

How mentorship is perceived to contribute to the well-being of an employee in an explosives manufacturing organisation

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SYNOPSIS

Key words: Mentorship, Mentee, Mentor, Well-being, Leadership, Holistic development, Mentoring leader, Transformational leadership and Return on investment (ROI)

The title of the research is “How mentorship is perceived to contribute to the well-being of an employee in an explosives manufacturing organisation”. This research was conducted within AEL Mining Services, an explosives manufacturing organisation that is part of the AECI group of companies.

The object of the research was to gain a better understanding of the association between mentorship and well-being, based on how the experience is perceived by the employee that was either part or not part of such a program, be it formal or informal.

During the literature study authors such as Keating (2012:91), Govender and Parumasur (2010:2) and Masango (2011:1) felt very strongly that mentorship begins on the day of birth and continues throughout one’s entire life where competencies in the mentor role entail understanding self and others, communicating effectively and developing employees and it is clear that great leaders would not have achieved their full potential without effective mentoring. During the literature study it was also found that advantages as well as disadvantage are linked to mentorship, but that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Research identifies the need for sustainable development and although a variety of mentorship models exist that are currently used, it is evident that mentorship does have an impact on whoever is subjected to it.

The study adopted a quantitative methodology, in which more than one questionnaire was utilised. Mentorship was identified as the independent variable and well-being as the dependent variable. For this study, the respondents were required to disclose geographical

information concerning themselves and in addition to this, the Mental Health Continuum and General Health Questionnaire was utilised in order to determine the level of well-being as perceived by the respondents, based on mentorship or the lack thereof.

The Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University determined the statistical methods and procedures for the analyses of the research. Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) make it clear that in many cases it is important to know whether a relationship between two variables is practically significant. The research made use of triangulation where Gratton and Jones (2010:121) propose that triangulation can strengthen the validity of research, and is useful as a means to demonstrate trustworthiness in the analysis.

Based on the results generated from the statistical analysis, the mentored group has a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than the non-mentored group. The deduction is thus made that with mentorship there is a significant difference in the overall well-being of an employee that was subjected to such a program.

Recommendations were made regarding further research that needs to be conducted, in which a mentorship program is tailored for a specific company/organisation within the explosives manufacturing industry, then implemented and the results of it measured over a period of time.

SINOPSIS

Sleutelwoorde: Mentorskap, Mentee, Mentor, Welstand, Leierskap, Holistiese ontwikkeling, Mentorskapleier, Transformasionele leierskap en Opbrengs op belegging (OOB)

Die titel van die navorsing is "Hoe mentorskap beskou word om by te dra tot die welstand van 'n werknemer in 'n plofstofvervaardigingsorganisasie". Hierdie navorsing is uitgevoer binne AEL Mining Services, 'n plofstofvervaardigingsorganisasie wat deel uitmaak van die AECI-groep van maatskappye

Die doel van die navorsing was om 'n beter begrip van die verband tussen mentorskap en welstand te verky, gebaseer op hoe die ervaring waargeneem is deur die werknemer wat of deel van so 'n program uitgemaak het, of nie, hetsy formeel of informeel.

Tydens die literatuurstudie het skrywers soos Keating (2012:91), Govender en Parumasur (2010:2) en Masango (2011:1) baie sterk gevoel in hul mening dat mentorskap op die dag van geboorte begin enregdeur 'n mens se hele lewe voort gesit word. Vaardighede in die mentor-rol behels begrip van jouself en ander, om doeltreffend te kommunikeer en die ontwikkeling van werknemers, en dit is duidelik dat goeie leiers nie hul volle potensiaal sou bereik het sonder effektiwe mentorskap nie. Tydens die literatuurstudie is ook bevind dat daar voordele sowel as nadele aan mentorskap gekoppel is, maar dat die voordele swaarder weeg as die nadele. Navorsing identifiseer die behoefte aan volhoubare ontwikkeling en hoewel daar 'n verskeidenheid mentorskapmodelle bestaan wat tans gebruik word, is dit duidelik dat mentorskap wel 'n daadwerklike impak het op elkeen wat daaraan onderwerp word.

Die studie het 'n kwantitatiewe metode gevolg, waarin meer as een vraelys aangewend is. Mentorskap is geïdentifiseer as die onafhanklike veranderlike en welstand as die

afhanklike veranderlike. Vir hierdie studie is die respondente versoek om geografiese inligting oor hulleself te verstrek,. Bykomend hiertoe is die Geestesgesondheid Kontinuum (Mental Health Continuum) en Algemene Gesondheid Vraelys (General Health Questionnaire) benut ten einde die vlak van welstand soos ervaar deur die respondent te bepaal, gebaseer op mentorskap of die gebrek daaraan.

Die Statistiese Konsultasiediens van die Noordwes-Universiteit het die statistiese metodes en prosedures vir die ontleding van die navorsing bepaal. Ellis en Steyn (2003:51-53) is dit eens dat dit in baie gevalle belangrik is om te weet of 'n verhouding tussen twee veranderlikes prakties betekenisvol is. Die navorsing het gebruik gemaak van triangulasie waar Gratton en Jones (2010:121) van mening is dat triangulering die geldigheid van die navorsing kan versterk en nuttig is as 'n manier om betroubaarheid in die analise te demonstreer .

Gebaseer op die resultate wat uit die statistiese analise gegenereer is, is dit duidelik dat die mentorskapprogram-groep, 'n beter algehele toestand van gesondheid en sielkundige welstand ten toonstel as die nie-mentorskapprogram-groep. Die afleiding word dus gemaak dat daar met mentorskap 'n beduidende verskil voorkom ten opsigte van die algehele welstand van 'n werknemer wat aan so 'n program blootgestel was/is.

Aanbevelings is gemaak ten opsigte van verdere navorsing waarin 'n mentorskapprogram, wat maatskappy-/organisasie-spesifiek is, binne die plofstof vervaardigingsbedryf ontwerp behoort te word. Dit moet dan geïmplementeer word en die resultate wat dit oplewer, moet oor 'n tydperk heen gemeet word.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide an overview of the research study as well as the research process followed during the study. Reference will also be made to the data analysis approach as well as the expected contribution this study will make to the current literature. Finally a brief breakdown of the chapters in this study will be provided.

If development is a key driver for organizational business performance, mentoring should move towards the centre of the development strategy (Hattingh, Coetzee & Schreuder, 2005:47). Sydänmaanlakka (2003:90) postulates that any organisation that wishes to stay on par with, or ahead of, peer advancement, needs new competencies. May (1999:337) accedes in saying that organisations have to re-structure frequently to meet increasingly changing conditions and, depending on an organization's business, managers will need competencies such as negotiating skills, leadership and creative thinking.

Bozeman and Feeney (2007:17) define mentoring as a process for the informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and psychosocial support perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development. Mentoring entails informal communication, usually face-to-face and during a sustained period of time, between a person who is perceived to have greater relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person who is perceived to have less (the mentee) (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:17). Mentoring is an inclusive, confidential relationship between two people that have mutual personal growth and corporate success as common goals (Brown, 1990, cited in Hattingh *et al.*, 2005:41).

Research by Ragins (1995:91-132) and Donaldson, Ensher and Grant-Vallone (2000:233) has shown that mentors advance a mentee's career by providing emotional support and

confidence, suggesting useful strategies for achieving work objectives. Providing opportunities for the mentee to demonstrate competence and bringing the mentee to the attention of top management could impact their careers positively (Ragins, 1995:91-132; Donaldson *et al.* (2000:233). The mentoring process thus involves transferring specific knowledge from the mentor to the mentee (Hendrikse, 2003, cited in Janse van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005:10-19).

