrier of qualitative factors preventing women from reaching top hierarchical positions in the labour market. (Hultin, 2003); and

- the invisible or artificial barriers that prevent women from advancing past a certain level (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission 1997, Morrison & von Glinow, 1990).

As the glass is clear, women may be unaware at first that a barrier exists—because they can see through the barrier—but as they attempt to progress through the organization, the glass ceiling becomes a very real barrier to their career development. The barriers result in disparities that are often subtle and include gender stereotypes, lack of female leadership, lack of opportunities for women to gain the job experiences necessary to advance, and lack of top management commitment to gender equity and employment initiatives (Bell, Mc Laughlin & Sequeira, 2002).

Eagly and Carli (2007) argue that the glass ceiling describes an absolute barrier at a specific high level in organisations. This metaphor implies that
women and men have equal access to entry and midlevel positions. They do not. The glass ceiling is a metaphor for prejudice and discrimination. This prejudice would interfere with women’s ability to gain authority and exercise influence and would produce discrimination in terms of personnel decisions within organisations and political structures. By depicting a single, unvarying obstacle, the glass ceiling fails to incorporate the complexity and variety of challenges that women can face in their leadership journeys.

Oakley (2002) argues that the following categories explain the barriers that result in a glass ceiling:

1) Corporate practices such as recruitment, retention and promotion;
2) Behavioural and cultural causes such as stereotyping and preferred leadership style; and
3) Structural and cultural explanations rooted in feminist theory.

For the glass ceiling to be shattered, it is necessary for social structures to change. The glass ceiling still affects women in non-traditional roles in all professions.

Promotions come more slowly for women than for men with equivalent qualifications. In South Africa women are making remarkable progress, but are still rare in the highest level. Reasons for this could be legitimate factors on promotion decisions such as education, experience, service-length, and be performance related. The slow progression can also be related to the glass ceiling, factors related to gender rooted in the social and the organisational environment.
According to Bhatta and Washington (2003) and Hymowitz (2006) women throughout the world continue to be under represented in positions of senior management across all sectors.

The March 2008 report from the International Labour Organisation states the following:

i) Of all people employed in the world, 40 per cent are women. This share has not changed over the last ten years.

ii) The status of women in the world of work has improved, but gains have been slow.

While female shares in wage and salaried work versus vulnerable employment are approaching those of men, the sluggish pace of change means that disparities remain significant.

The glass ceiling is very real and is nurtured by organisational culture, policies and strategies (Mathur-Helm, 2002). It is one key barrier that impedes women’s career advancement. Investigation of the glass ceiling suggests that beliefs and attitudes held by organisational members (i.e. women are not viewed as leaders), as well as contextual aspects of the organisation (i.e. social structures) contribute to the glass ceiling effect which is experienced by women in management (Chugh & Sahgal, 2007).

According to Ely & Rhode (2008) women’s capacity for leadership depends on the organisational contexts within which opportunities for leadership arise. Researchers (Powell, 1998; Rhode, 2003; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007) have suggested various strategies to assist the progress of females and the development of female leaders.
Some of the environmental strategies are:

- to examine the practices in which it is traditionally engaged and assess the degree of stereotyping;

- policies and practices to support women striving to become managers;

- to implement proper recruitment, appointment and promotion procedures that is backed up by appraisal schemes and staff development programmes; and

- to form and participate on committees to explore and report on climate issues and make recommendations.

Meyerson & Ely (2003, p.140) support a strategy for bringing about structural change to improve the advancement of women to leadership, “a series of localised incremental changes in workplace practices rather than a wholesale revolution or simply promoting more women into leadership roles.”

### 2.4 FEMALES AND LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a word commonly used in the workplace and means different things to different people. Leadership has been described as:

- the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the
organisations of which they are members (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta 2004);

- the use of influence to encourage participation in achieving a set of goals (Yukl 2006);

- a process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse 2004).

Essentially, leadership can be described as ‘a complex interaction between the designated leader and the social and organisational environment’ (Day 2001, p583). This ‘complex interaction’ can be affected by various influences such as culture, stereotyping, style and gender.

Most definitions of leadership reflect an assumption that leadership involves a process where one person exerts influence over others to guide and facilitate activities in a group.

For the purpose of the study leadership is described as the process of influencing others so that they understand and agree about actions that can be taken, how the actions can be executed effectively, and how to inspire individual and team efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

### 2.4.1 Leadership and gender

The definition of leadership and the context in which leadership is enacted puts gender foremost in the discussion. One must not lose sight of the fact that the leaders being discussed are women; that leadership may differ for women and men; and that leadership does not take place in a genderless vacuum. Leadership is gendered (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Schein, 2001).
Women are faced with conflicting demands – their roles as women and their roles as leaders. How women enact their role as leader is inextricably intertwined with the basic realisation that they are women, bringing with it all the stereotypic baggage that comes with gender roles. Leadership is a process that occurs within a social context that itself is gendered (Biernat & Fuegen, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001). Men and women are different. They are built differently, think differently and behave differently. The basic premise is that leadership is biologically determined (Appelbaum, Audet & Miller, 2003). Research on this topic indicates more similarities between male and female leaders. Despite contrary evidence, thinking behind a biological approach seems to remain.

Eagly and Johnson (1996) contend that it’s because of stereotyping that women are portrayed as less capable leaders. They also found factors that may potentially undermine a female’s leadership effectiveness. These include the female’s attitude, self confidence, the corporate environment and the ‘old boys’ network’. Norris and Inglehart (2004) agree that whilst men still dominate in leadership positions, research suggest that when women occupy these positions, they display different leadership styles when compared to men.

2.4.2 Gender Stereotyping

According to Lyness and Heilman (2006) attributes such as achievement, orientation, forcefulness and strength in decision-making are commonly ascribed to men, and these traits are considered to be essential to fulfil jobs that are gender typed such as management and leadership roles. Attributes such as nurturance, affiliation and relationship orientation are typically ascribed to women and these traits have not been typically associated with management or leadership roles. According to Mathur-Helm (2004) the prevailing belief that women do not show leadership
potential and behave differently from traditional male leaders could create obstacles to women’s promotional chances. Negative stereotyping in a male dominated environment is a strong barrier to the career advancement of women in management. According to Schein (2001) gender typing of the management role also creates bias against females. Heilman (2001) showed that women who violated prescriptive stereotypes by demonstrating competence in a male-type role were seen as more hostile and less likable than their male counterpart. These attitudes continue to limit opportunities available to women.

2.4.3 Leadership and culture
South Africa is a country rich in cultural diversity. The workforce consists of employees from various ethnic and racial groups globally, increasing the diversity of culture in the workplace. Studies by Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Dorfman and Ruiz-Quintana (1999); Gerstner and Day (1994) and Hofstede (2001) suggests that culture has a great influence on leadership concepts, styles and practices and that cultural groups are likely to have different perceptions of what leadership should entail. According to Woodall (2006), the nature of leadership can change both between and within countries, given the country specific diversity of leadership as well as diversity caused by the effects of globalisation.

Merill-Sands and Kolb (2001) maintain that the concept of leadership remains a masculine notion being defined by subtle and deeply rooted cultural norms and values in organisations. They conclude that women may have the required skills, but are not seen culturally as leaders in comparison to men, a finding confirmed by Still (2006) in her study of male managers. Women executives often report that their male colleagues feel uncomfortable or even threatened by their presence and this discomfort was caused by the failure of men to reconcile their traditional values about
sex roles they were brought up with and their experience of working with women as peers (Oakley, 2007). Booysen (2001) confirmed this finding in her study of South African managers. Males focused on performance, competition, winning, domination and directive leadership while females emphasized collaboration, intuition, empowerment and empathy.

Bass (1990) stated that leadership is often influenced by the culture or the organisation in which it appears. This is confirmed by Van Der Vliert (2006) who states that cultural background is found to have a pervasive influence on leader behaviour.

Kowske and Anthony (2007) emphasised that culture plays a role in leadership development in the following two ways:

i) how people give and receive feedback and which competencies or leadership style is most copasetic with the country’s culture; and

ii) how individuals communicate within a culture will affect how they act on performance feedback and subsequently pursue leadership development opportunities.

Booysen (2001) states that most South African organisations have to deal with a list of societal issues daily - including race relations, first and third world disparities, inequalities in housing, and education and career potential. In South Africa, the difficult situation is intensified by the fact that the previously white dominated organisations created organisational cultures that favoured the development and self-fulfilment of the individual. This is in opposition to the views of blacks, who believe that there is a need for more inclusivity in organisations. Booysen also used Hofstede’s national culture model and reported that blacks scored higher on
collectiveness and humane orientation than their white counterparts.

Booysen (2001b) conducted research and found differences in the cultural orientation of men and women and suggested that perceptions of leader behaviour will differ across race and gender. Hogue and Lord (2007) state that failing to accept women as legitimate leaders constrains the ability of the females to develop their leadership potential, reinforcing the gender bias problem for women and organisations. According to Jogulu and Wood (2008) culture specific norms have the capacity to influence evaluations at organisational level.

2.5 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Research has covered a spectrum of theories that cover trait models, behavioural aspects, and contingency models to the more recent transactional and transformational leadership theories.

The behavioural approach to leadership states that anyone who adopts appropriate behaviour can be a good leader. Behavioural leadership theories attempts to explain distinctive styles used by effective leaders. Blake and Mouton developed the Leadership Grid. The grid is based on two behavioural dimensions: concern for people and concern for results. They rated leaders on a scale of one to nine. The grid plots the degree of people centeredness vs. task centeredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles (Blake & Mouton, 1985). The behavioural models didn’t uncover a leadership style that was appropriate to all situations (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Straude & Associates, 2004).
Contingency leadership theories focus on how situational variables interact with leader personality and leader behaviour (Fiedler, 1996). These theories attempt to explain the appropriate leadership style based on leader, follower and the situation. House (1971) developed the path-goal leadership theory, based on M.G. Evans’s theory that included situational variables. House’s theory specified a number of situational moderators of relationships between task and person-orientated leadership and their impact (House & Aditya, 1997). House’s theory attempted to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the performance and satisfaction of the followers. House’s theory does not include leadership traits and behaviour variables. The path-goal leadership model can be used to identify the most appropriate leadership style for a specific situation to maximise performance and satisfaction (DuBrin, 1998). The theory is affected by situational and environmental factors and the leadership style. The main contribution was to demonstrate the importance of situational factors in leadership which resulted in systematic leadership research.

Integrative leadership theories focus on a holistic approach to leading oneself and others in a reflective, conscious, thoughtful and responsive way (Hatala & Hatala, 2005). These theories attempt to combine the trait, behavioural and contingency theories to explain successful, influencing leader-follower relationships. Kouzes and Posner (2002) developed a leadership model based on common behaviour called the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. These practices are based on common behaviours that successful leaders have displayed and are the following: to model the way; to inspire a shared vision; to challenge the process; to enable others to act and to encourage the heart.
Additional theories were published that focused on the specific leadership styles to try and increase the understanding of what an effective leader is. Leadership styles were then evaluated through the gender lens, with a focus on the desire to understand how men and women influenced their followers. Bass (1985) and Burns (1978) approached leadership theory research from a transactional and transformational perspective.

Bass (1985) in his research of leadership described **transactional leadership** as a process which is affected by the leader and situation, and the social interaction. Transactional leaders are concerned with effective processes. They use their flexibility and innovation by deciding on suitable praise or punish as to what they perceive as acceptable or not (Avolio *et al.*, 1999; Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership depends on the positive or negative power of reinforcement. Followers are supported by recognising tasks. He stressed the importance of transactions between leaders and employees, highlighting the fact that leaders will have different relationships with different employees. The leader takes the role in initiating and sustaining interaction with the followers.

Burns (1978), in his theory of **transformational leadership**, describes transformational leadership as a process in which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation. These leaders appeal to moral values and higher ideals of followers. This type of leadership can be viewed as a process to influence, and a process to change social systems. Influence in transactional leadership is based on authority, where the leaders exchange pay and status for work effort. Bass defines transformational leadership in terms of leaders’ impact on followers (Bass, 1985). Followers trust, admire and respect the leader and therefore do more than what is expected from them. While Burns (1978) limits transformational leadership to leaders who appeal to moral values.
and higher-order needs of followers, Bass (1985) views a leader as someone who activates follower motivation and increases follower commitment.

Polnick, Reed, Funk and Edmonson (2004) and Ritt (2004) studied the way women lead. The studies include voluntary and charismatic leadership approaches. Promotion of good interpersonal relations, team leadership, and worker participation in decision making, the establishment of a climate of openness, mutual trust, respect, concern and receptiveness are management skills that are increasingly being identified as essential for the manager of the twenty-first century. This approach moves away from the leader dominated view to a broader one of follower-involvement where leaders embrace the notion of power sharing and a more collaborative approach of decision-making.

Leadership literature contends that females tend to be more transformational than males. This argument is based on the idea that transformational leadership emphasises the nurturance of subordinates and that through a process of socialisation, the nurturing qualities of women are particularly well developed in comparison to men (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Transformational leadership has consistently been demonstrated to offer benefits over the other three styles, particularly in terms of achieving organizational goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson & Spangler, 1995), and being able to evoke work effort (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996). Leadership theory researchers Avolio (2005), Bass (1990) and Burns (1978) have agreed that transformational leadership has been identified as the most appropriate style of leadership in contemporary organisations. There is some evidence that suggest that a charismatic transformational leadership style may be more effective in an
Eagly and Carli (2003) confirmed the link between effective leadership and transformational leadership. The study also confirmed that women are more likely to possess leadership characteristics and attributes that are effective in contemporary circumstances compared to their male counterparts. Women are believed to be the new source of leadership talent because of the organisational skills, the ability to share, communicate, listen and empathise with the needs of others (Blackmore, 2002). Christman and McClellan (2008) maintain that today’s leaders need to adopt a leadership style that morphs dynamically and fluidly to sustain themselves in the complexity of today’s organisations. The integration of women in leadership is not a matter of them fitting in with traditional models, but giving the opportunities for them to practice their own leadership styles (Trinidad & Normore, 2005).