Abbott, Goosen and Coetzee (2010:1) advocate that there is a high degree of interest in mentoring in South Africa, where there is great need for accelerated individual development as well as for various types of societal and community development, especially with the high incidence of unemployment in the country. The findings by Statistics SA (2010) support the afore-mentioned point of view. Gilmore, Coetzee and Schreuder (2005:27) found, in research done on mentoring in a South African mining company, that both mentors and mentees tend to prefer informal mentoring relationships. With the findings of the study, Gilmore *et al.* (2005:31) suggests that factors contributing to the emotional outcomes of the mentoring relationship also improved the perceived quality of the relationship and, they also note, that a formal structure is essential because it provides meaning and direction for relationships and support when necessary.

1.2 Orientation and motivation for this study

1.2.1 Orientation of the study

Subsequently, this study will focus on the association between mentorship and the well-being of a group of employees within an explosives manufacturing organisation in the mining industry of South Africa.

1.2.2 Motivation for this study

The aim of this study is to obtain a better understanding of the literature where the association between mentorship and well-being is investigated based on how the

experience is or was perceived by the employee that was either part or not part of such a program, be it formal or informal.

Bozeman and Feeney (2007:17) view mentoring as an informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and psychosocial support. This transmission may be perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:17). Mentoring entails informal communication that is usually face-to-face and over a sustained period of time, between an individual that needs more relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentee) and an individual that is perceived to possess the necessary skills (the mentor) (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007:17). Rodenhauser, Rudisill and Dvorak (2000:17) presupposes that a mentor must understand the stresses and excitement about the mentee's development and he/she must show an active interest in all phases of the mentee's life and career.

Several studies by Blickle, Witzki and Schneider (2009:188), Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz and Lima (2004:127) and Allen, McManus and Russel (1999:453) have identified the benefits mentees gather, whilst studies by Banschbach (2008:175) have in turn focussed on benefits the mentor attains. Meyer (2007:78) has alluded to the benefits that accrue to the organisation itself. Tenenbaum, Crosby and Gliner (2001:338) identified the benefits of mentoring to mentors, their organisation as well as mentees.

Blickle *et al.* (2009:188) and Allen *et al.*, (2004:127) found that employees with mentors reported higher levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment as well as objective career success. In addition, mentors receive abundant gratification from observing the achievements of their mentees (Banschbach, 2008:175).

In contrast, Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent (2004:529) postulate that many of the problematic outcomes experienced by mentors and mentees were similar across the education, business and medical reviews. A lack of time was the most commonly noted problem by mentors in the business and medical studies (Ehrich *et al.*, 2004:529). The next most frequently cited were negative mentee attitude, lack of trust and cooperation, and little training or little knowledge of the goals of the program (Ehrich *et al.*, 2004:529). The extra

burden or responsibility mentoring created for mentors was also identified as problematic by Ehrich *et al.* (2004:529).

Since mentoring is a form of human development, it is taking on employment challenges (Kingdon & Knight, 2007:69-90). Currently, a major concern in South Africa is the availability of employment (Statistics SA, 2010). According to Kingdon and Knight (2007:69-90), focused skills development is most beneficial to human development. Consequently, it is of importance for economic growth in South Africa to be proactive in taking on unemployment by means of human development initiatives, such as mentoring programmes.

Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz (2008:353) found that the majority of research on mentorship was based on samples in the United States. As globalisation is affecting all aspects of work within an organisation; mentoring relationships probably are no exception (Allen *et al.*, 2008:353). As a result, this study aims to get a better understanding of the literature by investigating the association between mentorship and mental health in a South African population.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Sub-Saharan African countries, such as South Africa, are constantly challenged by low levels of human development that tend to constrain economic growth potential (Ranis, Stewart & Ramirez, 2000:204). In addition, as the majority of mentorship research is based on United States samples, the need is identified to embark on more local research as cultural differences may dramatically influence norms and expectations regarding mentorship in the workplace (Allen *et al.*, 2008:354).

Smit, Cronje, Brevis & Vrba (2011:286) postulate that South African organisations are not exempt from cross-cultural differences that result from cultural diversity and its effects. People are complex, they interact continually with the environment, strive for equilibrium, and may have a multiplicity of goals (Smit *et al.*, 2011:13,350). Conversely, South African managers should, particularly in these times of rapid change, understand the influence

their decisions have on their subordinates and realise the important role mentoring plays in the contemporary organisation (Smit *et al.*, 2011:13,350). The organisation is responsible for looking after the mental health (worker stress & burnout) of employees by ensuring that programmes are in place to assist employees who may perceive that they are in need of them (Smit *et al.*, 2011:345).

Within the South African community, cultural differences may or may not create disparities in responses to the mental health of employees as they think about their self-perceptions of mentoring in their workplace.

Smit *et al.* (2011:416) suggest that perception can be defined as the process in which individuals arrange and interpret sensory impressions in order to make sense of their environment. In an organisation, subordinates' perception of a situation may be different from the next employee and it depends on (1) who is doing the perceiving, (2) the object being perceived, and (3) the context in which perception occurs (Smit *et al.* 2011:416). According to Smit *et al.* (2011:416), people tend to see and hear only what they are emotionally prepared to see and hear and as such, they reject or inaccurately perceive information that is inconsistent with their expectations.

It is evident that cultural differences are worthy of consideration while tending to the well-being of employees. A variety of cultures working in one organisation emphasise on complexity of that environment and give an indication of the importance of understanding the people you are responsible for as a mentor.

1.4 Research question that will guide this research reads as follows:

To what extent is mentorship or the lack thereof associated with the well-being of the employee, as perceived by the employee?

1.5 The aim of this research

The aim of this research is to determine the association of mentorship or the lack thereof to the well-being of the employee, as perceived by the employee.

1.6 Hypothesis

Mentoring is positively associated with well-being whereas the lack of mentorship is negatively associated with well-being.

1.7 Method of study methodology

In this research study the quantitative research method will be employed.

1.7.1 Quantitative

Williams (2007:66) suggests that quantitative research emerged around 1250 A.D. and was driven by investigators with the need to quantify data. Since then numeric quantitative research has dominated the western culture as the main research method to create meaning and new knowledge (Williams, 2007:66). Leedy and Ormrod (2001:102) allege that quantitative research is specific in its surveying and experimentation as it builds on existing theories. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:179) advocate that administering the data collection in quantitative research involves attending to these ethical issues and in addition, the procedures of quantitative data collection need to be administered with as little variation as possible so that bias is not introduced into the process. Williams (2007:66) asseverates that the research itself is independent of the researcher and as a result, data is used to objectively measure reality. Williams (2007:66) continues in saying that quantitative research creates meaning through objectivity, uncovered in the collected data.

Williams (2007:66) alleges that quantitative research can be used in response to relational questions of variables within the research and that researchers seek explanations and predictions that can be applied to other persons and places. The intent is to establish,

confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalisations that contribute to theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:102). Williams (2007:66) proposes that quantitative research begins with a problem statement and involves the formation of a hypothesis, a literature review, and a quantitative data analysis. Creswell (2003:18) states that quantitative research employs strategies of inquiry such as experimentation and surveys, and collecting data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. Williams (2007:66) concludes that the findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory and confirming.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:102) postulate that there are three broad classifications of quantitative research:

- i. Descriptive
- ii. Experimental and
- iii. Causal comparative

Williams (2007:66) postulates that the descriptive research approach is a basic research method that examines the situation as it exists in its current state and it also involves identification of attributes of a particular phenomenon based on an observational basis, or the exploration of correlation between two or more phenomena.

Williams (2007:66) presupposes that in causal comparative research, the researcher examines how the independent variables are affected by the dependent variables and involves cause and effect relationships between the variables. The factorial design focuses on two or more categorically independent variables, each studied at two or more levels and the goal is to determine whether the factors combine to produce interaction effects (Vogt & Johnson, 2011:138). The causal comparative research design affords the researcher the opportunity of examining the interaction between independent variables and their influence on dependent variables.