Spears (2002, p.2) writes:

*In these early years of the twenty-first century, we are beginning to see that traditional, autocratic and hierarchical models of leadership are yielding to a newer model- based in teamwork, community, one that seeks to involve others in decision-making, one strongly based in ethical and caring behaviour and one that is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions.*
2.6. LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Researchers have made a distinction between leader and leadership development. Leader development focuses on a person and his/ her personal qualities and approach. Leadership development is more ambiguous and defined as:

‘the expansion of the organisation’s capacity to enact the basic leadership tasks needed for collective work: setting direction, creating alignment, and maintaining commitment’ Van Velsor & Mc Cauley (2005, p.18); and

‘can be viewed as a planned intervention in the life stream, where given a particular model, method, time period and evaluation strategy, we expect to change the course in people’s mental model, behaviour and direction of the life stream’ Avolio (2005, p.169).

Essentially, leadership development can be described as a collective process (Barker & Christensen, 1998; Grint, 2005) that positively affects organisational capacity.

Based on the definitions of leadership development mentioned above, the following key themes are identified. Leadership development can:

‘be a continuous, progressive and sequential process’ O’Neil & Fisher (2004, p.102);

‘expand the capacities of individuals, groups and organisations’ Day (2001, p.841);
‘increase the capacity of the capacity of the whole system’ Drath (2001, p.165); and

‘create positive leader-follower outcomes’ Davis (2001, p.3).

The statements above contain themes which confirm that leadership development is a continuous process designed to expand the capacities of individuals, groups and organisations to increase overall effectiveness.

According to Stacey and Griffin (2005) leadership development should be concerned with developing leader’s capacity for greater imaginativness, for acting within a wider range of possibilities and for taking risks.

Effective leadership development activities begin with the identification of future leadership and the gap between current skills, knowledge and characteristics of the individual with the current and future needs of the organisation.

2.6.1 Leadership competencies

Leadership competencies form the basis of a leadership development model and process. Bartram (2002) defines competencies as the set of behaviours that are instrumental in the delivery of results. Bennis (1999) identified five competencies of effective leaders; technical competence, character, interpersonal skills, judgement, and conceptual skills.

Moultrie and de la Rey (2003) conducted a study that focused on the perceived skills needs of South African women and the skills identified as necessary for positions as leadership. The study included 22 female leaders in South African Higher education. The women were of different races, held positions of varying ranks across a range of higher education...
institutions in four major South African cities. The aim was to determine their perceptions of their professional development needs. The skill development priorities identified were Financial Management, Research Management, Strategic Planning, Education Policy, Team Building, Strategies for Managing Office and Institutional Politics, Managing Conflict and Networking.

Literature supports the following leadership qualities of females: openness, flexibility, empathy, relational strengths, inclusiveness and a preference for collaboration. According to Oakley (2000) and Yukl (2006) the feminine advantage contends that women are more skilled at inclusiveness, interpersonal relations, power sharing and the nurturing of followers; and as a consequence, women should be superior leaders as having more leadership qualities.

At higher education institutions, there is a need for leaders who are passionate about higher education, attuned to its specific and complex challenges and, at the same time, driven by a desire to ensure the sustainability of their institution and the reputation of the sector as a whole (Malaza, 2008).

2.6.2 Leadership development initiatives.

Leadership development should help the individual and the organisation ‘work together in productive and meaningful ways’ (Mc Cauley et al, 1998, p.4). There are various types of leadership development initiatives that typically offer performance support and real world application of skills.

Various authors- Cacioppe (1998); Carter, Giber and Goldsmith(2000);and Van Velsor, Moxley and Bunker (2004), proposed a desired process for developing leadership development initiatives which generally
focuses on the following components:

1. Diagnosis – this phase examines the rational and business driver for creating a leadership development initiative.

2. Set objectives for development – once strategic imperatives have been determined, objectives should be set for the leadership development process.

3. Program design – the design could include a number of interventions or development opportunities to satisfy requirements.

4. Implementation – this phase constitutes the formal leadership development initiative.

5. On-the-Job Support – this phase is concerned with the question of learning transfer. Vicere & Fulmer (1998) express the need to link the development process to the human resource systems.

6. Evaluation – the final phase in the leadership development process is evaluation.

Organisations need continuous learning and organisational development to master uncertain and ambiguous environments, coupled with the ability to sustain a competitive advantage (van der Sluis, 2007). Various development initiatives or activities have been identified as leadership development interventions. As with any intervention, all have potential benefits and drawbacks (depending upon the context) and each has its
time and place in a leadership development initiative. These methods include training programs, coaching and mentoring, action learning, and developmental assignments. Integrating learning experiences with real business settings and providing ongoing performance feedback enables people to gain crucial skills (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Carter, Giber and Goldsmith (2000), concluded that programs utilised for leadership development that made the biggest differences utilised components of formal training, 360-degree feedback, exposure to senior executives and mentoring.

Mentoring has been identified as being pivotal to developing future leaders (Doody & Phillips, 2002). The Leadership Development for Women Programme (LDW) at The University of Western Australia is about to commence its 16th year and 475 women have participated in this highly successful programme to date. The programme aims to enable female staff to develop leadership skills and knowledge in order to increase their participation in positions of leadership and in the University's decision making processes. It also aims to contribute to culture change in the University so that it is more encouraging and welcoming of women's contributions. The LDW Programme is based on a vision of a university environment where women have the opportunity to aspire to and play leadership roles at all levels, and in a multiplicity of ways, in contributing to the achievement of international excellence. A significant component of the LDW programme is the Mentoring Scheme, which matches each participant (mentee) with a more senior person (mentor) within the University, who can provide them with support, information and advice, and share professional and personal skills and experiences (De Vries, 2005).

Individuals need continuous learning to do their jobs well today and tomorrow and to increase their chances for advancement and professional
recommend that development needs to contain elements of assessment,
challenge and support. Leadership developments programs implemented
in isolation of the business environment rarely brings about long lasting
changes. Senior executives in universities should be aware of the various
development needs of staff, identify the most appropriate values and
adapt their practices accordingly (Wallace & Merchant, 2009).

2.7 CONCLUSION

Several South African organisations that claim to have successfully
implemented and integrated equal opportunities into their companies' policies
and mainstream businesses are still struggling to transform and translate them into reality. It appears that equal opportunity policies are
working against women by becoming a barrier to their growth and advancement. (Mathur-Helm, 2004).

According to Gibson (2009) the number of women headhunted and placed in leading corporate positions has remained constant at 30% despite gender equity intentions.

Mathur-Helm (2002) indicates that South African business environments still reflect a strong, traditional, hierarchical and male- dominated work culture that does not promote women in the workplace, as organisations lack faith and trust in their capabilities. South African women encounter a corporate culture that is dominated by male values and gender bias. South African men will have to learn to accept their female counterparts as professional business women and as leaders by changing their perceptions regarding women’s traditional roles as housewives.
Research suggests that having more women in leadership positions has tangible payoffs. A lack of gender diversity can limit an organisation's opportunity for learning and renewal. Women engage in different social relations and economic activities and thus know the world differently from men. Organisations that fail to tap into this knowledge miss out on a valuable resource for rethinking and improving how work is accomplished (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Meyer & Ely, 2003). The absence of women in senior leadership roles is indicative that the process of selection, recruitment and promotion in educational organisations is in need of an overhaul (Trinidad & Normore, 2005).

The glass ceiling is a phrase coined in the mid-1980’s and is an established part of our vocabulary. The slow progress of talented, educated and ambitious women is having a negative effect on women’s views of management and career professions. According to Schein (2007) improving women’s participation in leadership roles is essential for women to achieve equality of opportunity worldwide. Organisations need to become more women-sensitive and women-friendly by accepting them as professional women, without stereotyping them and continuously checking their perceptions and attitudes towards this shared goal.

As individuals and organisations are increasingly focused on development, a key priority for organisations should be the enhancement of its leadership pool. Mentoring programmes are in the process of being implemented as a strategy for leadership development (Day, 2001; Stead, 2005). Research shows that mentoring is beneficial in leadership development (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004; Hobson & Sharp, 2005), and that leadership needs such as networking and cultural awareness were addressed at a range of levels. Organisations are recognizing and realising the value of mentoring and are increasingly looking at ways to
formalise these types of relationships as part of the leadership development efforts (Hermez-Broome & Hughes 2004). Ideally the initiatives should be linked with HR systems and other business strategies. There is a need for proactive career planning on the part of women and universities to address the lack of career mobility. Mentoring should not be limited to senior women, but should shape women at lower levels to move to the middle.

Leadership development interventions need to begin far earlier in the careers of those who work in academia so that success is built from below rather than from above (Spendlove, 2007). Mentoring improves women’s commitment and sense of belonging; keeps them in higher education (Falkenberg, 2003); supports their advancement (Jawahar & Hemmasi, 2006); and increases their research productivity (Evans & Cokley, 2008).

The promotion of initiatives to establish a mentoring/ coaching culture to support the development of all employees, would especially benefit women who have historically had limited access to developmental opportunities (Hunt & Weintraub, 2007, Zachary, 2005). As senior leaders focus on leadership development, the organisation will recognise that by using development initiatives properly, it will be able to replace a culture that enhances organisational values.

The following chapter will review mentoring and the benefits of mentoring to employees and the organisation.
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CHAPTER THREE
MENTORING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the relevant literature on mentoring. It begins with a brief discussion of the various definitions of mentoring, reviews literature on informal and formal mentoring, and explores the phases of the mentoring process. Next, the reason for implementing formal mentoring programmes and the implementation of mentoring is discussed. The chapter concludes by discussing the influence of the organisational culture on mentoring.

Mentoring is generating great interest in business and educational settings. Mentoring is considered of crucial importance by many authors for the career, academic, and psycho-social development of people (Bierema, 2002). Rothwell and Kazanas (2003), focuses on the use of mentoring for the development of human resources in organizations; Wallace (2001) proposes the use of mentoring as a desired means to enhance various personal outcomes; while Scandura and Ragins (1989) focuses on the use of mentoring in helping women and minorities gain access to the personal networks needed to navigate the organization environment.

In a survey of Fortune 500 companies, 96 percent of executives identified mentoring as an important developmental tool, and 75 percent of them said it had played a key role in their career success (Heinz, 2003). Current trends in the workplace like continuous learning and on the job development has championed the use of mentoring as a tool for human resource development.
Levinson (1978) defines mentoring as one of the most complex, and developmentally important relationships a man can have in early adulthood. The mentor is usually several years older, a person of great experience and seniority on the world the young man is entering. Although Levinson studied only men, he acknowledged special concerns for women, such as lack of access to mentors and their unique relational needs. Over the last three decades mentoring and sponsoring has been integrated into a woman’s life cycle, since the majority of the research has focused on white males. Gail Sheehy popularized the term several years ago when she published, “The Mentor Connection: The Secret Link in the Successful Woman’s Life”, at a time when mentors became a popular topic (Sheehy, 1976).

Research suggests that while mentoring relationships are important for men, it is essential for women as female managers face greater organisational, interpersonal and individual barriers to advancement (Flood, 2005; Kanter, 1982; Ohlott, Ruderman, & Kram, 1994).

3.2 DEFINING MENTORING

3.2.1 What is mentoring?
Mentoring is viewed as an intense one-on-one relationship in which a mentor (usually senior) provides support to a mentee (usually junior) (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Wanberg, Welsh & Hezlett, 2003). Mentors are traditionally defined as individuals who possess advanced experience and knowledge and are committed to providing developmental assistance to their less experienced mentee (Ragins, 1997). Anderson and Shannon (1988) views mentoring as a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person serving as a role model teaches, espouses, encourages, counsels and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the
purpose of promoting the latter's professional and or personal development.

Kram (1985) defines mentoring from an organisational perspective as a relationship between a junior colleague and a senior colleague that contributes to career development, while according to Clutterbuck (2001), mentoring can be seen as a holistic and fluid concept that attends to professional, corporate and personal development.

A core feature that defines mentoring relationships and distinguishes it from other types of personal relationships is that mentoring is a developmental relationship that is embedded within a career context. It is an evolving, dynamic relationship between 2 people that can be mutually beneficial (Appelbaum, Ritchie & Shapiro, 1994; Clutterbuck & Lane, 2005). Mentoring relationships are unique in that the primary focus of the relationship is on career development and growth (Ragins & Kram, 2007). A mentoring relationship connects a person with knowledge and skills to a mentee, and allows them to share their expertise and support. According to Robinson (2001) mentoring is the most effective way to transfer skills and knowledge quickly and inspire loyalty in new employees to co-operate in an organisation.

Triple Creek Associates (2004) provides the following definition of mentoring. They see mentoring as a personal enhancement strategy through which one person facilitates the development of another by sharing resources, expertise, values, skills, perspectives, attitudes and proficiencies. This strategy allows the learner to build skills and knowledge, and provides the experiences party with the opportunity to enhance his/her own skills and knowledge.
For the purposes of the study, the definition of Ragins and Kram will be used. According to Ragins and Kram (2007), at its best, mentoring can be life a life-altering relationship that inspires mutual growth, learning and development. The effects of a relationship can be remarkable, profound and enduring.

### 3.2.2 Formal and Informal mentoring

Literature has identified various types of mentoring. For the purposes of this study formal and informal mentoring will be discussed. Klasen and Clutterbuck (2001) contend that the degree of formality of a mentoring relationship influences the dynamics and outcomes of the relationship. Informal mentoring is not managed, structured or formally recognised by the organisation, it is spontaneous and without external involvement from the organisation. In contrast, formal mentoring is managed and sanctioned by the organisation (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992; Douglas 1997; Klasen & Clutterbuck 2002).