The survey documents, consisting of a demographic sheet and two questionnaires, accompanied by an informed consent form will be distributed to the respondents via the organisation's human resource department.

This quantitative study will focus on employees/mentees that have/have not undergone mentoring from a senior individual. From AEL Mining Services there will be two groups of respondents; those that have received mentoring and those that have not.

A total number of 79 (15 perceived themselves to be subject to mentoring and 64 perceived themselves without mentoring) respondents out of a population of 1 200 AEL employees will be selected via an availability sample from the AEL Mining Services e-mail database, using the services of the AEL Human Resource (HR) department.

The respondents will be contacted by means of their HR departments and be requested to complete a questionnaire. After completion of the questionnaires, the questionnaires will be collected by the AEL HR department in order to ensure anonymity of the respondents. Questionnaires will be collected from the HR department by the researcher after which it will be captured on a database.

1.7.2 The literature study

An EBSCOhost and Google Scholar search will be done in order to trace peer-reviewed journal articles. In addition the following will also be used to further unpack the document analysis:

- a library search will be performed to find academic books on:
 - The responsibility of the mentor in the development process,
 - The perception of how mentorship attributes to the well-being of an employee.
- company policies/docs,
- Seta policies/docs,
- SAQA policies/docs and
- newspaper articles

1.7.3 Keywords used during the research

The following keywords will be used in this search to investigate the relationship between mentorship and well-being:

- Mentorship
- Mentee
- Mentor
- Well-being
- Leadership
- Holistic development
- Mentoring leader
- Transformational leadership
- Return on investment (ROI)

1.8 Paradigmatic perspective

Mertens (2010:59) postulates that conceptually, the term “Transformative” is closer to the purpose of research and evaluation conducted from this paradigmatic perspective. The basic processes involved in conducting participatory evaluation provide the first step toward a transformative perspective in evaluation where the professional evaluator works as a facilitator of the evaluation process, but shares control and involvement in all phases (Mertens, 2010:59).

1.8.1 Paradigm

Loots (2007:1) asseverates that the discussion of various theoretical paradigms forms a backdrop against which the multiple meanings of the concept of mentoring and its many practices can be understood. The most obvious theories in the mentoring process are played out in the functionalist and the radical humanist paradigms, with the constructivists as an important catalyst in realising certain processes, procedures and actions (Loots, 2007:1).

1.8.2 Theoretical assumptions

Leininger (2006:18) proposes that theoretical views led to the formation of eleven related theoretical assumptions that researchers can use in Western and non-Western cultures in different geographical locations. These assumptions include the ideas that care is the dominant, central focus of mentorship and that it is essential for human health, well-being and survival (Leininger, 2006:18).

Overeem, Driessen, Arah, Lombarts, Wollersheim and Grol (2009:145) accede that the reflective questions posed by facilitators rely on theoretical assumptions about how one can nurture the concept 'self-directed assessment seeking'. The concept 'self-directed assessment seeking' refers to the process by which mentees take responsibility for looking outward, seeking feedback and information from external sources and applying it to direct performance improvement (Overeem *et al.*, 2009:145).

1.8.3 Explanation of concepts

Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007:291) postulate that constructivism encompasses a number of related perspectives and basically, it maintains that learning is a process of constructing meaning and that is how people make sense of their experience.

According to Merriam *et al.* (2007:297), constructivism represents an array of perspectives and suggests that learners construct their own knowledge from their experiences. The cognitive nature of the apprenticeship places emphasis on teaching learners different ways of thinking about whatever they are learning as well as any skills associated with the apprenticeship (Merriam *et al.*, 2007:181). Additionally, Merriam *et al.* (2007:297) point out that constructivism can be found in self-directed learning, transformational learning, experiential learning, situated cognition and reflective practice.

1.8.3.1 Mentorship

In the opinion of Masango (2011:1), mentorship begins on the day of birth and continues throughout one's entire life in which the first mentors are the parents. It is hypothesised that a 'good mother' already cares for the foetus during pregnancy and continues to do so after birth, whereas dysfunctional mothers might negatively impact their children's lives; consequently mentorship can yield different results (Masango, 2011:1).

Chao, Walz and Gardner (1992:624) expand on the mentorship definition by adding that mentorship is also an intense work relationship between senior (mentor) and junior (mentee) organisational members. Chao et al. (1992:624) point out that the mentor is perceived to have experience and power in the organisation and personally advises, counsels, coaches and promotes the career development of the mentee. Promotion of the mentee's career may occur directly through promotions or indirectly through the mentor's influence and power over other organisational members (Chao et al., 1992:624).

For the purpose of this study mentorship refers to adult employees older than 18 years within an organisational structure where new or less senior employees have received some form of mentorship. It is of importance to note that this form of mentorship does not entail a formal programme, but rather refer to the employee's perception of having received any form of mentorship or not.

1.8.3.2 Education, training and development

Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002:4) postulate that learning begins at birth where the majority of learning stimuli are initially provided by the immediate environment, notably by the infant's family and/or guardian. With age, formal education comes to the fore, and this may be followed by activities and courses aimed at enhancing our professional competence, knowledge and skills (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002:4). Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002:4) continue, saying that some learning occurs almost accidentally and may even go unnoticed and in such a case that person may ask for advice from others and receive much more relevant information than they had expected.

Billett, Henderson, Choy, Dymock, Beven, Kelly, James, Lewis and Smith (2012:6) advocate that the continuing education and training provision appropriate for the twenty-first century workplace may likely be formal (institutionally based) or informal and can be supported by workplace-based practitioners. Training in educational institutions is likely to be integrated with work activities (practice) as well as study activities (theory), but with a stronger emphasis on the individual's learning (Billet *et al.*, 2012:6).

1.9 Contribution of the research

This research will attempt to prove that mentorship or the lack thereof has an effect on the well-being of employees within an explosives manufacturing organisation in the mining industry in South Africa.

1.10 Ethical aspects

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact mentorship, or the lack thereof, has on the wellbeing of employees, as perceived by them.

All respondents are assured that information received will remain confidential and anonymous and that it will only be used for research purposes. The welcome note on the questionnaire also extends an invitation to the respondent to contact the researcher directly should he/she require more information on the study being conducted.

Detailed instructions are provided on how to complete each section in the questionnaire and the respondent is forewarned that by completing the questionnaire anonymously, he/she gives permission for the results of this study to be used for research purposes. Privacy, confidentiality and voluntary participation are thus confirmed before participation in this study.

An informed consent form will be issued where the respondent will declare that he/she have been informed that the purpose of the research is to determine to what extent mentorship, or the lack thereof, contributes to the well-being of the employee.

Participation will involve the completion of a questionnaire regarding the respondent's mental health as well as his/her own perception of their general health.

The consent form will reiterate that there are no foreseeable risks involved and no feasible alternative procedures available for this study.

The respondent is also informed that the results of the research study may be published but that the name or identity of no respondent will be revealed. The respondent will be advised that the research in which he/she will be participating does not involve more than minimal risk and that he/she will not be compensated for participation.

The respondent is informed that in case of injury, if there are questions about their rights as a respondent in this research, or feel that they have been put to risk, the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee can be contacted.

The informed consent form contains a declaration where the respondent states that he/she has read the information and that the nature, demands, risks and benefits have been explained. The respondent also declares that he/she knowingly assumes the risks involved and understands that he/she may withdraw consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to self.

All phases of the research will be conducted with the guidelines, approval and parameters set by the Ethics Committee of the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus.

1.11 Chapter division

Chapter 1 Orientation, motivation and statement of the problem.

Chapter 2 The relationship between mentorship and well-being.