Byrne (1991) advocates the use of a formal mentoring program to promote and encourage staff development. Formal mentoring programmes have the support and assistance from management, with clearly defined responsibilities, the duration of the programme and the desired expectations. It has normally been a compulsory component of organisations’ training programs. Formal mentoring within organisations is also generally conducted for specific categories of employees (Tyler, 2004).

According to Cameron and Jesser (1990), professional and formal mentoring programmes are more prominent in the United States and Australia and are beginning to be viewed as important management tools globally. De Vries and Webb (2006) contend that formal mentoring programmes attempt to recreate the informal networking relationships that have always occurred in the workplace and excluded women from these relationships. Formal
mentoring has been designed to increase the number of women and disadvantaged in leadership positions (McCauley & Douglas, 2004).

Informal mentoring happens with little or no intervention by the organisation other than an initial introduction. According to Byrne (1991), informal mentoring is the oldest form of mentoring. Ragins and Cotton (1999) state that, the informal mentoring relationship is one that develops spontaneously and can occur between any two people (Tyler, 2004). Byrne (1991) contends that one of the major features, and at the same time, one of the major disadvantages of informal mentoring, is its highly selective and elitist nature. Research contends that informal mentoring by its elitist nature and elective nature tended to discriminate against women (Kanter, 1977; Ragins, 1997). Informal mentoring arrangements can evolve where people working in a similar field find they have mutual interests and decide to establish a ‘developmental alliance’ (Clutterbuck, 2004a, p4).

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 provide more career functions than in formal relationships. There is no difference between groups on organisational commitment, work role stress, or self esteem at work. This could be due to the fact that there are many other individuals within the organisation that can effectively fulfil this psychosocial role (Chao et al., 1992). Ragins, Cotton and Miller (2000) and Chao et al. (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.
Bhatta and Washington (2003) found that women are more likely than their male counterparts to have a mentor. Two possible explanations could be because women may need them and women may have made a more deliberate attempt to access mentors. They continue to argue that mentoring is a valuable career development tool for women. This is confirmed by Clutterbuck and Ragins (2002) who state that many organisations have established mentoring programs with the aim of developing and advancing women.

### 3.2.3 Mentoring functions

Various researchers Kram (1983 & 1985); Noe (1988a) and Ragins and Cotton (1999) have identified and grouped the roles or functions performed by a mentor into two main categories: career and psychosocial. Kram (1985, p. 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 the functions vary in each relationship. Relationships that provide both functions are characterised by a ‘greater intimacy and strength of interpersonal bond’ (Kram 1985, p. 24). These functions can be seen to characterise the role that the mentor plays in the life of the mentee.

**Career functions** enhance advancement in an organisation. These functions include sponsoring, coaching, protecting, challenging assignments and exposure (Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cotton 1999).

- Coaching
  Coaching enhances the mentee’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.

- **Protection**
  Protection occurs when the mentor shields the mentee from untimely or potentially damaging contact with senior members of the organisation.

- **Sponsorship**
  Sponsorship is the most frequently observed career function. Sponsorship helps the mentee to build a reputation, become known and obtain certain job opportunities that would prepare him or her for higher level positions.

- **Exposure**
  Exposure involves the mentor assigning responsibilities that allows a mentee to develop relationships with other key figures in the organisation who may judge his or her potential for future advancement.

- **Challenging assignments**
  Setting of challenging assignments enables the mentee to develop specific competencies and skills, and to experience a sense of accomplishment in a professional role. The mentee learns essential technical and managerial skills through work that encourages learning. The mentor needs to give ongoing feedback and support otherwise the mentee might feel overwhelmed by the complexity of the tasks.
These activities serve to improve the mentees' careers by enhancing their suitability for promotions; providing information, advice, analysis and feedback that helps the mentee to improve decision-making, organizational fit and skills (Parnell 1998); protecting mentees from adverse forces (Ragins & Cotton, 1999); protecting important knowledge and ensuring that it is passed on to the mentees; challenging mentees to build skills by pushing them to accept difficult assignments; questioning their preconceptions and attaining higher levels of performance; exposure to senior decision-makers; and introducing the mentees to their own internal and external networks (Covan 2000).

**Psychosocial functions** affect the mentee on a more personal level by enhancing the mentee’s sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role (Kram, 1985). Psychosocial functions for mentees include confirmation and acceptance, counselling, friendship and role modelling (Ragins & Cotton 1999).

- **Role modelling**
  Role modelling occurs when a mentor’s attitudes, values and behaviour provides a model for the mentee to learn from and emulate. The mentee identifies with the example set by the mentor as the mentee aspires to achieve in the organisation. Amos and Pearse express caution about the South African context where white mentors mentor black mentees, role modelling is affected by the political context. ‘If the white manager mediates, then he will be mediating the white world to the black mentee, thus developing the black mentee to fit into a white world’ (Amos & Pearse 2002, p. 22).
• Confirmation and acceptance
  Confirmation and acceptance provides support and encouragement to the mentee as s/he develops competence in the world of work. It enables the mentee to experiment with new behaviours by taking risks in the knowledge that mistakes while learning will not result in rejection.

• Counselling
  When counselling, the mentor discusses the mentee’s internal conflicts. It enables the mentee is able to discuss any anxieties or fears that cause distraction at work. The mentor acts as a sounding board, offers advice from experience and tries to resolve problems through feedback and active listening.

• Friendship
  This function includes social interaction that results in mutual liking and understanding. This role allows for a peer-like relationship to develop- one that is not as distant as with a relationship of authority.

These activities serve to improve the mentees’ psychosocial development. Many researchers suggest that the psychosocial functions of mentor-mentee relationships are particularly crucial for the career development of women and minorities in the workforce (Flouri & Buchanan, 2002; Liang,Tracy,Taylor & Willaims, 2002). The mentee is able to build a sense of self (Ragins & Cotton 1999) as he or she experiences the mentor’s confirmation and acceptance.

Although mutual engagement, authenticity and empowerment are all crucial to the success of a mentoring relationship (Liang et al., 2002), research has
proved that the mentoring relationship needs to evolve over a period of time; and through distinct phases. The phases will be discussed below.

### 3.3 PHASES OF A MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

It is widely accepted that mentoring relationships evolve over time, typically passing through four distinct phases. Hay (1995); Kram (1983), (1985) and Zachary (2000), (2005) describe four distinct phases of the mentoring relationship. The phases are initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. All phases vary in length according to the prevailing culture of the organisation.

**Initiation** is the time period when the mentoring relationship forms. This stage of the mentoring process is critical to the development and success of individual mentoring relationships. Rapport building takes place as mentor and mentees communicate expectations, needs and concerns (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). This phase is also characterised by a certain amount of testing and challenging (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995). The mentee requires a certain amount of acceptance; confirmation and support in mapping out a career plan (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). Factors like power and perception needs to be considered as it could affect the mentoring relationship.

**Cultivation** is characterised by the development of an honest, sincere relationship based on open communication; a focus on learning and growth; getting to grips with business matters; and moving from plans to real outcomes. Listening, talking, sharing and reflecting occurs, as well as identifying strengths and weaknesses (Kram, 1985). This stage requires that mentor and mentee develop a partnership anchored in the development of
specific goals. Clearly defined roles and responsibilities, accountability, and protocols for working through pitfalls need to be discussed, as this will ensure a mutually informed and successful relationship.

**Separation** follows cultivation. According to Hunt and Michael (1983), separation is necessary for the mentee to advance in his/her career. The mentor will disengage from the formal relationship as the mentee becomes more confident and independent (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). A timely separation allows the mentor to take pride in seeing their mentee move forward and the mentee has a sense of accomplishment in operating independently of the mentor’s guidance. Untimely separation results in feelings of anger, resentment and abandonment (Kram, 1985).

The final phase is **redefinition**. The relationship terminates or takes on a new form such as a friendship (Kram, 1985). The relationship is now one of mutual support and informal contact (Ford & Kozlowski, 1997). Closure is an inevitable part of every mentoring relationship because mentoring is a process that is goal-oriented (Zachary, 2005). Learning has occurred - it is time to move on. Appraisal and monitoring is on-going and it occurs at two levels: reviewing whether mentoring is leading to required results for the mentee and appraising the actual relationship (Kram, 1985).

### 3.4 PURPOSE OF MENTORING

The implementation of mentoring has proven useful for advancing diversity within the workplace through the development of female employees to ensure legislative compliance and to redress past inequalities (Byrne, 1991; Schreuder & Theron, 2001). These programs appear to be more widespread today than they were 30 years ago. Evidence of their use can be found on
government-based websites throughout many countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United Kingdom (Ehrich, 2008). Research highlights that while mentoring relationships may be important for men, they are even more essential for women’s career development as female managers face greater organisational barriers to career advancement (Harris, 2006).

In higher education, successful mentoring programs have been reported for administrative staff (Barnett, 1995; Daresh, 1995), for new faculty (Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991) and for faculty taking on new roles, especially using technology (Gray & McNaught, 2001). Crawford and Smith (2005) found that mentoring enables the upward mobility in female’s career and as well as their success in education and development. Hezlett and Gibson (2005) suggests that mentoring for women in the Higher Education context should be considered a critical campus initiative to assist women in gaining access to information networks and organisational systems required for success. In the United States, faculty mentoring programs are promoted and strongly encouraged. The aim is to improve the quality of academic life for junior and senior female faculty members and to offer valuable connections within the university environment.

Mentoring can help employees take ownership of their careers and enable them to navigate their careers successfully (Hay 1995). Clutterbuck and Sweeney (2003) found that few people have linear career paths. People need to be provided with an opportunity to maximise the position they are in, be challenged, and be aware of the opportunity to move into new roles. Having a mentor helps with the major transitions. Individuals are assuming more responsibility for their learning and development because continuous learning as a core competency is being advocated as a way to remain
competitive in job markets (Ellinger, 2002). Management literature has espoused the benefits of ‘mentoring’ for professional development of staff, for organisational growth and for the perpetuation of professions (Kochan, & Pascarelli, 2003; Rolfe-Flett, 2002). The primary objective of mentoring is to improve and maintain quality of services - this is part of a succession planning strategy - ensuring that there are sufficient, suitably equipped workers to absorb the effects of staff turnover (Murray, 1991). In South Africa, formal mentoring programmes have become a tool for promoting the growth and development of junior employees (Young & Perrewe, 2004).

Mentoring is considered an important workplace learning strategy (Darwin, 2000). Formal mentoring programmes are being seen as a way to establish learning relationships that enable the continuing development of employees. According to Higgins (2000), mentoring provides the opportunity for people to connect in a meaningful way with older people, and to learn about the management of the business, and how to balance life and business. Mentoring provides a structured system for strengthening and assuring the continuity of organisational culture. It can provide members with a common value base, encourage the fostering of healthy expectations, and operate as an agent for the organisational modification of culture (Wilson & Elman, 1990). Organisation are using mentoring as a vehicle for creating opportunities for open communication among employees and for assimilating new comers into the organisational culture (Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2002).

Mentoring is a valuable resource for learning and development and for coping with a workplace that is constantly changing (Eby, 1997; Kram & Hall, 1996). It is frequently proposed as a desired means to enhance various personal outcomes, especially those related to career success (Aryee, Chay & Chew, 1996; Chao, 1997; Wallace, 2001). Hall and Khan (2002) have identified the use of mentoring as a source of meaningful feedback,
psychological safety, stability and continuous professional growth. The benefits associated with mentoring will be discussed below

3.5 BENEFITS OF MENTORING FOR ORGANISATION AND EMPLOYEE

There is a host of benefits to a mentoring relationship. It is built on a foundation of open communication, mutual respect, and trust. It provides a safe haven for the mentee. Hansford, Tennet and Ehrich, (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 mentee, mentor or organisation. Research has documented a number of positive career-oriented outcomes, psychosocial and organisational outcomes facilitated by mentoring relationships.

3.5.1 Benefits to mentor and mentee

Researchers Darling, Bogat, Cavell, Murphy & Sanchez (2002), Kram (1985); Liang et al., (2002); and Scandura (1992), and have identified possible benefits of mentoring to both mentor and mentee. Bierema (2002) considers mentoring as crucial to the career and psycho-social development of people. These include the following benefits according to the mentoring functions as listed in table 3.1.
Table 3.1: Benefits of mentoring to mentor and mentee

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychosocial outcomes</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mentee</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrichment</td>
<td>improved self concept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improved interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>improved interpersonal relationships;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improved sense of individuality</td>
<td>improved sense of individuality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher self esteem</td>
<td>better psychosocial adjustment to career and life transitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides stimulation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Outcomes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>transference of expertise and knowledge</td>
<td>orientation to the culture and processes of the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gaining alternative perspectives about the organisation</td>
<td>continued support in a challenging environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increased influence on organisational mission and goals</td>
<td>enhanced career mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improved interest in work</td>
<td>exposure to senior organisational decision-makers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the opportunity to translate values and strategies into action.</td>
<td>constructive feedback;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.2 Benefits to organisation

Three kinds of possible organisational outcomes of mentoring that have been suggested: developing human resources; managing organisational culture; and improving organisational communication (Singh, Bains & Vinnicombe, 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003).
Researchers (Chao, 1997; Clutterbuck & Sweeney, 2003; Klasen & Clutterbuck 2002; Scandura & Williams, 2002) suggest the following:

- improved motivation and job performance;
- management retention and succession strengthening;
- knowledge sharing;
- stabilised organisational values and culture;
- increased communication;
- enhanced practice and culture of continuous learning;
- organisational commitment, recognition and satisfaction;
- passing on best practices, rising quality of self-managed learning;
- reinforcing a development culture; and
- improved organisation policies, systems and processes.

Effectively implemented formal mentoring programmes can ensure that talent is identified, desirable individuals are retained, successful behaviours are reinforced, cultures and norms are instilled within mentees and change becomes a planned and managed dynamic (Dinsdale, 1998c). Today's world is changing. It requires people and organisations to change and grow if they want to stay ahead of the game. If development is a key driver of
organisational business performance, then mentoring should move toward the centre of the development strategy (Hattingh, Coetzee & Schreuder, 2005).

3.6 IMPLEMENTATION OF MENTORING

As with 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 & Fourie, 2004, p. 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.

There is a great deal of information contained in literature about the characteristics of the various types of formal mentoring models. Table3.2 lists the general characteristics of the models around the themes of structure, format, career stages and challenges of each model.
Table 3.2: Characteristics of mentoring models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Traditional/Mosaic/Team</th>
<th>Peer</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Seniority-based: Mentors are experienced, senior members of the profession, while mentees are in early to mid-career stage</td>
<td>Peer based: Mentors and mentees are at similar career stages</td>
<td>Seniority based: Mentors are experienced, senior members of the profession, while mentees are in early to mid-career stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format</td>
<td>One mentee with one mentor or multiple mentors</td>
<td>One-to-one or small collaborative group</td>
<td>One or small number of mentors with medium-sized group of mentees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical career stage of mentee</td>
<td>Early</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Early or mid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical career stage of mentor</td>
<td>Mid or senior</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Mid or senior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>Recruiting and training enough mentors to fill demand, time commitments</td>
<td>Recruiting, providing training for peer mentoring, time commitments, changing group membership (if more than pair)</td>
<td>Differing needs of group members, providing skills training for group interaction, managing group dynamics, time commitments, changing group membership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Carr, R. (2000). A chart summarizing different types of mentoring)
Next, Berry’s theoretical model for organisational mentoring (2003) is discussed for the purpose of providing a logical process and evaluation of the formal mentoring approach. The model consists of nine phases, which is discussed in more detail below.

**Phase 1: Define programme objectives**
Objectives need to be concise and clearly understood by all to ensure that the purpose of the programme is understood. According to Berry (2003), the objectives are needed to convince top management of the programme and gain their support. Without objectives, there is no base for any type of evaluation of the programme.

In an evaluation of studies on formal mentoring programmes, Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent (2004) found that 4.6 percent of the studies cited little knowledge of goals as a problematic outcome for mentors in terms of the success of the programme. According to Meyer and Fourie (2004) when employees are not actively involved in planning the mentoring programme, failure is inevitable as the goals and objectives of the programme are not understood.

**Phase 2: Identify management development needs**
A formal mentoring programme 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 & Mouton, 2004) It is 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 (Meyer & Fourie, 2004; Oliver & Aggleton, 2002).
An integrated mentoring strategy indicates the importance of development of its employees and management’s commitment to the process (Hofmeyr, Ball & Templar, 1995). It is necessary to understand the goal - to develop people and not merely to create a mentoring programme (Meyer & Fourie, 2004).

**Phase 3: Select mentors and mentees**

During the selection of mentors and mentees, the competency required needs to be confirmed. Mentors 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 mentees are forced into a mentoring relationship by virtue of their position and a lack of commitment from both mentor and mentee prevents success of the programme (Cook & Adonis, 1994). According to Meyer and Fourie (2004) mentors need to be selected based on interpersonal skills, the abilities to interact and support different views and cultures. Mentees may lack commitment due to a lack of trust and no buy-in to the programme.

**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 mentees 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 mentees. The roles and responsibilities of the mentors and mentees should be outlined and there should be agreement and commitment to the ground rules (Berry, 2003). Resistance to change can negatively affect the success of a mentoring programme.

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, p.111) found that in 6.6% of the studies, mentees 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). Meyer and Fourie (2004, p. 169) believe that insufficient training and other support structures ‘retard the implementation of mentoring interventions’. Training should cover the roles of the mentor and mentee, competencies of mentors and mentees, pitfalls of the programme and the implementation process.

*Phase 5: Match mentors and mentees*

The success of a formal mentoring programme depends on finding a good match between the mentor and mentee (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). Once an organisation has identified suitable people, care should be exercised in the matching of mentors and mentee’s (Chao et al., 1992). Meyer and Fourie (2004) contend that there should be voluntary participation in the programme and self-initiated pairing between employees. Organisations need to maintain a culture that supports mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985; Meyer & Fourie, 2004). Berry (2003) highlights this in terms of the context of the mentoring programme: the model specifically depicts the mentoring model in the midst of a transformational culture.

*Phase 6: Establish developmental plans*

It is important to clarify the mentee’s short and longterm objectives in terms of the programme and their development. Ideally, the mentee’s supervisor should be involved in the process as the final responsibility of the mentee’s development rests with them. The mentor should contact the mentee’s supervisor to discuss the development plans before the mentoring relationship (Berry, 2003).
As the mentoring relationship develops, the mentor and mentee begin to communicate more openly and frequently discuss documents, people or aspects of organisational culture. These aspects may pertain to confidential issues, personal or organisational secrets and if not handled confidentially may damage the relationship or cause organisational problems (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). Ehrich et al. (2004), Hansford et al. (2002), Meyer and Fourie (2004) found that a lack of time to be the biggest hindrance to a successful relationship.

**Phase 7: Provide feedback and evaluate the relationship**
Continuous evaluation is necessary to ensure see that the mentoring relationships are being managed effectively (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). The nature of the feedback is dependent on the relationship that has developed between the mentor and the mentee. It is also necessary for the mentoring programme co-ordinator to ensure that the mentors and mentees meet regularly and to determine whether they have discussed the future of the relationship in the event that some type of intervention is necessary (Berry, 2003).

**Phase 8: Dissolving the relationship**
The relationship needs to end. A premature ending may result in the mentee experience feelings of uncertainty and anxiety. An agreed upon and known time limit will enable the mentor and the mentee to prepare for the ending of the relationship before the deadline. Before ending the relationship formally, the mentor and mentee should review the relationship in terms of the mentee’s feeling about ending the relationship, what the relationship delivered, or had not delivered, what can be expected in the future and the possibility of the mentor continuing to promote the mentee from a distance on a more informal basis (Berry, 2003).
**Phase 9: Evaluate the mentoring programme**

Meggison and Clutterbuck (1995) maintain that a mentoring programme should be evaluated in terms of the relationship, programme processes and outputs. According to Berry (2003), the evaluation can only be done effectively if the objectives and goals set at the beginning were specific and measurable. Hansford *et al.* (2002, p. 114) recommend that mentoring programmes be subjected to ‘continued appraisal and refinement.’ Monitoring the programme is important, as it will provide information as to whether the programme is effective, what should be expanded or if the programme needs to be terminated.

Meyer and Fourie (2004), argue that the implementation of a mentoring programme should be communicated throughout the entire organisation. It should highlight 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.
Chart 3.1:
Berry’s theoretical model of mentoring

PHASE 1
Define programme objectives
- Secure Senior Management
- Measure processes & procedures

PHASE 2
Identify management development needs
- Consider strategic HR plans
- Consider succession plans
- Consider EE & Skills Development Act

PHASE 3
Select mentors and mentees
- Confirm competency criteria of participants
- Identify and select mentors
- Identify & select mentees

PHASE 4
Conduct orientation session
- Communicate programme objectives
- Clarify & define roles and responsibilities
- Clarify mentoring ground rules

PHASE 5
Match mentors and mentees
- Decide on matching

PHASE 6
Establish developmental plans

PHASE 7
Provide feedback and evaluate relationship
- Mentor and mentee evaluate
- Mentor coaches mentee

PHASE 8
Dissolving relationship
- Mentor and mentee meet
- Mentor and mentee’s superior meet
- Mentee and superior meet

PHASE 9
Evaluate mentoring programme
- Mentor and mentee review relationships

PHASE 10
Evaluate mentoring programme
- Mentor and mentee review relationships
3.7 INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON MENTORING

All organisations have culture. Literature provides various definitions of organisational culture:

Schein (1992, p.12) defines organisational culture as ‘a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems.’

Marquardt (2002, p. 27) refers to culture as ‘an organization's values, beliefs, practices, rituals, and customs.’

Daft (2005) defines organisational culture as a set of key values, assumptions, understanding and norms that is shared by members of an organisation and taught to new members as correct.

Smith and McKeen (2003) describe culture as a term that encompasses the values, attitudes, and behaviours of an organisation.

Culture is the way things are done in an organisation.

‘Culture refers to: (a) the values that lie beneath what the organisation rewards, supports and expects; (b) the norms that surround and/or underpin the policies, practices and procedures of organisations (c) the meaning incumbents share about what the norms and values of the organisation are’ (Schneider 2001, p. 353).
Schein (1992) states organisational culture consists of two layers of concepts, namely the visible and invisible characteristics. The visible layer is the buildings, clothing regulations, stories, languages and rites. The invisible layer is the common values, norms, faith and assumptions of its organisational members.

Culture is important in organisations because it can affect human behaviour and it is extremely hard to change. Martins and Martins (2003), McDermott and O'Dell (2001) and Politt (2005) have recognised the impact of organisational culture. The effect includes and is not limited to enhancing commitment; increasing organisational effectiveness, and improving the process of knowledge sharing. Hay (1999) contends that the strategies, structures and ways in which people are treated are all representations of the culture.

In academic settings, members of strong academic cultures share ideologies, values, and quality judgments, and those who seem to contradict these common cultural elements risk being penalized (Becher, 1989). According to Lopez, Peon & Ordas (2006), the learning organisation's culture habitually learns and works to integrate processes in all organizational functions. The culture is constantly evolving and travels along an infinite continuum in a harmonious learning environment.

Barham and Conway (1998) have identified the visible effects of culture on mentoring. They argue that all issues that need to be addressed within a coaching and mentoring strategy come from the prevalence of the organisational culture. Hunt & Michael (1983), Kanter (1977) and Kram (1985) agree that organisational characteristics can influence the frequency, quality and outcomes of mentoring.
Megginson and Clutterbuck (1995) contend their research strongly suggests that coaching/mentoring needs to be in line with and supportive of the existing culture of an organisation if it is to be successful. The success of formal mentoring is highly dependent on the culture of 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 & Trowler, 1999). Choe (1993) reported links between organisational culture and business strategy. This serves to establish the importance and impact that organisational culture has on almost every aspect of organisational life and this includes and mentoring.

According to Zachary (2005) a mentoring culture encourages the practice of mentoring by continuously creating readiness for mentoring; facilitating multiple mentoring opportunities and building in support mechanisms to ensure mentoring success.

An organisation’s culture profoundly influences its people, processes and business practices. Its impact is felt and expressed daily. It also explains why things are done in a specific way in an organisation and why specific rituals, languages, stores and customs are shared. Mentoring requires a culture to support its implementation and fully integrate it into the organisation (Zachary, 2005).

### 3.8 CONCLUSION

Mentoring has been identified as a valuable human resource development strategy (Catalyst, 2004), a collaborative learning relationship between two persons (Zachary, 2005), an activity for socially excluded young people (Piper & Piper, 2000) and an affirmative action strategy used to support
women and members of minority groups (Byrne, 1991; Young & Perewwe, 2004).

There is no doubt mentoring adds immense value to the development of women (Baruch, 2004) A number of universities in America and Britain have successfully instituted mentoring programs for women faculty, with specific emphasis on the faculties where there is a critical shortage of women. This indicates that programmes are successful and should be implemented in South Africa to address the shortage of female, more specifically those in leadership positions. 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.

Mentoring requires a culture that supports its implementation and full integration into the organisation. Without cultural congruence, the challenge of implementing mentoring into an organisation is daunting (Zachary, 2005). Organisations will need to develop a strategy that emphasises the importance, the need for and the acceptance of mentoring women to enhance and transform their practices (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). According to Columbine (2009) in the South African context, the aspects of diversity and transformation must be understood in the mentoring relationship. Cultural, racial and ethnic sensitivities play a part, and depending on the level of openness and understanding, it can bring people closer together. The study highlighted various models of mentoring that can be used for the successful implementation and integration according to the specific need in the organisation.
Organisations that are serious about developing females with leadership potential, will ensure that a mentoring programme forms part of an organisational strategy. Social research has confirmed what many have learned through experience: mentoring and networking may help women reach the highest positions of leadership within their organisations. Having an effective mentor is one pathway around barriers women face along the path to top leadership, and the lack of mentoring may contribute to the disproportionate representation of women in top positions in business. Kram's ground-breaking work in the field more than twenty years ago explicated the benefits of mentoring to organizations, to mentors, and to mentees (Kram, 1985).

Clutterbuck and Lane (2005) and Klasen and Clutterbuck (2001) contend that the advantage of mentoring over other developmental initiatives is the integrated approach and its capacity for development.

Mentoring is acknowledged to be of benefit to mentee, mentor and the organisation:

‘The mentor gives, the mentee gets, and the organisation benefits’

(Scandura et al., 1996).’
CHAPTER FOUR
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CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODS, PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

4.1. OVERVIEW

The previous chapter has provided relevant literature on mentoring and leadership and then outlined a basis for developing a model to implement a formal mentoring programme within South African organisations.

The current chapter focuses on the research methodology, which is discussed in terms of methods, sampling, research instrument, data collection and analysis procedures.