Chapter 3 Research design and research methodology employed in this study

Chapter 4 Interpretation of research results

Chapter 5 Conclusion and recommendations

1.12 Conclusion

Organisations have to meet increasingly changing conditions and if they want to stay on par with peer advancement, they will need new competencies. In order to achieve these new competencies the process of mentoring is used as a tool for the transmission of knowledge. Mentoring is also regarded as an inclusive, confidential relationship between two parties whose common goals are mutual personal growth and corporate success.

Conversely, the assumption can be made that care is the dominant, central focus of mentorship and is essential for human health and well-being.

The next chapter will have an in depth look at the nature of mentorship, processes that are followed, the advantages, disadvantages and obstacles encountered along the way that might hinder the process. Chapter 2 will also investigate the impact of mentorship on organisational development, mentorship in the workplace, mentorship models as well as the relationship between mentorship and well-being.

CHAPTER 2

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MENTORSHIP AND WELL-BEING

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focussed on whether mentoring is used as a tool for the transmission of knowledge within organisations and whether it is regarded to be successful.

In this chapter, the focus will be on mentorship and how it is perceived to impact the overall well-being of the individual being mentored. In addition, the advantages as well as the obstacles that hinder the process of mentorship will be explored.

Coll and Raghavan (2011:66) elucidate that the word 'mentor' is derived from Greek mythology, *The Odyssey*, written by Homer. The story relates that when Odysseus went off to the Trojan War, he left his friend, Mentor, to take care of his son, Telemachus (Coll & Raghavan, 2011:66). Odysseus was away for more than twenty years and the word took on the definition of a wise and trusted teacher or counsellor and has been used ever since (Coll & Raghavan, 2011:66). Keating (2012:91) continues, saying that Mentor was the key to Telemachus' growth by guiding, educating, and protecting him, introducing him to influential leaders, and teaching him valuable leadership skills.

Truter (2008:59) suggests that examples of great historical mentors include Socrates, who mentored Plato, who mentored Aristotle, who mentored Alexander the Great. In describing himself, Socrates uses the analogy of being a mid-wife assisting the labour of the mind in bringing knowledge and wisdom to birth (Truter, 2008:59). Keating (2012:91) concludes by stating it is clear that great leaders would not have achieved their full potential without effective mentoring.

Goosen (2009:41) advocates that the business world has been speeding in a new direction that tends to disregard the human focus to a large extent. Technology, electronic

communication and information transfer, globalisation and virtual organisations, to mention but a few, are setting new trends in the business world and people are continuously confronted with a multiplicity of new demands on their mental ability, judgement, psychological stability and emotional resilience, due to the increased speed, scope and depth of change (Goosen, 2009:41). Goosen (2009:41) further suggests that to cope with these demands, managers are faced with the difficult challenge of establishing and sustaining meaningful relationships in the workplace. Rapid responses to the marketplace will only be possible in those organisations showing continual advances in knowledge within their cultures (Goosen, 2009:41).

Bozeman and Feeney (2007:17-18) refers to mentoring research adding up to less than the sum of its parts and, although there is incremental progress in a variety of new and relevant subject domains, there has been too little attention to core concepts and theory. In the rush to consider obviously important issues such as the nature of effective mentoring, the benefits of mentoring, and the impacts of mentoring on women and minority careers, there is all too often impatience with troublesome conceptual and analytical problems (Bozeman & Feeney; 2007:17-18).

Gilmore *et al.* (2005:27) postulate that the reality for most people is that they need to maximise the potential for learning in the job they have now, as well as constantly be receptive to opportunities to gradually move into new roles. Managing both the major and the minor transitions becomes a lot easier when one has a dispassionate but well-disposed mentor who can take a broader view and help one to think through the options and implications of each opportunity (Gilmore *et al.*, 2005:27). As such, Gilmore *et al.* (2005:27) are of the opinion that some form of mentorship is better than no mentorship at all.

Govender and Parumasur (2010:2) add by saying that the competencies in the mentor role entail understanding self and others, communicating effectively and developing employees.

2.2 The Nature of Mentorship

Most people have a desire to exploit the potential for learning in their current position and constantly be receptive to opportunities to move into new roles that will intellectually challenge them. The following sections will focus on what processes are followed in order to achieve these goals.

2.2.1 The Mentoring Process

Zachary (2000:3) maintains that learning is the primary purpose of any mentoring relationship and, based on this statement, a learner-centred mentoring paradigm is suggested to replace the more traditional authoritarian, teacher-dependent, student-suppliant paradigm. Aubrey and Cohen (1995:161) adds that in learner-centred mentoring, wisdom is not passed from an authoritarian teacher to a suppliant student, but is discovered in a learning relationship in which both stand to gain a greater understanding of the workplace and the world. Hayes and Koro-Ljungberg (2011:683) suggest that the mentor and mentee shares accountability and responsibility for achieving a mentee's goals, and the mentor nurtures and develops the mentee's capacity for self-direction over the course of their relationship.

In a study by Southern (2007:330) it was found that mentors are advocates and supporters of people who are passionate about their work, willing to take risks, and willing to challenge the mentee's way of thinking. Daloz (2000:116) and Canton and Wright (2008:36) confer and add that the mentor is the guide that nurtures critical thought, dispenses advice, opens doors of opportunity, and challenges and supports the mentee. Mentors help mentees grow as people, discover aspects of themselves that were previously unknown, imagine new possibilities, and realise our dreams (Southern, 2007:330).

Abbott *et al.* (2010:1) postulate that mentoring is an accepted and popular process, in use in many diverse settings such as education, community development, health, small business development, broad-based black economic empowerment and formal organisations, internationally and across South Africa. Almost every day the term 'mentor'

is heard in the media, often where a successful person is giving recognition to someone who helped them along the way (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:1). Abbott *et al.*, (2010:1) accede that many of these mentoring relationships occur informally, driven by mentees looking for a role model or someone to help them and in addition, though more formal, mentoring relationships are established through structured mentoring schemes, which are managed by coordinators. Southern (2007:330) is of the opinion that mentoring is a process that requires us to know the whole person - that is, who he or she is in the context of his or her life.

By knowing the whole person we have a greater opportunity to help others create relevancy and meaning from our teaching and their learning experiences and hold the tension that opens the possibility for transformative learning (Southern, 2007:330). Allen *et al.* (2004:127) suggest that entry into social networks also provides the mentee with the opportunity of displaying talent and skills to decision makers within an organisation. Ehrich *et al.* (2004:520) asseverate that mentorship is, however, a two-way or reciprocal process where it is also beneficial to the mentor.

Throughout history, mentors have played a significant role in teaching, inducting, and developing the skills and talents of others (Ehrich *et al.*, 2004:519). Janik (2005:144) found that the brain structure actually changes during the learning process, offering a distinctive neurobiological, physically based pathway to transformative learning. From this perspective, learning is seen as “volitional, curiosity-based, discovery-driven, and mentor-assisted” and most effective at higher cognitive levels (Janik, 2005:144).

The higher the perceived self-efficacy to fulfil educational requirements and occupational roles is, the wider the career options people seriously consider pursuing, the greater the interest they have in them, the better they prepare themselves educationally for different occupational careers and the greater their staying power in challenging career pursuits, (Bandura and Locke, 2003:90). Reed, Evely, Cundill, Fazey, Glass, Laing, Newig, Parrish, Prell, Raymond and Stringer, (2010:2) postulate that social learning is a process of social change in which people learn from each other in ways that can benefit wider social-ecological systems.

Bozeman and Feeney (2007:20) ask the question: “When does mentoring begin and end?” Although it is easy enough to say that mentoring does not begin until (a) the knowledge of interest (or the social capital and network ties) has begun to be both transmitted and received and (b) the two parties recognize the role it also acknowledges that the end of the mentoring relationship is a function of two factors, each potentially measurable but neither obvious in its scale calibration (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007:21). Bozeman and Feeney (2007:21) proposes that first, when there is no longer an inequality in the focal knowledge domain, the mentoring relationship ends (at least within that domain it may continue in another), but it is not easy to make such a determination.