According to Strauss & Corbin (1998), research in social sciences depends on measurements and analysis and interpretation of numerical as well as non numerical data. Shuttleworth (2008) contends that the quantitative research method is an excellent way of finalising results and proving or disproving hypotheses. Babbie & Mouton (2004) highlight the different types of social research methods that can be identified in literature. This includes exploratory research, descriptive research and explanatory research. For the social sciences, human nature is more complex than a simple yes or no. The chosen research design namely survey research falls within the wider categorisation of descriptive research. Salkind (2002) points out that descriptive research differs from explanatory research in that it describes the current state of a phenomenon and does not include a control group. The survey research method chosen for this study therefore enabled the researcher to achieve the purpose and objectives of the study.
4.2. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine to what extent female employees at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) are being mentored to develop their leadership potential. The specific aims of the empirical study were to:

- determine the extent to which female employees at the NMMU are mentored and to identify their mentoring needs,
- determine the extent to which employees believe that the culture at the NMMU is conducive to mentoring for female employees,
- identify groups and areas of concern where organisational procedures of group behaviour could negatively affect the implementation of a mentoring programme, and
- compile conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study.

4.3 RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

Beach and Alvager (1992) describe research as a methodical procedure of satisfying human curiosity. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005, p.2) ‘Research is a systematic process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are interested…we intentionally set out to enhance our understanding of a phenomenon.‘
There are many approaches to research methods. A method was selected which was most acceptable for the particular type of research study undertaken, to assess the need for a mentoring programme for females. The two methods that were considered are the **qualitative research method** and the **quantitative research method**.

According to Leedy (1997), the **qualitative research** approach places emphasis on describing and understanding the nature of the phenomena, and the result is tentative answers or hypotheses about what has been observed. Further quantitative studies can be based on these hypotheses. The most common qualitative research designs include case studies, grounded theory and historical research.

**Quantitative research** may be described in general terms as that approach to research in the social sciences, which is more highly formalised. According to Mouton and Marais (1990) quantitative research is more explicitly controlled within a range that is more exactly defined in terms of the methods used, and is relatively close to the physical sciences. It seeks to quantify human behaviour through numbers and observations. The emphasis is on precise measurement, the testing of hypotheses based on a sample of observations and a statistical analysis of the data recorded. Relationships among variables are described mathematically, and the subject matter is, as in the physical sciences, treated as an object (Mouton & Marais, 1990). Variables play a key role in quantitative research. Variables take on two or more values for example; gender is a variable that can take on either a male or female value.

A **quantitative research** design was used for the purpose of the study.
Quantitative research generates statistics through the use of large-scale survey research. Survey research is the method of gathering data from respondents thought to be representative of some population by using questions (open or closed ended). The survey approach has a range of methods and these include questionnaires and interviews. As with any method, there are advantages and disadvantages attached. The major disadvantages are a poor response rate and the lack of detail from the data being investigated.

The advantages include producing data based on observations; the ability to obtain data of a representative sample which can be generalised to a population; and the large amount of data that can be produced in a short space of time (Kelley, Vivienne Brown & Sitzia 2003). According to Swanson and Holton (2006) the survey is one of the most common methods used to conduct research in an organisation.

4.4 THE POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE

This section identifies and justifies the population and sampling method utilized in the empirical research. The selection of the sample and sample size are discussed.

4.4.1 The population
Researchers do not generally obtain data about entire populations, but instead select samples from populations (Swanson & Holton 2006). Castillo (2009) described population as the totality of all subjects that conform to a set of specifications. The population for the research survey must be carefully chosen and clearly defined. In addition, measurable or quantifiable limits must be determined in order to set distinct limits for the population.
Respondents had to meet the following criteria:

- Females who have been employed for longer than one year as well as those employed on a fixed term contract for longer than one year.

- Academic and administrative female personnel on the Peromnes grade levels seven to twelve.

The following personnel categories will, for the purpose of this research, be excluded:

- The Executive Management of NMMU,

- females staffed on a Peromnes grade level higher than a 12, and

- those in the temporary post structure of the NMMU.

The female population at NMMU at the time of the survey consisted of 1806 female employees. Patton (2002) asserts that the size of the sample is dependent on the objectives of the research. The outcome of the research depended on experiences and beliefs of women employed at the institution.

4.4.2 The sampling method

In social science research, there are two general approaches to sampling, namely probability and non-probability sampling. In probability samples, each member of the population has a known non-zero probability of being selected. Probability methods include random sampling, systematic sampling, and stratified sampling. In nonprobability sampling, members are selected from the population in some non-random manner. These include
convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling (Castillo, 2009).

According to Herek (2009), random sampling is the purest form of probability sampling. Patton (2002) contends that obtaining an unbiased sample is an important criterion when evaluating the adequacy of a sample. An unbiased sample is one in which every member of a population has an equal opportunity of being selected in the sample. Random sampling was used in this study to help ensure an unbiased sample population.

An invitation to participate in the research was extended to female employees. The decision to participate was up to the respondents. Completing the questionnaire implied tacit consent by the respondents.

4.4.3 The sample size

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2002, p.199) contends it is generally stated ‘the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of the population the sample needs to be’.

According to Neuman (2003), well executed sampling enables the researcher to measure variables on the smaller set of cases, and to generalize results accurately to all cases. De Vos et al. (2002) indicate a sample size of 30 adequate to adhere to statistical procedures. Research literature indicates that sample sizes of up to a minimum of 100 are regarded as statistically significant. Statistical requirements for the employment of factor analysis prescribe a minimum of 100 responses in order to be effective. This requirement forms the basis for the sample size. This is supported by Sekaran (2003) who contends that it is impossible to use an entire population or test something and applies the rule of thumb- sample sizes between 30 and 500.
It was envisaged to obtain at least 100 responses, to satisfy statistical requirements. 110 responses were received at the end of the 10 day period of running the survey.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

This section identifies and justifies the choice of the data collection instrument and technique utilized in the empirical research. The design and structure of the research instrument is outlined.

4.5.1 Research instrument

The researcher used a self-designed questionnaire for the purpose of data collection.

Radhakrishna (2007) defines a questionnaire as an instrument for gathering information about attitudes, knowledge, beliefs, ideas and feelings.

Sekaran (2003) suggests that questionnaires are an efficient data collection mechanism provided the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. Questionnaires can be administered personally, mailed or electronically distributed depending on the situation.

The questionnaire was designed to gather information about female employees’ knowledge, attitudes and beliefs regarding mentoring as a method to enhance leadership development. A literature study was done to comprehend the contexts of the concepts and to provide a theoretical framework for the design of the survey. The survey design was based on the major areas in the literature study- mentoring and the organisational culture. Participants completed the instrument electronically.
4.5.2 Administration of the questionnaire

Questionnaires, once ethics approval (H10 BES HR 03) had been obtained, were distributed to the sample population via e-mail. In order to elicit quick response and cooperation an accompanying letter from the promoter was attached. A period of ten days was allowed for the completion of the questionnaire. This was to ensure that the questionnaires would not be forgotten in the midst of pressing official business.

4.5.3 Questionnaire structure and design

According to Leedy (1997), researchers need to follow specific guidelines when using questionnaires as a tool in survey research. The construction of the questionnaire will be determined by a number of factors such as content, format, type, wording and order. According to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (1998) and Schnetler (1989), the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on data reliability. In view of this, questionnaires should be constructed according to certain principles.

These principles provided the basis for the design of the questionnaire to allow for anonymity, this permitted the respondents to freely express their views without the fear of victimisation. The covering letter of the questionnaire clearly indicated that all responses and feedback would be kept confidential.

Two basic question formats are used in survey research, namely, open and closed questions. If the question is designed to test the presence or absence of a particular behaviour, a closed question format is appropriate. Open format questions are used when the question is designed to test opinions and extent of knowledge.
A Likert-type rating scale with an unequal 1-5 agreement format was selected. There is an argument against having a mid-point being that people usually hold opinions or judgements one way or the other. The support for the idea of neutrality is that it represents a genuine alternative judgement and so does not express their opinions if they have no genuine position.

Subsequently, closed format questions were used throughout the questionnaire.

The questionnaire (see appendix A) was broken down into sections:

**Section A** which required demographical and biographical details containing information on gender, race, occupation, length of service, faculty or department where respondents work, and their job level.

**Section B** of the questionnaire comprised questions relating to knowledge of mentoring and perception of mentoring at NMMU.

**Section C** of the questionnaire comprised questions relating to the need to establish a mentoring programme at NMMU.

**Section D** of the questionnaire comprised questions relating to the perceptions, attitudes and views of the procedures and culture at NMMU.

**Section E** of the questionnaire comprised questions relating to perceptions regarding the benefits of mentoring.

The questionnaire concluded with an open ended question allowing participants to describe their unique perceptions, views, opinions and experiences in their own words.
4.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability and validity are two key components to be considered when evaluating a particular instrument. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) suggests that the validity and reliability of the researcher’s measurement instruments influence the extent to which one can learn something about the phenomenon being studied, the probability that statistical significance will be obtained in the data analysis and the extent to which the researcher can draw meaningful conclusions from the data. The definitions of validity and reliability follow.

4.6.1 Validity
According to Carrol (2009), validity refers to whether an instrument (in this case the questionnaire) actually measures what it is supposed to measure, given the context in which it is applied. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) assert that the measurement instruments provide a basis on which the entire research effort rests. Content validity refers to the extent to which a measurement is a representative sample of the content being measured. Construct validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed, but must be inferred from the patterns in people’s behaviour.

This study made use of content and construct validity where the implemented measurement instrument, being the questionnaire, required feedback from respondents based on their behaviours, skills, and motivators in their work environment. The content of the questionnaire required specific feedback on the employee’s perception of whether a formal mentoring programme will enhance female leadership development.
4.6.2 Reliability
Maher and Kur (1983) define reliability as the degree to which an instrument consistently measures what it measures. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) propose three ways to enhance the reliability of a measurement instrument:

- the instrument should always be administered in a consistent fashion thereby being standardised;

- to the extent that subjective judgements are required, specific criteria should be established that dictate the kinds of judgements the researcher makes; and

- research assistants who are using the instrument should be well trained so that they obtain similar results.

The questionnaire was given to a few staff members and a statistician to evaluate it for face and content validity as well as for conceptual clarity and investigative bias.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher considered the following ethical issues pertaining to the study so as to reassure the participants that the information would be treated anonymously and confidentially.

4.7.1 Permission to conduct the study
Permission to conduct the study was requested in writing from the authorities at the institution. Appendix B contains the request for permission and appendix C contains copies of letters granting permission to conduct the
study. Ethics approval for the electronic surveying of the sample was obtained by firstly applying to the Faculty RTI and secondly, obtaining ethics (human) approval for the research. The research was only undertaken after such permission had been granted and ethics number had been issued (H10 BES HR 03).

4.7.2 Informed consent
Participants were informed that participation was voluntary. They had a right to withdraw from the study at any time. The purpose of the study, data collection method and participation needed was explained.

4.7.3 Confidentiality
Confidentiality refers to the researcher’s management of private information shared by the participants (Burns & Grove, 2001). No participant could be linked to any completed questionnaire. Strict security protocols in the administration of electronic surveys as prescribed by Dr. Hilmer’s department were followed. The information from the completed questionnaire was used to generate frequencies and percentages and is discussed in the following chapter.

4.7.4 Anonymity
Anonymity can be described as ‘the degree to which the identity of a message source is unknown and unspecified; thus, the less knowledge one has about the source and the harder it is to specify who the source is among possible options, the more anonymity exists’ (Scott, 2005, p. 243).
4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Merriam (2002) defines data analysis as the process of making sense out of the data that has been collected. The data was coded and analysed with the assistance of a statistician and supervisor. The statistical techniques used in the analysis, based on the relevance to the research questions is frequency analysis; cross-tabulation analysis and correlation analyses. Frequency analysis produces frequency counts and percentages for the value of an individual variable. Cross tabulation enables researchers to see if there is a relationship between two variables, while correlation analysis was used to test the existence of relationships between the variables beings studied. The analyses and findings are discussed in more detail in chapter 5.

4.9. CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research methodology adopted to study the attitudes, feelings and the needs of females regarding mentoring as a leadership development strategy. The study design, population and sampling procedures were described. The data and data collection method was described. Chapter 5 will present the analysis and discussion of data obtained from the completed questionnaires completed. These results will be interpreted and discussed in the light of the literature review conducted in the study.
CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction  
5.2 Analysis and interpretation of results of Section A  
5.3 Section B: Mentoring at NMMU  
5.4 Section C: Mentoring needs at NMMU  
5.5 Section D: Influence of organisational culture  
5.6 Section E: Benefits of mentoring  
5.7 Relating dependent variables to independent variables  
  5.7.1 Chi-squared tests  
  5.7.2 T-tests and ANOVA tests  
5.8 Analysis of responses to the qualitative question  
5.9 Conclusion
CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the data analysis and interpretation of results. The empirical findings of the research project, data analysis and interpretation of results provide answers to sub-problems 3-5 which was to determine the following:

- Sub-problem 3: Does mentoring currently take place at the NMMU?
- Sub-problem 4: What are the mentoring needs of female employees at the NMMU?
- Sub-problem 5: To what extent is the culture at the NMMU conducive to mentoring female employees?

One hundred and ten respondents from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University participated in the study. The researcher collected data from the respondents using a structured survey, which had five sections:

- Section A: Demographic data
- Section B: Mentoring at NMMU
- Section C: Mentoring needs
- Section D: Influence of organisational culture
- Section E: Benefits of mentoring
The questions in Sections B - E were designed to survey the current state of mentoring at NMMU; the need for mentoring; whether the organisational culture is conducive to mentoring; and to determine respondents perceived benefits of mentoring.

Reporting on the results obtained from these sections will assist in resolving sub-problems two to five.

The findings from the sections are organized in tables in the same order as in the questionnaire. Dr Jacques Pietersen, from the Unit for Statistical Consultation at NMMU, analysed the data using the software package Statistica version 9.0. Descriptive and inferential statistics such as frequencies, tables, percentages and correlation tests were used in the data analysis and summaries. Relationships between variables were identified, using frequencies, chi-square t-test, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests. Respondents’ input on the open-ended question about a mentoring process is also provided.

5.2 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS OF SECTION A

This section reports on demographic data of the respondents who participated in the research. The demographic data collected covers various aspects such as years of employment, educational level, race classification, post level and managerial capacity. This enabled the researcher to get an understanding of the demographic composition of the respondents. The information was cross-tabulated to provide additional information on the respondents and to expand the analysis of their perceptions of mentoring. A summary of the results of the biographical information are presented in tables and graphs below.
Table 5.1:
Responses according to the number of years of employment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO OF YEARS</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5 years</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>71.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11+ years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 5.1:
Responses according to the number of years of employment

From Table 5.1 and Chart 5.1 it can be seen that the majority of the respondents (71.8%) have been employed between 0-5 years.
Table 5.2:
Responses according to the type of appointment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF APPOINTMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>72.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 reflects the breakdown between academic and administrative employment. The majority of the respondents (72.7%) are administrative appointments, which reflects the population of NMMU, where 67.1 percent of female appointments are administrative.

Table 5.3
Responses according to managerial level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.3 and chart 5.2 reflects the frequency of responses by managers and supervisors is reflected. The majority of the respondents (80.9%) were non-managerial employees.

Table 5.4:
Type of appointment: permanent/ contract employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF APPOINTMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>80.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.4 reflects that the majority of the respondents (80.9%) are permanent appointments whereas the remainder of the respondents are contract employees. This is reflective of the population of NMMU, where 94.2 percent of the female respondents are permanent appointments.
Table 5.5:
Qualification of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATIONS</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Certificate</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Diploma</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours Degree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 5.3:
Qualifications of respondents

Table 5.5 and chart 5.3 reflects the qualifications of the respondents. 49.1 percent of respondents have a post graduate qualification, while 34.5 percent have degrees and national diplomas.
Table 5.6:
Post level of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POST LEVEL</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 6-9</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 10-12</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 5.4:
Post level of respondents.

Table 5.6 and chart 5.4 indicates that the majority of the respondents (58.2%) are appointed on post level 6-9. This is reflective of the female population at NMMU, where 54.7 percent is appointed on level 6-9. This may also warrant the high level of post graduate qualifications of the respondents.
Table 5.7: 
Citizenship:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SA Citizen</th>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>99.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.7 reflects that 99.1 percent of the respondents are South African citizens.

Table 5.8: 
Responses according to race classification:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.7 and chart 5.4 reflects the breakdown of the respondents in terms of race. The majority of the respondents are white (54.5 %), which is reflective of the staff compliment at NMMU, where the majority (57 %) of the staff compliment is white. This in the researcher's opinion could influence perceptions of mentoring.

The above information was further analysed for significant differences in perceptions of mentoring according to the years of employment, the type of appointment, the level of employment and the race classification.
5.3 SECTION B: MENTORING AT NMMU

This section reports on the current state of mentoring at the NMMU. The section provides empirical data that answers sub-problem 3 (as stated in 5.1 Introduction of chapter) of the research project. Data relating to respondents involvement in mentoring, exposure to mentoring and leadership opportunities is provided.

Table 5.9:
Participation as a mentor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.9 reflects that the minority of the respondents (14.5%) have participated in mentoring as a mentor.

Table 5.10:
Participation as a mentee

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only a small percentage (12.7%) of the respondents, have participated in mentoring as a mentee, as reflected in Table 5.10.
From both table 5.9 and 5.10, which indicates low levels of involvement as mentors and mentees, it can be deduced that mentoring is not actively pursued as a strategy to develop female leadership skills. If on the other hand it is a strategy for leadership development, it is not devolved effectively to the lower graded female employees (grades 6 and lower).

Table 5.11:
Willingness to mentor:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 5.11 the frequency analysis shows that the majority (80.9 percent) responded positively to the willingness to mentor. Kunselman, Hensley and Tewksbury (2003) refer to this willingness to mentor others as ‘cascade mentoring’, where the benefits experienced by staff are then passed onto others, perpetuating a culture of mentoring.

In the following sections B-E respondents were asked to rate each of the statements using a Likert-type scale. For each item, respondents had to indicate whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were neutral, disagreed or strongly disagreed. Numerical values were assigned to enable quantitative analysis of the results. 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree and 5 = strongly disagree, was used.

Correlation and reliability analysis were employed to examine the structure of the correlations between the variables and to verify sets of common underlying dimensions within the different sections.
Reliability is defined as the degree to which measures are free from random error and the extent which measures provide stable consistent scores. The Cronbach coefficient alpha test was performed for the items that were theoretically expected to correlate with each other. A high alpha value - above 0.7, indicates that sample items correlate well within the domain of items it is supposed to measure.

In this research the Cronbach’s alpha values were computed for all constructs. The alpha values all surpass 0.7 levels, and are thus acceptable. (See appendix D).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mentoring is only effective when your supervisor/manager is involved</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mentoring is most effective when mentees select mentors</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>33.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The organisation creates opportunities for me to develop my leadership competencies</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I have sufficient opportunities for development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Female leadership development is important to me</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Female leadership development is important to the institution</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>62.7%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.12: Mentoring at NMMU
Table 5.12 and chart 5.6 contains the variables that test the perceptions of mentoring at NMMU. 50 percent of respondents agree that ‘mentoring is only effective when your supervisor/manager is involved’ while 45.5 percent of respondents agree that ‘mentoring is most effective when mentees select mentors.’ Studies have found no significant differences in outcomes of mentoring experiences when the mentor is a supervisor or non-supervisor (Burke et. al, 2006).

Respondents strongly agree that female leadership development is important to them (80 %), but significantly less agree that female leadership is important to the institution (62.7 %). However, when asked if they have
sufficient opportunities for leadership development and whether the organisation creates opportunities to develop leadership competencies, the majority of respondents disagree with 37.2 percent and 49% percent respectively.

This tends to support the earlier finding reported in this section that respondents do not believe that mentoring is pursued as a strategy for female leadership development at the NMMU.

Table 5.13:
Correlation analysis of Section B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Q2-5</th>
<th>Q2-6</th>
<th>Q2-7</th>
<th>Q2-8</th>
<th>Q2-9</th>
<th>Q2-10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q2-5</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2-6</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2-7</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2-8</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2-9</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2-10</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data was further analysed by using the Pearson correlation coefficient to determine the strength of the relationship between the variables in Section B. Only few correlation coefficients are significant at p<0.05 since these items are quite distinct in what they measure. Consequently, the responses to these items were not combined into a single measurement. Table 5.13 indicates these correlations.
5.4 SECTION C: MENTORING NEEDS AT NMMU

This section addresses sub-problem 4 of the research project. (See 5.1: Introduction). Respondents were asked to rate statements which were formulated to test the need for mentoring amongst respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 I have aspirations to move to the next job level</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>78.2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 I want to develop my potential and career</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>84.5%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 I would like to develop my leadership skills</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>85.5%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 I would like to participate in a formal mentoring programme</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>73.6%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 I would prefer a female mentor</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>49.1%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 There is a need for mentoring at NMMU</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>77.3%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 There are sufficient mentors at NMMU</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>55.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Mentoring is an effective approach for leadership development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>71.8%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aspirations of respondents are reflected in variables 1-4 of table 5.14. Respondents rated the statements positively. The aggregate average mean for these variables is 1.75. The majority of respondents (85.5 %) agree that they would like to develop their leadership skills.
Significantly, 49.1 percent of respondents chose to be neutral about preferring a female mentor with 32.7 percent preferring a 32.7% female mentor.

The majority of the respondents (77.3 %) agree that there is a need for mentoring at NMMU and 71. percent agree that mentoring is an effective approach for leadership development. 73.6 percent of respondents would like to participate in a formal mentoring programme despite the majority (55.5 %) disagreeing that there are sufficient mentors at NMMU.

Table 5.15:
Correlation analyses of Section C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Q3-1</th>
<th>Q3-2</th>
<th>Q3-3</th>
<th>Q3-4</th>
<th>Q3-5</th>
<th>Q3-6</th>
<th>Q3-7</th>
<th>Q3-8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q3-1</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-2</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-3</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-4</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-5</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-6</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-7</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3-8</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.15 reflects the strength of the relationship among the variables as measured by Pearson’s correlation coefficient. Variables 1-4 are combined as there are quite strong correlations between them, with p<0.05. These variables reflect the construct “aspirations of respondents”. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for this construct is 0.92
5.5: SECTION D: INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

This section answers sub-problem five of the research project (see section 5.1). As stated in chapter 3, a mentoring programme can only be effective in a supportive organisational culture. Respondents were asked to evaluate the culture at the NMMU.

Table 5.16: Influence of organisational culture:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees feel proud to be members of the institution</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>33.6%</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU supports female leadership development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
<td>47.3%</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture in my department supports development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU is conducive to mentoring</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU allows me to take responsibility for my own development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisational structure at NMMU facilitates mentoring</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication is open between job levels</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
<td>53.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are effective leaders within this institution</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMMU has a clear strategy for female leadership development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
<td>47.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.16 reflects the variables used to test the perceptions of the organisational support for female leadership development and the organisational culture.

Noteworthy is the respondents' neutral response (47.3%) to the statement ‘the culture at NMMU supports female leadership development’. Despite the neutral rating, 43.6 percent of respondents agree that the culture in their department supports development. 39.1 percent of respondents are neutral about the culture at NMMU supporting mentoring, while 44.5 percent are neutral about the organisational structure at NMMU facilitating mentoring. The majority of the respondents (54.5 %) feel that women are effective leaders in the institution, despite 47.3 percent indicating that there is no clear strategy for female leadership development. This correlates well with the perception that mentoring is not practiced at the NMMU.

53.6 percent of respondents disagreed that ‘communication is open between job levels’. This variable got the lowest rating with a mean of 3.56 and a standard deviation of 0.98 (see table 5.18).

The correlations among these items were computed. Tables 5.17 and 5.18 indicates the correlations between the two natural (based on the wording of the items) groupings of items. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for these two constructs is 0.73 and 0.82. This indicates that these constructs can safely be used in further analyses.
Table 5.17:
Correlation analysis of Section D (1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Q4-1</th>
<th>Q4-3</th>
<th>Q4-4</th>
<th>Q4-5</th>
<th>Q4-6</th>
<th>Q4-7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q4-1</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-3</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-4</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-5</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-6</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-7</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variables clustered together in Table 5.17 reflect the respondents’ perceptions of the organizational culture at the institution. The aggregate mean is 3.10 and aggregate standard deviation is 0.91. This reveals that respondents are neutral about the organizational culture.

Table 5.18:
Correlation analysis of Section D (2):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Q4-2</th>
<th>Q4-8</th>
<th>Q4-9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q4-2</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-8</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4-9</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variables clustered together in Table 5.18 reflect respondents’ perceptions regarding institutional support for female leadership development at the institution. The aggregate mean is 3.10 and the aggregate standard deviation is 1.04. This reveals that respondents are neutral about the support for female leadership development.
5.6 SECTION E: BENEFITS OF MENTORING

Literature reviews of mentoring espouse the benefits of mentoring to mentor, mentee and the organisation (chapter 3). Section E was formulated to test the perceptions of respondents regarding the benefits associated with a mentoring programme and whether mentoring is regarded as a viable strategy towards development and advancement.

Table 5.19:
Benefits of mentoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Improve job satisfaction</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Improve morale</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>87.3%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Provide opportunities for me to interact in a meaningful way</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>86.4%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Transfer institutional knowledge and values</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>85.4%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Improve networking opportunities</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>85.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Have a positive impact on my development</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>84.5%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Enable me to move to the next job level</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>75.5%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.19 indicates a high level of congruence among respondents with regard to the variables associated with benefits of a mentoring programme. The majority of the respondents agreed with all the variables. The aggregate mean is 1.80 with standard deviation 0.94, which reflects that respondents agree with all the benefits associated with a mentoring programme.
Table 5.20:
Correlation analysis of Section E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
<th>Q5-1</th>
<th>Q5-2</th>
<th>Q5-3</th>
<th>Q5-4</th>
<th>Q5-5</th>
<th>Q5-6</th>
<th>Q5-7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q5-1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-2</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-3</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-4</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-5</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-6</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5-7</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation coefficients among the items are shown in Table 5.20 above. All correlations are very strong, indicating that the items measure the same construct to a high degree. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this section is 0.96, which indicates a very high degree of internal reliability of this construct.

The participants in the study shared relatively consensual views with respect to the definition of mentoring, the purpose of mentoring, the roles of mentors and mentees, the benefits received by both parties and the importance of a mentoring programme.

In the following section number of years of employment, post level and qualification of respondents and mentoring needs and influence of organisational culture have been selected to test for variances in response to the questionnaire.
5.7: RELATING DEPENDENT VARIABLES TO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

In the next stage of the analysis, dependent variables were related to independent variables (demographic information). The variables were cross tabulated with the type of appointment, supervisory capacity, the qualifications of respondents and the post level of the respondents. Appendix E reflects the statistical significant finding with p<0.05.

5.7.1 Chi-squared tests

When the data for both variables is categorical of nature, use is made of chi-squared tests. Findings that indicate significant relationships will be discussed below.

- Number of years service and the willingness to mentor

Table 5.21:
Cross-tabulation and Chi-squared test of number of years service and willingness to mentor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Q1-1 0-5 years</th>
<th>Q2-4 Yes</th>
<th>Q2-4 No</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>75.95%</td>
<td>24.05%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>88.24%</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the yes-no proportions were different for the three levels of Q1-1, these differences were not statistically significant at the 5% level (Chi-squared=5.15; df=2; p=0.076). It does seem, however, that there is a
tendency for staff with more years of employment to be more willing to be a mentor.