The commencement of the mentoring process involves co-operation between the mentor and the mentee (Asante, 2011:52). Consequently, the process will involve a period of growth for both parties, where the mentor will experience a sense of accomplishment (Bozionelos, Bozionelos, Kostopoulos & Polychroniou, 2011:446) and the mentee will encounter a brand new way of thinking (paradigm shift) (DeNunzio, Parekh & Hirsch, 2010:722). Opportunities will be afforded to the mentee within a controlled environment, allowing them to make mistakes and learn from it, under the guidance of the mentor. In answering the question: **“When does mentoring begin and end?”** the researcher is of opinion that mentoring will never end as long as there is something to learn during the life cycle of any human being.

2.2.1.1 The Advantages of Mentorship

The construction of the self and of mentoring relationships is interdependent and created through individuals’ interactions and dialogue with others (Hayes & Koro-Ljungberg, 2011:690). Hayes and Koro-Ljungberg (2011:690) suggest that when mentors and mentees enter into a relationship, they bring with them multiple, though not always identical, relational histories that represent a unique combination of communities and voices.

Allen *et al.* (2004:127) advocate that mentors are reportedly not only a source of learning for mentees, but they also play a key role in the development of mentees’ self-esteem and

work identity. Baguley (2010:10) describes mentoring as a transformative relationship in which individuals reconstruct possible selves in adopting the ways of the other individual in the relationship that simplifies their current way of thinking. The University of Birmingham (2013:2) accedes that one of the greatest discoveries is that mentoring is a two-way learning process where mentoring is not only beneficial to the mentee, but also a learning experience for the mentor.

Allen *et al.* (2004:128) propose that mentors serve as the veteran models, individuals that have successfully navigated organisational learning curves; thus providing the mentee with an opportunity to learn from the mentor's behaviour and with the rules that govern effective behaviour in the organisation.

The mentor, through friendship, counselling, and acceptance, also helps the mentee in developing the sense of professional competence and self-esteem needed to achieve career success (Van der Pol, 2011:5; Dunn, 2012:401).

Results of a study conducted by Allen *et al.* (2004:128-131), comparing outcomes for mentored versus non-mentored groups, suggests that regarding objective career outcomes, the compensation and number of promotions were higher among mentored than non-mentored individuals. The results by Allen *et al.* (2004:128-131) also indicated that mentored individuals were more satisfied with their career, more likely to believe that they would advance in their career, and more likely to be committed to their career than were their non-mentored counterparts. Mentored individuals were more satisfied with their jobs than non-mentored individuals and the results also indicated that mentored individuals had stronger intentions to stay with their current organisation than non-mentored individuals (Allen *et al.* 2004:128-131).

In terms of objective career success, the results indicated that greater career mentoring related to greater compensation, greater salary growth, more promotions and, regarding the subjective outcomes, career mentoring was positively related to career satisfaction, job satisfaction and satisfaction with the mentor (Allen *et al.* 2004:128-131). Allen *et al.*

(2004:128-131) postulate that the variable most highly related to psychosocial mentoring was satisfaction with the mentor.

Allen *et al.* (2004:128-131) outline the positive effects mentorship has on career motivation, as it facilitates self-directedness, career involvement, career success, and positive attitudes towards the mentee's career. Those involved are enabled to increase awareness, identify alternatives and initiate action, and develop themselves (Allen *et al.* 2004:128-131). Knowing that a mentor is accessible for support, guidance, and expertise can ease the concerns of physicians that need the "gentle encouragement" that goes beyond the scope of professional competency (Thomas-MacLean, Hamoline, Quinlan, Ramsden & Kuzmicz, 2010:265-270).

Southern (2007:331) advocates that a mentoring relationship that is held in care bridges the distance between student and teacher, creating a safe space for vulnerability.

Gilmore *et al.* (2005:27) presuppose that the benefits of mentoring for the mentee can include faster career progress, increased confidence, assistance with working through difficult issues when dealing with other people, having a sounding board for trying out ideas, and being able to draw on someone else's experience; therefore, mentoring opens up the mentee to new issues and adds layers of thinking by developing new insights.

The main advantage of mentoring is the positive contribution to the development of the mentee, specifically applicable to growth in the ability to perform optimally in the workplace (Walsh 2010:33). Psychological growth, where self-confidence will enable the mentee to be assured when difficult decisions in the work arena are faced, is also included (Spence & Oades, 2011:38).

2.2.1.2 The Disadvantages of Mentorship

Taherian and Shekarchian (2008:96) postulate that many of the disadvantages attributed to mentoring in the literature are in fact not so much disadvantages of mentoring itself but rather problems associated with the mentoring process being incorrectly conducted.

Oftentimes in medicine, for instance, a junior doctor's mentor is a consultant under whom the mentee works and this type of mentoring has been termed 'faculty mentoring', an approach that is still much advocated in USA academic medicine (Taherian & Shekarchian, 2008:96). Taherian and Shekarchian (2008:96) continue in saying that this approach can, however, often lead to a conflict of interest between the mentoring and supervisory roles of the mentor (e.g. training versus service provision issues) and consequently may interfere with the mentoring process.

Taherian and Shekarchian (2008:97) advocate that a dysfunctional mentoring relationship could also result from possession of certain personality traits that are not compatible with the mentoring process. Other difficulties that may at times be encountered during mentoring include frustration due to lack of progress, and strains and conflicts, which can occur in any caring relationship and, improperly conducted mentoring can result in individual stress, role confusion and disillusionment with the task (Taherian & Shekarchian, 2008:97).

Taljaard (2010:32) asseverates that misconduct and gross unethical behaviour of either member in the mentoring relationship can, in the worst-case scenario, lead to legal action and, according to him, the most common occurrence is sexual or racial discrimination and/or harassment.

Zerzan, Hess, Schur, Phillips, and Rigotti (2009:142), suggest that mentoring is time-and energy-intensive and that when a potential mentor may say no, a mentee may be uncomfortable requesting mentorship due to fear of being rejected. One of the most frequent problems in a formal mentoring relationship occurs as a result of a mismatch between the mentor and the mentee and unrealistic expectations from either party (Zerzan *et al.*, 2009:143).

Livingston (2010:40) follows up by saying that respondents in formal mentoring programs either feel that the match is not what is needed and consequently becomes ineffective, or the arrangement can even detract from the learning experience. This arrangement causes the match to become cumbersome and unsuccessful in accomplishing any professional

development for the mentee and may in turn cause the mentor to feel inadequate as the momentum of progress is lacking (Livingston, 2010:40).

2.2.1.3 Obstacles hindering mentorship

Implementing a mentorship program can be problematic, depending on how mentorship is imagined, the individuals involved in the mentorship process, and the environment into which it is introduced. (Thomas-MacLean *et al* 2010:265)

Ehrich *et al.* (2004:520) suggest that, under various conditions, the mentoring relationship can actually be detrimental to the mentor, mentee or both. Several conditions that may have a negative influence include lack of time, poor planning, unsuccessful matching of mentors and mentees, lack of understanding regarding the mentoring process as well as lack of access to mentors for minority groups.

A lack of integration of good practice and experience, which is seen as a problem overseas, is even more of an issue in South Africa and this can be attributed to the lack of easily accessible information regarding mentoring schemes (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:2.). This can impact significantly on the ability of the designer and implementer of a mentoring scheme, who is usually also the co-ordinator of the scheme, to access good practice from similar schemes and would probably result in many unnecessarily repeated mistakes (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:2.)

Abbott *et al.* (2010:8) asseverates that the credibility for the mentoring scheme can cause problems in terms of time available and competing priorities. Sometimes mentors simply do not make available to their mentee the necessary time, or motivation within the mentoring pair to continue is lacking (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:8).

Nelson and Campbell (2010:611) asseverate that no one should be forced to enter a mentoring relationship and careful matching of mentors and mentees is important and a graceful exit should be provided for mismatches or for people in mentoring relationships that have fulfilled their purpose. Five key themes regarding the challenges mentees and

mentors were facing in terms of the mentoring relationship included establishing trust; cross-gender and cross-race issues; mentee dependency and mentor style; dealing with time constraints and dealing with colleague jealousy (Allen *et al.*, 2004:128-131).

Research done by Hayes and Koro-Ljungberg (2011:700), of the obstacles, illuminated the following problems as inhibiting our respondents' search for effective mentors:

- unclear relational expectations and boundaries,
- lack of mentors sharing the mentees' research interests,
- unclear or ill-defined avenues for communication,
- lack of time for mentoring,
- mismatch between mentors' and mentees' agendas and goals,
- variation in departmental policies and norms concerning mentoring,
- low expectations of mentees for mentors and
- political consequences (fear of reprisals).

Terblanché (2007:102) mentions a few obstacles that could confront the mentor and the mentee:

- The mentor's style does not meet the mentee's needs and frustration may occur;
- Insufficient time and too high expectations by the mentee;
- A mentee with a hidden agenda; and
- An inappropriate attitude by the mentee expecting too much from the mentor and demanding more time and attention than is actually needed.
- Peer and/or professional jealousy from colleagues who do not have a mentor;
- Being accused of "holding onto the coat tails of another";
- One party overstepping professional boundaries expecting the relationship to become more "personal" (particularly in cross gender relationships);
- The mentor falling from favour when others disapprove the activities of the mentor.

2.2.1.4 Organisational development and mentorship

Goosen (2009:41) postulates that to achieve organisational development through mentorship, organisations and members alike must radically shift the way they think, act and emphasise learning and, in doing this, mentorship can add value as it is an organisational vehicle available to establish and maintain relationships, and facilitate changing demands.

Gilmore *et al.* (2005:27-28) suggest that the organisation benefits in terms of increased staff retention, especially among new recruits, when a mentor helps them fit in more easily and rapidly. Legislation on employment equity and skills development requires mentoring practices to be based on the formation of cross-cultural and cross-gender mentoring relationships in the South African organisational context (Gilmore *et al.*, 2005:27-28).

The more central to an organisation's functionality mentoring is, the more beneficial mentoring will be in the long term (Hattingh *et al.*, 2005:40). Van Rensburg and Roodt (2005:10) add that mentoring can also be a mechanism by means of which employees are equipped to adapt to organisational change.

In contrast, Ehrich *et al.* (2004:521) refer to drawbacks of mentoring from the organisation's point of view where it includes problems such as a lack of support, difficulties in coordinating programs within organisational initiatives, costs and resources associated with mentoring.

Conversely, mentorship within an organisation has its positive and negative attributes, but it seems that the positive attributes exceed the negative (Anderson & Cartafalsa, 2012:41). Coates (2012:93) purports that an organisation focussing on the long-term benefits and, investing in proper pairing of mentor and mentee, will present the results in terms of knowledge transfer at the right time.

Subsequently, mentorship will be explored within a South African organization, specifically one organisations' approach to transferring critical skills and knowledge to its pool of employees.

2.3. Mentorship in South Africa

Mentorship in South Africa has been highlighted during the past few years, especially in the medical, sports and lately, the agricultural environment (Jenkins, Mash & Derese, 2013:108; Sherry, 2010:67; Greenberg, 2010:ix). It seems information in the corporate world is lacking, especially in service delivery organisations.

2.3.1 Challenge of unemployment

Mentoring, as a developmental relationship, is likely to be a key component of employment equity plans and any diversity management programmes an organisation may have in place (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:2). Pinho, Coetzee and Schreuder (2005:20) advocate that in the South African context, formal mentoring programmes have also become a tool for promoting the growth and development of junior employees and people from historically disadvantaged groups.

2.3.2 Lack of research regarding mentorship within the mining community

Stuart (2011:118) explains that the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was created to be a framework of qualifications, as qualifications are the most economically and socially useful way of measuring people's' abilities to master certain skills. A unit standard is the smallest part of a curriculum and is part of the components that, when put together, describe the skills that make up a qualification and are therefore the smallest learning achievement that can be credited to a learner on the NQF (Stuart, 2011:118). Stuart (2011:118) concludes that unit standards are both the essential, "embedded" knowledge needed to do something, and the outcomes a learner must demonstrate to gain a credit on the NQF.

SAQA, (2009) contains a Unit Standard in the South African NQF referring to managing mentoring programmes but this is limited to a school setting and the programme manager needs to be a school manager – the current unit standard for mentorship:

Title: **Mentor school managers and manage mentoring programmes in schools**

ID: **115432**

Pre-2009 NQF Level: **Level 6**

NQF Level: **New Level Assignment Pend.**

ABET Band: **Undefined**

Subfield: **Schooling**

Originator: SGB Education Management and Leadership

Field: **Field 005 - Education,**

Training and Development Credits: **12**

Abbott *et al.* (2010:3-8) acknowledges the shortcomings within the national qualifications framework in saying that little formal training exists in South Africa for the role of a mentoring coordinator and there is little content in the NQF relating to mentoring.

It appears that the only other mentoring titles within the NQF are: “Apply ‘best practice’, mentoring, training and accountability in extension” which can be found in the subfield of Primary Agriculture and “Plan and conduct, leading and mentoring of respondents in outdoor adventure experiences” which can be found in the subfield Hospitality, Tourism, Travel, Gaming and Leisure (Abbott *et al.*, 2010:3-8).

Gilmore *et al.* (2005:31) asseverate that little formal training exists in South Africa for the role of a mentoring co-ordinator; consequently the controlling body within a mentoring program will find it difficult to give direction and essentially add value to the progress of the program.

More qualitative research with a broader representation of all gender and race groups is required to better illuminate mentors’ and mentees’ experiences of the mentoring relationship (Gilmore *et al.*, 2005:31). Gilmore *et al.* (2005:31) suggest that quantitative

research (for example culture climate and/or surveys) could be launched to measure the magnitude of the key perceptions of mentors and mentees. On-going and, in particular, longitudinal studies across various industries could make a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge concerned with mentoring relationships in the diverse South African organisational context (Gilmore *et al.*, 2005:31).

2.3.3 South African Legislative Framework on Mentorship

Clarke and Isaacs (2005:10) explain that the African National Congress (ANC) contested the April 1994 elections with a vision of “a better life for all”, endorsed in its people-centred

According to Clarke and Isaacs (2005:10; RDP, 1994), the RDP has four areas of importance:

- i. meeting basic needs,
- ii. developing human resources,
- iii. building the economy and
- iv. democratising the state and society.

After the elections, the government embarked on far-reaching legislative reform, including reform of labour legislation (RDP, 1994). Clarke and Isaacs (2005:10) postulate that business interests in South Africa, concerned with the impact of these reforms on the business climate in the country, applied pressure on the government to investigate alternative development paths. Soon after, the RDP was side lined in favour of the neo-liberalist Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy.

The South African reform agenda includes privatisation, subsidy removal, downsizing of the public sector, and encouragement of small black entrepreneurs (Clarke & Isaacs, 2005:10). From a poverty perspective, the macro-economic policy viewed job creation as a key factor for reducing poverty (Clarke & Isaacs, 2005:10).