In the case of a statistical significant finding (i.e. $p<0.05$), an effect size measure will also be provided since statistical significance cannot tell how important (in practice) the differences/relationships are. To get a feel for the importance (practical significance), use is made of effect size indices. In the case of cross-tabulations and chi-squared tests the effect size measure is Cramer’s $V$ and it is interpreted as follows ($k$ is the smaller of the number of rows or columns):

**Table 5.22:**
Cramer’s $V$ and effect size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Small</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Large</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$k = 1$</td>
<td>$0.10 &lt; V &lt; 0.30$</td>
<td>$0.30 \leq V &lt; 0.50$</td>
<td>$V \geq 0.50$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 2$</td>
<td>$0.07 &lt; V &lt; 0.21$</td>
<td>$0.21 \leq V &lt; 0.35$</td>
<td>$V \geq 0.35$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k \geq 3$</td>
<td>$0.06 &lt; V &lt; 0.17$</td>
<td>$0.17 \leq V &lt; 0.29$</td>
<td>$V \geq 0.29$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Number of years service and the selection of mentors.

Table 5.23:
Number of years of employment and mentoring is only effective when mentees select mentors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Q2-6n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-6n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-6n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5 years</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>36.71%</td>
<td>37.97%</td>
<td>25.32%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>78.57%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11+ years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row %</td>
<td>58.82%</td>
<td>29.41%</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variable that yielded a practical significant difference of medium size is ‘mentoring is only effective when mentees select mentors’. (Chi-squared = 10.15, df=4, p=.038). Effect size: Cramer’s V=0.21 (medium). The yes-no proportions were different for the three levels of the question.

It seems that there is a tendency for staff with a shorter period of employment to differ more in terms of their perceptions of the effectiveness of mentor selection.

5.7.2 T- Tests and ANOVA tests
T tests, ANOVA tests and Duncan tests were calculated to determine if significant differences existed between quantitative dependent variables constructed and the following biographical variables: 1) years of employment 2) academic and administrative employees, 3) educational qualifications and 4)race.
Analysis of variance compares the variance (variability in scores) between the different groups with the variability within each of the groups. ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of the length of employment on the quantitative constructed variables. The results reflect no statistically (at 5%) significant differences among the groups based on the length of employment. (See Appendix F)

T-tests were calculated to determine if significant differences existed between the quantitative variables constructed and:

- academic and administrative staff – the results indicated no significant differences; and

- qualifications – the results indicated no significant differences.
Table 5.24:
ANOVA results according to race groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative Variables Constructed</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std Dev</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirations</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Development</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org Culture</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANOVA was conducted to determine differences of the quantitative variables constructed and race groups. Statistically significant differences were reflected on aspirations and the benefits associated with mentoring as reflected in table 5.24

A post hoc test, the Duncan test was then conducted and this revealed that three race groups, namely Blacks, Coloureds and Whites rated similarly, but differed significantly from the Indian respondents. The scores of Indian respondents therefore reflect that they do not believe that their aspirations will be met by mentoring, nor will they derive any benefit. Responses from Blacks, Coloureds and White respondents indicate strong support in mentoring to meet all the variables – aspirations, leadership development and benefits.
5.8 ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO THE QUALITATIVE QUESTION.

Respondents were requested to give recommendations for the implementation of a mentoring programme. Overall, respondents agreed that the process was overdue and that it should be implemented and there were suggestions that mentoring become part of the institutional strategy.

A few of the comments from the survey:

Do more - it’s a good concept, but there is very little in place to help people who want to be involved in such programmes.

Develop a mentoring program that will enhance our female staff’s development.

Empower us as female staff with the right tools. Start mentoring as soon as possible.

A definite strategy needs to be developed and supported by the management structures especially focusing on female staff development.

All employees should have a formal strategy for development....mentoring should be part of this; hence a continuous development for the employee.

Mentoring should not be left to the mentor and mentee but organisational processes should support mentoring.

Any leadership mentoring program would benefit current or potential managers or supervisors at the NMMU at the moment.
Each department should have a structure mentoring plan.

I agree that a strategy should be put in place to enhance and nurture female leadership.

The majority of the comments reflect the lack of a strategy for female development. Strong support was reflected for the role mentoring could play as a strategy for female leadership development at the NMMU.

5.9 CONCLUSION

The data analysis presented in this chapter provides a basis for developing the conclusions and recommendations that follow in Chapter 5. Qualitative and quantitative information obtained from the questionnaire was presented.

Response patterns indicate the following:

- a general congruence towards leadership development;
- a willingness to participate in cross gender mentoring;
- a lack of open communication;
- a significant difference in perceptions of mentoring amongst race groups - the Indian race group does support mentoring; whilst other race groups (Black, White and Coloured) indicate a strong support for mentoring;
- a belief that strategies would be beneficial to the respondents’ career progress; and
• respondents feel there is a lack of strategy for female leadership development.

The next chapter will close with a synthesis of the findings, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter describes in detail the analysis and findings of the study. The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the study, to interpret the results of the study based on the set objectives, highlight the limitations, to draw conclusions and to make recommendations based on the findings.

6.2 SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to consider mentoring as a leadership development strategy for female employees at the NMMU. Chapter one introduced the research by outlining the main and sub problems, and demarcating the field of study. A review of the literature is presented in chapters two and three. Chapters four and five covered the research methodology and the analysis of the data collected.

In chapter two a review of gender and leadership was considered. The researcher reviewed the concept and implementation of equity legislation; perspectives of gender inequality and the barriers experienced by women. In addition, leadership styles of women and the challenge of leadership were explored. Research conducted on female leadership shows that women tend to have more transformational characteristics in their leadership style compared to men. The transformational style of leadership has been identified as most suited to change. However, the consultative nature of transformational leadership has been found to inhibit career progression of women and it serves to undermine their authority in organisations dominated by a stereotypical male leadership style.
For **chapter three**, the researcher reviewed mentoring. Topics covered included the history and development of mentoring; the impact of mentoring as a development process and the influence of organisational culture on a mentoring process. The literature review revealed mentoring as an effective strategy to enhance female leadership development. Ehrich (2008) contends that it is clear that mentoring can facilitate female development - career development or as a psycho-social function. South Africa still lags behind with mentoring, but it appears organisations are catching up. The introduction of a mentoring association which develops standards and guidelines for mentoring will help organisations with mentoring.

The finding from the literature review provided direction and a framework for the investigation of the present research as per **chapter four**. For the purposes of the research, a quantitative research design was used. It was chosen as a means to get a holistic understanding of experiences and perceptions of female employees relating to the concept of mentoring. Ethical approval for the use of the population group was approved by the Research and Ethics Committee - Human (H10 BES HR03). A self-administered questionnaire was developed and used as the data collection method. Once the data was collected, it was analysed with the assistance of the Unit for Statistical Consultation at NMMU.

The results of the data collected are presented in **chapter five**, followed by an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative sections of the questionnaire.
6.3 FINDINGS

The main problem of the study was to determine the extent to which females are mentored to develop their leadership potential at the NMMU. In order to answer the main problem, five sub-problems that each addressed key underlying factors were derived. This discussion will outline the findings pertaining to each of the sub-problems as stated in chapter one

6.3.1 Mentoring

The aim of the first sub-problem was to conduct a literature study to gain an understanding of mentoring.

Despite more than twenty years research on mentoring, numerous definitions of mentoring exist. The definitions are characterized by the following:

- mentoring plays an important role in the development of an individual’s character, knowledge and skills;
- mentoring supports and challenges both mentor and mentee;
- mentor and mentee must be willing and available to participate;
- it is a reciprocal, developmental relationship for both the mentor and the mentee;
- it can be formal or informal; and
- it is a process - not an outcome.
The findings suggest that mentoring is about understanding, empathy, guiding and helping. Mentoring involves providing a safe space that the mentors and mentees are comfortable in and supports and challenges both the mentors and mentees.

A mentoring relationship provides various functions (section 3.2). Bhatta and Washington (2003) and Flouri and Buchanan (2002) specifically focused on women and highlighted the career and psycho-social support mentoring provided. Findings suggest that women found mentoring crucial for their career advancement as it provided support and networking opportunities. The finding is of equal significance to the mentoring needs at the NMMU.

Mentoring is a process that needs to be formalised, planned and properly implemented for it to be considered an effective leadership development strategy (see Chapter 3 - Berry’s theoretical model of mentoring). The study indicated strong support (73.6%) for a formalised mentoring process at the NMMU. Mentoring satisfies the need for continuous, integrated and supported learning in a way that is beneficial to both the employee and the organisation.

6.3.2 Organisational culture.

The aim of sub-problem two was to conduct a literature study to identify how culture influences employee behaviours, assumptions, beliefs and communication.

Organisation culture encompasses patterns of interaction among individuals at formal and informal levels. The literature review reveals that mentoring requires organisational support to enable mentoring to be effective (Section 3.7). Mentoring needs structural integration and commitment from senior management. The culture in many companies does not recognise the
development of females as crucial to the success of the company and this could be interpreted as gender bias towards females (Reinhold, 2005). Galbraith and Cohen (1995) contend that organisations need to develop a vision for mentoring to transform their practices to make them congruent within a diverse South Africa. These findings are particularly relevant to the mentoring needs established at the NMMU, where no formal mentoring policy currently exists.

Research on a mentoring culture has highlighted communication as an important hallmark to ensure successful implementation. Open communication ensures successful implementation as all understand what mentoring is, and how to get involved in it. Two-way communication also reveals what is working and what is not, enabling improvements (Zachary, 2005). Respondents are negative about open communication at NMMU. 53.6 percent (n=59) of respondents disagreed that communication is open between job levels. Promoting an organisational culture where there is open communication is therefore an important determinant in creating a suitable sustainable climate for mentoring at the NMMU. How individuals communicate within a culture affects how they act on performance feedback and subsequently pursue leadership development (Kowkse & Anthony, 2007).

6.3.3 Mentoring needs
The aim of sub-problems 3 and 4 was to conduct an empirical study to determine the extent to which female employees at the NMMU are mentored and to identify their mentoring needs.

The research answered this question by concluding that mentoring takes place on a very small scale. Data analysis reveals that a small percentage 14.5 percent (n=16) have participated in a mentoring programme as a
mentor, while only 12.7 percent (n=14) have participated in a mentoring programme as a mentee at NMMU.

Analysis of the data also reveals that the majority of respondents 73.6 percent (n=81) would like to participate in a formal mentoring programme, whilst 77.3 percent (n=85) agree that there is a need for mentoring at NMMU. This is consistent with research that indicates women reported mentoring as a key component of professional support and advancement.

An observation that deserves reflection is respondents’ willingness to participate in cross gender mentoring - the majority (49.1%, n=54) of respondents were ambivalent about a female mentor. Research about cross gender mentoring is very inconclusive, some research supporting it and others not. The institution is still very male dominated and the willingness to participate in cross gender mentoring can be attributed to this. One could infer that respondents are willing to engage in cross gender mentoring to ensure their professional development.

A statistically significant difference regarding the benefits associated with mentoring was found amongst the race groups. White, Coloured, and Black respondents showed a high level of congruence towards the benefits associated with a mentoring programme, whilst Indians did not.

**6.3.4 Culture at the NMMU**

The aim of sub-problem 5 was to conduct an empirical study to determine the extent to which the culture at the NMMU is conducive to mentoring female employees.

The research study has answered this question. Data analysis reveals that the majority of the respondents (39.1 %) are neutral and 34.5 percent
disagree that the culture at NMMU is conducive to mentoring.

This could be attributed to the fact that the majority of the respondents (45.5%, n=50) feel that the culture at NMMU allows them to take responsibility for their own development and that 47.3 percent of respondents agree that there is no clear strategy for female leadership development.

This is supported by feedback from the quantitative question, which reflects the way respondents feel about the culture at NMMU:

*The current structure of NMMU is not conducive to women development.*

*Currently the culture is selfish and NOT developmental by nature.*

*Promotion of individuals at the NMMU does not take into account leadership qualities.*

*There are females who have the ability to be leaders within the institution, but are not given the opportunity.*

This ties in with what literature has revealed about organisational culture- it is people’s views, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of how things are done. Research has revealed that culture has a pervasive influence over all relationships and mentoring requires a culture to support its implementation to fully integrate it into the organisation.

Section 3.7 suggests that mentoring needs to be in line with and supportive of the existing culture of an organisation to be successful. Strong negative perceptions about the effectiveness of female leadership and females can
impact on opportunities for female managers to advance in their career. Research suggests that national culture manifests itself in the values, attitudes and behaviours of people. Cultural influences are therefore likely to impact on the way women and men behave in the workplace.

6.4 OBJECTIVES

Literature reviews and empirical research that underpins the objectives of this study as stated in section 1.2 has enabled the researcher to answer the sub-problems (see section 6.3). Despite limitations in the study, the research process was planned and conducted vigilantly to achieve the best answers to the research questions. The researcher is satisfied that all objectives have been met.

6.5 LIMITATIONS

The findings and conclusions developed in this empirical study are based on data collected from research participants in one higher educational institution in Port Elizabeth. It is likely that the findings are representative because the sample size is relatively large and is comprised of administrative and academic staff in different post levels.

There are limitations with broader generalization as the research was concerned with one organisation with a unique organisational culture. It is not known what the implications are for other organisations.
6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made in light of the research findings and the discussion of these findings. These findings are directed towards management and females at tertiary institutions and employee development practitioners. It is also intended as a stimulus for further research.