Clarke and Isaacs (2005:10) suggest that the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) Act of 2003 provides a framework for transformation of economic sectors of the

country, including a provision for the formulation of sector transformation charters and, with this, the Government recently launched a multi-stakeholder initiative to formulate a Forestry and Forest Products Sector BBBEE Charter (DWAF, 2005). The goal of BBBEE is, to a large extent, to address poverty reduction, providing the basis for much greater involvement of black people in the economy, not just through equity transfers, but also through enterprise development, employment equity, skills development and training (Clarke & Isaacs, 2005:10).

Curran (2012:36) suggests that managers and supervisors support career decisions and the development of the skills and abilities of employees through training, job rotation, mentoring and coaching; consequently employees' career progress must be evaluated during their individual performance reviews.

2.3.4 Mentorship in the Workplace

Legas and Sims (2011:4) postulate that mentoring can be used to leverage generational diversity within an organisation. Yamamura and Stedham (2007:68) agree and add that mentorship can be an effective, informal method for bridging the gap between generations and, consequently, new professionals should be paired with experienced mentors that can provide practical guidance and support. Properly coached new professionals will develop faster and further than professionals without coaching due to them being better able to develop a systems understanding and self-motivated creativity attributed to their learning being enhanced and guided (Yamamura & Stedham, 2007:68). Yamamura and Stedham (2007:68) presuppose that the challenge in implementing these suggestions is one of prioritisation and time allocation.

In support of mentoring relationships, Schlimbach (2010:7) suggests that generations can learn from each other and with each other, using the potential, knowledge and experience of both and it is evident that with the "knowledge explosion" of our time we find that classical knowledge hierarchies dissolve. Intergenerational learning in the context of mentoring has to be understood as stimulation to self-reflection and an exchange of knowledge rather than an imposition of opinions and directives (Schlimbach, 2010:7).

Schlimbach (2010:7) suggests that a modern mentor is more of a companion on the transitional pathway of the person being mentored than a signpost.

Yamamura and Stedham (2007:150) accede that older workers mentoring new professionals need to be given adequate time and resources to do so and their efforts need to be acknowledged by the organisation in order for this method to be successful. Mentorship is beneficial to new employees and career mentoring and task support appear to be the types of social support most predictive of job satisfaction (Yamamura & Stedham, 2007:150). Coaching and task support were the types of social support most predictive of the time frame in which a job will be occupied by an individual (Yamamura & Stedham, 2007:150).

Legas and Sims (2011:6) add that generational diversity training would go beyond the common training that focuses on race, gender, and sexual orientation and would consequently include generational differences, similarities, misconceptions, and common misunderstandings in the workplace. A successful mentorship program would help the various generations to work together for success and allow businesses to capitalise on retention of knowledge transfer amongst its future human capital (Legas & Sims, 2011:6).

Sujansky (2007:6) claims that every time a great employee leaves, you have to shell out the cost of rehiring and retraining his replacement -- a cost that studies have shown could range from 70% to 200% of that person's annual salary and in addition you also lose that employee's institutional memory, another great asset for the company. Legas and Sims (2011:5) conclude in saying that although mentorship may not seem like a profit-driven technique, loss of human capital also means loss of financial capital.

2.4 The Nature of Education, Training and Development in the South African context

It is important to recognise that learning is a never-ending process that can be compared with the building of a house where you first need to ensure a firm and strong foundation. As this building process progresses through the stages of actually becoming a house, the

focus is shifted to making it a home where people can reside in. The improvement process on this dwelling may include things such as a patio, swimming pool and air conditioning which will contribute to the comfort of the residents of this dwelling. The sustainability of the expansion and improvement will depend on the need of the residents that may develop over a period of time. The world we are living in is always looking at improving, understanding, more effective and efficient ways of doing things.

Cullingford and Blewitt (2004:104) postulate that sustainable development education involves three basic issues:

- (1) Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.
- (2) Sustainable development education integrates the learning agenda with that of securing a sustainable future.
- (3) The rationale for sustainable development education accedes that education is critical for promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of the people to address development issues.

While basic education provides the underpinning of any development education, it still needs to be incorporated as an essential part of learning (Cullingford & Blewitt, 2004:104). Cullingford and Blewitt (2004:104) suggest that both formal and non-formal education is indispensable for changing people's attitudes in order to attain the capacity to assess and address sustainable development concerns. It is also critical for achieving ethical awareness, values and attitudes, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable development and for effective public participation in decision making (Cullingford & Blewitt, 2004:104).

Davidson *et al.* (2012:146) suggest that current global conditions, including increasing economic interdependence, widespread intercultural contact, and the emergence of knowledge-based societies, require new forms of education. Heckman (2007), as cited by Davidson *et al.* (2012:146), continues in saying that schools play a major role in cultivating

the kinds of mental skills and socio-emotional dispositions young people will need to realize productive, satisfying, and meaningful lives in the 21st century.

Davidson *et al.* (2012:146) postulate that in drawing on research in neuroscience, cognitive science, developmental science, and education, as well as on insights from contemplative traditions concerning the cultivation of virtuous qualities, they highlight a set of mental skills and socio-emotional dispositions they believe are central to the aims of education in the 21st century.

Terrion, Phillon and Leonard (2007:47) postulate that mentors come into a training programme already comfortable in the skills and knowledge required to establish a helping relationship, given their prior experiences and personalities. Of all the competencies, it is not surprising that the smallest gain in confidence is seen in the helping relationship competency (Terrion *et al.*, 2007:47). Raemdonck, Van der Leeden, Valcke, Segers and Thijssen (2012:576) add that past career experience reflects the quality and quantity of employment and influences the willingness to invest in learning.

This willingness to invest in learning is referred to as positively influenced, proactive skills development behaviour, while periods of unemployment are denoted as negatively influenced, proactive skills development behaviour (Raemdonck *et al.*, 2012:576). A positive effect of mobility experience on both internal mobility, through changes of position, and external mobility, through changes of organisation, had a positive impact on proactive skill development behaviour (Raemdonck *et al.*, 2012:576). Gholami and Jalilvand (2012:10025) conclude that there is a close relationship between learning and work achievement where learning is the dynamic process that enables work behaviour to be enacted and knowledge is a central part of the economic system. The identification of the relationship between training and a professional working culture is crucial (Gholami & Jalilvand, 2012:10025).

2.4.1 Defining Education, Training and Development in a mentorship context

Sustainable development in the mentorship context may also depict that the present needs of the mentee need to be met, but without compromising the ability of future generation mentees to meet their own needs. This learning agenda will secure a sustainable future for other mentees and therefore the rationale for sustainable development in the mentorship context is thus to improve the capacity of the mentor/mentee to address development issues for the future.

Kornelsen *et al.* (2012:40) asseverate that within medical education, mentoring is broadly defined as a process of extending supportive wisdom, guidance, and reflection in an *informal* way on the part of the mentor. Mentoring is consequently regarded as a key component of ensuring recruitment and retention, in role-modelling, introducing practical training, and increasing confidence, improving outcomes, and encouraging trainees to take up surgical training (Kornelsen *et al.*, 2012:40).

Mutemeri and Chetty (2011:515) postulate that higher education institutions have an important role to play in developing effective partnerships with schools and other stakeholders to ensure that their teacher education courses are relevant to the realities of the school context and that good classroom practice is the corner-stone of the teacher education programme.

Wright and Plasterer (2011:42) conjecture that debates concerning higher education in the Global South, and Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, have been at the forefront of international education policy and scholarship since the 1970s and the key question at hand has been whether or not higher education provides valuable social benefits at large, or simply posits personal rewards to those that have better access.

Msila (2012:55) advocates that education is always in a state of flux and mentors should be on the alert as our ever-changing world demands that we keep up with change in order to survive technological advancement and psychologically be able to cope with all the challenges. Mentors that emphasise vision are preparing their mentees for the future on

how to adapt their schools to the constant changes; therefore mentees need to mature professionally, to develop a sense of efficacy and independence (Msila, 2012:55). Msila (2012:55) concludes that many principals talk about how they missed induction when they were appointed as principals; therefore effective mentoring can lead to a confidence and a sense of direction.