6.6.1 Managerial implications:

The increasing number of women in tertiary institutions has brought forward the issue of female leadership development. The contribution of this study is to provide an understanding of mentoring, and the needs of female employees at the NMMU. Based on the data analysis, the following should be considered:

- implementing mentoring as a strategy to enhance female leadership development;

- mentoring form part of an organisational strategy to ensure success and buy in;

- a formal mentoring process be followed;

- mentoring be accessible for all levels of employees;

- mentor selection - results show that females at NMMU do not necessarily have to have a female mentor;

- a planned matching process between mentor and mentee be arranged and facilitated by the organisation ; and

- a conducive organisational culture focusing on providing more open communication should be developed.
6.6.2 Future research
This research could be expanded to other sectors and or tertiary institutions where the level of females at managerial level is limited. The similarities and differences of the results can act as a comparison to judge if the same or different aspects influences work practices. It is also recommended that more in-depth evaluation on the influence of organisational culture on formal mentoring programmes within academic institutions be conducted as research has indicated that the culture of an organisation is central to the success of a mentoring programme.

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this research was to determine the need for mentoring as a strategy to enhance female leadership development at NMMU. The research has revealed that the respondents view mentoring as a necessity to allow females to enhance and improve development opportunities.

Avolio (2005) suggested that there are differences in outcomes of leadership development for humans. The same event does not necessarily produce the same outcomes. ‘How meaning is attached to significant life events and then what we do with that meaning determines what we learn and incorporate into our own development potential’ (Avolio, 2005,p16).

Key advantages of mentoring as described by Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) is its integrated approach for development, the continuous self managed learning and that it inspires employees to consistently perform.

Mentoring is a powerful strategy for developing female employees. Research has confirmed that for the past two decades mentoring may help women reach the highest positions of leadership within their organisation.
Gibson (2004) suggests that mentoring for women in the higher education context should be considered as critical to initiatives to assist women in gaining access to networks and organisational systems that are required for success.

‘Organisations that are able to survive and compete in the ever-changing marketplace will be those that have proactively and strategically prepared themselves for future challenges through effective leadership development programs, practices, and systems, keeping women in the planning foremost’ (Leskiw & Singh, 2007, p463). Organisations need to question their readiness to accept this challenge. By designing mentoring programs to assist females with historic struggles, it can provide an opportunity for a copasetic environment in institutions of higher education.

Kathy Kram (1985, p2) suggests one of the fundamental components of mentoring: ‘It occurs in an organisational context that greatly influences when and how it unfolds’.

Persistent cultural, organisational and leadership issues continue to limit female representation at senior levels in companies in South Africa. An accurate understanding of organisational culture is necessary to direct activities in a productive way. It is evident from the study that employees perceived some aspects of organisational culture more positively than others. Aspects perceived negatively relates to the communication, policies and opportunities for development within the organisation, which may warrant further investigation and development activities for managers.
If managers do not identify mentoring as a career advancement strategy to increase the number of women in leadership positions in the institution, this may present a continued barrier for women. Such policies and practices can serve to engender an inclusive and equitable climate within universities for women and need more transparent processes and organisational structures to overcome institutional discrimination (Benschop & Brouns, 2003; Rasheed & Sinha, 2002).

To retain a high quality female of employees, organisations must strive to ensure that women have the same access as men to challenging assignments, training and development opportunities.

Parsloe sums it up with the following:

‘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.'
REFERENCES


Delport, R. (2003, 20 August). There are no short cuts *Finance Week.*


Knight, P.T. & Trowler, P.R. (1999). It takes a village to raise a child: Mentoring and the socialisation of new entrants to the academic professions. *Mentoring & Tutoring, 7*(1), 23-34.


APPENDIX A:
Mentoring needs survey

Invitation to participate in research

I am conducting a research study for a master's thesis investigating mentoring as a strategy to enhance female leadership development. I am seeking participation from current female employees at NMMU placed in post levels 7-12. Female participants need to be employed permanently or on a fixed term contract. There will be no cost involved in participating in this research. All responses will be anonymous and confidential. The questionnaire has received ethics approval (H10 BES HR 03) and complies with all the security protocols required for electronic surveys. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Should you have any questions regarding completing the survey you may contact me or my promoter – Dr Paul Poisat at 041 504 3750.

To take the on-line survey, go to:

http://websurvey.nmmu.ac.za/q.asp?sid=237&k=sqoolqipwtk

I look forward to your participation in the study.

Regards

Deidre Potgieter
Mentoring needs survey

Section A: Biographical data
1. How long have you been employed at the institution ○ 0-5 years ○ 6-10 years ○ 11+ years

2. What is your position? ○ Academic ○ Administrative

3. Are you a Supervisor/Manager ○ Yes ○ No

4. Are you employed ○ permanently ○ on contract

5. What is your educational qualification: ○ Senior Certificate ○ National Diploma ○ Degree ○ Honours ○ Masters ○ Doctorate

6. What is your post level: ○ 7-9 ○ 10-12

7. Are you South African ○ Yes ○ No

8. What is your race classification ○ Black ○ Coloured ○ White ○ Indian ○ Chinese

Section B: Mentoring at NMMU

9. I have participated as a mentor in a mentoring programme at NMMU ○ Yes ○ No

10. I have participated as a mentee in a mentoring programme at NMMU ○ Yes ○ No

11. Would you be prepared to be a mentor? ○ Yes ○ No
Please answer the following statements using the scale to the right. 
INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION B: MENTORING AT NMMU</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring is only effective when your supervisor/ manager is involved</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mentoring is most effective when mentees select mentors</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>The organisation creates opportunities for me to develop my leadership competencies</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have sufficient opportunities for development</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female leadership development is important to me</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female leadership development is important to the institution</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION C: MENTORING NEEDS AT NMMU</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have aspirations to move to the next job level</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<td>I want to develop my potential and career</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<td>I would like to develop my leadership skills</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<td>I would like to participate in a formal mentoring programme</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>I would prefer a female mentor</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>There is a need for mentoring at NMMU</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>There are sufficient mentors at NMMU</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mentoring is an effective approach for leadership development</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION D: INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE</th>
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<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees feel proud to be members of the institution</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU supports female leadership development</td>
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<td>The culture in my department supports development</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU is conducive to mentoring</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>The culture at NMMU allows me to take responsibility for my own development</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>The organisational structure at NMMU facilitates mentoring</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication is open between job levels</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women are effective leaders within this institution</td>
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<tr>
<td>NMMU has a clear strategy for female leadership development</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION E: BENEFITS OF MENTORING</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participating in a mentoring programme will:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Improve job satisfaction</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improve morale</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide opportunities for me to interact in a meaningful way</td>
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<td>Transfer institutional knowledge and values</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improve networking opportunities</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
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<tr>
<td>Have a positive impact on my development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enable me to move to the next job level</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
What are your suggestions for a mentoring process at NMMU?
APPENDIX B:
REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH

RESEARCH PROPOSAL IN PREPARATION FOR A MASTER’S DISSERTATION / DOCTORAL THESIS WITH THE TITLE:

Mentoring as a strategy to develop leadership potential of female employees

PERSONAL DETAILS

NAME OF CANDIDATE: Deidre Potgieter

STUDENT NUMBER: 192046110

DEGREE: Magister Technologiae (Human Resources Management)

DEPARTMENT: Human Resource Management

DATE: …13 May 2009…………… SIGNATURE:

...........................................................

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Comments:
APPENDIX C:
LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH:

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RESOLVED to RECOMMEND that the proposal be accepted. It was NOTED that this proposal required no further Ethics approval. The following comments were made:

- There should be a clear time frame.
### APPENDIX D:
**CRONBACH’S ALPHA CO-EFFICIENTS**

Reliabilities

Summary for scale: Mean=7.00909 Std.Dv.=4.18493 Valid N:110 (Survey results.sta)
Cronbach alpha: .919680 Standardized alpha: .920345 Average inter-item corr.: .757547

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Summary for scale: Mean=9.30909 Std.Dv.=2.54769 Valid N:110 (Survey results.sta)
Cronbach alpha: .733925 Standardized alpha: .744133 Average inter-item corr.: .494194

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Summary for scale: Mean=18.5909 Std.Dv.=4.72801 Valid N:110 (Survey results.sta)
Cronbach alpha: .818225 Standardized alpha: .820930 Average inter-item corr.: .441145

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Cronbach alpha: .961650 Standardized alpha: .963242 Average inter-item corr.: .808197

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### APPENDIX E:
CROSS TABULATIONS

**Section B items cross-tabulated with Q1-1:**

#### 2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

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Pearson Chi-square: 2.49538, df=4, p=.645465

#### 2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

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Pearson Chi-square: 10.1491, df=4, p=.037996
Effect size: Cramer's V=0.21 (Medium)

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Pearson Chi-square: 2.09753, df=4, p=.717827

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Pearson Chi-square: 4.81939, df=4, p=.306344
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Pearson Chi-square: 3.28961, df=4, p=.510583

## 2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

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### Section B items cross-tabulated with Q1-2:

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Pearson Chi-square: 2.93445, df=2, p=.230569

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Pearson Chi-square: .899163, df=2, p=.637896
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Pearson Chi-square: .100252, df=2, p=.951110

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<td>38.75%</td>
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<td>41</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: .560613, df=2, p=.755553

<table>
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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table: Q1-2(2) x Q2-9n(3)</td>
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<th>Q2-9n Disagree</th>
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<td>11</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 3.66667, df=2, p=.159885

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Pearson Chi-square: .489885, df=2, p=.782750
Section B items cross-tabulated with Q1-3:

### Summary Frequency Table

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<table>
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<th>Row Percent</th>
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</thead>
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</tr>
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<td>32</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 2.94931, df=2, p=.228863

### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-3(2) x Q2-6n(3)**

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<th>Q2-6n Disagree</th>
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<th>Row Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>28.57%</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>34.83%</td>
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<td>22.47%</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 1.52261, df=2, p=.467060

### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-3(2) x Q2-7n(3)**

<table>
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<th>Q2-7n Disagree</th>
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<th>Row Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>33.33%</td>
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<td>89</td>
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<td>21.35%</td>
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<td>47.19%</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 2.71977, df=2, p=.256695

### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-3(2) x Q2-8n(3)**

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<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>42.86%</td>
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<td>All Grps</td>
<td>38</td>
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<td>41</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 2.77885, df=2, p=.249223
### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-3(2) x Q2-9n(3)**

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<td>11</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 2.95746, df=2, p=.227931

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### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-3(2) x Q2-10n(3)**

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<th>Row Totals</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>69</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: .768832, df=2, p=.680849

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**Section B items cross-tabulated with Q1-5:**

### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-5n(3)**

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<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>56</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Hon/M/D</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All Grps</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 3.68116, df=2, p=.158731

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### Summary Frequency Table

**Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-6n(3)**

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<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hon/M/D</strong></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
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<td>37</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>110</td>
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</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 2.37570, df=2, p=.304880
### Summary Frequency Table

Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-7n(3)

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<td>56</td>
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<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>110</td>
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<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>29.63%</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: .598488, df=2, p=.741379

### Summary Frequency Table

Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-8n(3)

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<tr>
<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>110</td>
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<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: .215478, df=2, p=.897862

### Summary Frequency Table

Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-9n(3)

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<th>Q2-9n Disagree</th>
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<td>56</td>
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<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>110</td>
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</tbody>
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<th>Count</th>
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Pearson Chi-square: .918485, df=2, p=.631763

### Summary Frequency Table

Table: Q1-5n(2) x Q2-10n(3)

<table>
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<th>Row Totals</th>
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<td>10</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Grps</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Row Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sr Cert/N Dip/Degree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>62.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hon/M/D</td>
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<td>62.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>62.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Pearson Chi-square: .225823, df=2, p=.893230
Section B items cross-tabulated with Q1-6:

### Summary Frequency Table
**Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-5n(3)**

<table>
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<th>Q2-5n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-5n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-5n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<td>31.25%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>56.52%</td>
<td>17.39%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 1.38572, df=2, p=.500146

### Summary Frequency Table
**Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-6n(3)**

<table>
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<th>Q1-6</th>
<th>Q2-6n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-6n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-6n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Count</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10 - 12</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
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<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>36.96%</td>
<td>39.13%</td>
<td>23.91%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>23</td>
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Pearson Chi-square: 2.30682, df=2, p=.315563

### Summary Frequency Table
**Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-7n(3)**

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<th>Q1-6</th>
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<th>Q2-7n Disagree</th>
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<td>Count</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
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<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>29.69%</td>
<td>28.13%</td>
<td>42.19%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10 - 12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>32.61%</td>
<td>19.57%</td>
<td>47.83%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 1.06382, df=2, p=.587482

### Summary Frequency Table
**Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-8n(3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1-6</th>
<th>Q2-8n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-8n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-8n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
<td>32.81%</td>
<td>35.94%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10 - 12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>39.13%</td>
<td>21.74%</td>
<td>39.13%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>All Grps</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 1.71881, df=2, p=.423416
### Summary Frequency Table
Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-9n(3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Q1-6</th>
<th>Q2-9n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-9n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-9n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<td>7.81%</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10 - 12</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<td>13.04%</td>
<td>15.22%</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>All Grps</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 3.55893, df=2, p=.168733

### Summary Frequency Table
Table: Q1-6(2) x Q2-10n(3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Q1-6</th>
<th>Q2-10n Agree</th>
<th>Q2-10n Neutral</th>
<th>Q2-10n Disagree</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>7 - 9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>64.06%</td>
<td>20.31%</td>
<td>15.63%</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10 - 12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>60.87%</td>
<td>15.22%</td>
<td>23.91%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>All Grps</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson Chi-square: 1.38862, df=2, p=.499421
APPENDIX F:
ANOVA RESULTS

ANOVA results according to number of years of service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative Variables Constructed</th>
<th>0-5 years</th>
<th>6-10 years</th>
<th>11+ years</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std Dev</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirations</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Development</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org Culture</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>