Keating (2012:92) asserts that the educational institution should provide the industry placement venue with a mentorship plan which includes inter alia the needs of the student, learning goals, purpose of the work-integrated learning program, areas of activity, and methods of evaluation and feedback. Keating (2012:92) concludes that these guidelines could form the basis of the mentor/mentee plan in order for effective learning to take place.

Goodyear (2006:51) accedes research has shown that successful mentoring relationships can assist individuals in learning the ropes at an organisation, increase career satisfaction and influence in the organisation and decrease turnover rates.

Buante, Gabato, Galla, Maneje, Paje and Pradia (2012:123) suggest that to promote a positive psychosocial learning environment, support and nurturing should be offered, and students should be treated with dignity and respect. The interactive experiences students have with their mentors afford them the opportunity of internalising what they have learned (Buante *et al.*, 2012:123).

McKimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007:4) postulate that mentors bring experience, perspective, objectivity and distance into a mentoring relationship. Mentors can offer a long-term view for the organisation and the individual as they are influential in terms of helping to reach the goals and aspirations set by the mentee (McKimm *et al.*, 2007:4). McKimm *et al.* (2007:4) suggest that a mentor cares about the mentee and focuses on the needs of that individual and in addition, provides empathy, candour, openness and honesty. The mentors should also be willing to share their expertise, should not feel threatened by a mentee's potential for equalling or surpassing them nor by the mentee detecting their weaknesses and shortcomings (McKimm *et al.*, 2007:4).

Dietz *et al.* (2006:42) suggest that mentors are advisors with career experience, willing to share their knowledge, supporters who give emotional and moral encouragement, masters and sponsors, sources of information and aids in obtaining opportunities and models of identity.

2.4.2 The Status and Availability of Education, Training and Development in a Mentorship Context for New Appointments Entering an Organisation

Sustainable development in the mentorship context for new appointments entering an organisation may also depict that their present needs has to be met, but again without compromising the ability of future new appointments to meet their own needs. This learning agenda will secure a sustainable future for other new appointments. Sustainable development in the mentorship context is thus to improve the capacity to address development issues for the future.

Foong-Ming (2008:4) postulates that, contrary to the view that career development should be the outcome of interaction between individual career planning and institutional career management processes, employers seem more concerned with providing career programmes that meet their current and future needs. In support Nwuche and Hart (2012:11) suggest that more attention be given to organisation-specific activities such as on-the-job training, job assignment, mentoring and job rotation while relatively little attention is appropriated to off-the-job skill training.

Adam (2012:3) presupposes that people at low education levels, looking for options to generate income in order to sustain themselves and their families, have little chances of securing a job in the formal sector. Such objectives require not only imparting specific technical skills but the integration of many crosscutting issues such as, life skills, entrepreneurship, communication skills, literacy and numeracy, health/HIV and even drama and dancing (Adam, 2012:3).

Musyoki (2012:2) postulate that there is pressure on the government to deliver basic services to low-income rural and urban areas and to address questions of land, unemployment, poverty, crime and educational opportunities.

Due to the limited availability of technology, poor institutional capacity, low levels of education, and inadequate financial resources, the adaptive capacity of the region to build societal resilience against climate-related events is severely restrained (UNDP, 2008:14). Blum (2007:231) accedes that although industrialised nations tend to associate the end of youth with the completion of formalised schooling, for many countries in sub-Saharan Africa where higher education is not widely attained, the extended time period attributed for youth is considered the length of time necessary to attain the necessary social capital and human networks needed to function effectively as an adult.

From an applied human development perspective, mentoring relationships have also been identified as crucial supports to positive developmental outcomes in adolescence (Christens & Kirshner, 2011: 32).

Serafini (2012:36) suggests that the entry point by which the youth begin their service within organisations could be engaging in volunteerism and this can also provide the channel through which they can access positive development attributes such as mentorship, leadership development, and youth-adult partnerships. This can be achieved by placing them in positions of leadership and as decision makers (Serafini, 2012:36). Additional organisational benefits are realised through reciprocal transactions that occur between youth and the organisational settings where positive development outcomes are promoted (Serafini, 2012:47).

Biavaschi *et al.* (2012:1) postulate that, when explaining differences in youths' transition into employment needs to firstly take demographic developments and economic growth into account, and secondly, the interplay between these dynamics and long-standing institutional patterns, in particular regulatory provisions influencing the supply of flexible or permanent jobs as well as education and training policies. Many countries should strengthen the vocational part of their educational or schooling system and bring existing

vocational education and training systems closer to the current needs of the labour market so that young people can experience a smoother transition to jobs (Biavaschi *et al.*, 2012:2).

2.4.3 Education, Training and Development and Mentorship in the Workplace

Sustainable development in the work place may depict that the present needs of the workforce may be addressed by appointing a mentor to attend to the needs to whomever he/she is matched up with. This learning agenda will secure a future for the workforce where sustainable development is ensured due to the mentor addressing development issues for the future.

According to SA Navy (2010:82), it is vital for human resources to be capacitated through a well-coordinated continuous learning process that allows for professional and personal development, rooted in professional education and leadership. This continuous learning should not only focus on the needs of the organisation, it should also prepare the individual to exit the organisation with skills and qualifications that would allow for employment elsewhere (SA Navy, 2010:82). SA Navy (2010:83) concludes that development includes required tertiary educational programmes, which form the foundation of further professional/functional development.

Knight (2012:36) advocates that visionaries like to take their time, think, and find meaning in data where analysers like to make connections to principles of reason, science, or technology and conduct a cost benefit analysis for each situation and lastly, enhancers develop personal relationships with mentors and focus on how the information is affecting others.

Schuster and Finkelstein (2006:xvii) advocate that practically every aspect in the life of the academic is driven by a host of interrelated developments such as dazzling technological advances, globalisation that continues to infiltrate academic boundaries and, taken together, these shifts are profoundly changing how knowledge is acquired and transmitted.

Kezar and Lester (2009:27) explains that collaborative efforts are highly discouraged before achieving tenure and for many a faculty this means working independently for at least fifteen years. After such a long time working alone, faculties are not likely to be inclined to work with others and have not learned the skills to work collaboratively (Kezar & Lester, 2009:27). This often means that those that finally achieve tenure are neither motivated nor equipped to support new faculty members entering the academy (Hower, 2012:71-72). Sadly, this is the very time when mentoring and collaborative experience would be most important in a new career and when an established career might be revitalised and refocused through a professional relationship (Hower, 2012:71-72).

McCormick Sr. (2010:35) asseverates that transformational leaders are approachable, friendly, informal and sincere in their invitation to engage in meaningful dialogue. Leaders frequently act as mentors, coaches and teachers to those with whom they share the vision, they emphasize recognition and reward, both formal and informal and they encourage social functions and professional development opportunities (McCormick Sr., (2010:35). McCormick Sr. (2010:35) suggests that all of these actions contribute to the development of trust between leader and follower. Leadership behaviours such as peer monitoring, conference training, professional development, and mentoring are critical when establishing a climate of achievement (McCormick Sr., 2010:35).

Bennett and Bennett (2003:150) postulate that cross-cultural mentoring relationships encompass respondents' values, beliefs, and behaviours defined by nationality, ethnicity, gender, age, physical characteristics, sexual orientation, economic status, education, profession, religion, organisational affiliation, and any other grouping that generates identifiable patterns. Cross and Lincoln (2005:50) accede that individuals bring a complex set of experiences, mental models, social and cultural identities, expertise, goals, expectations, values, and beliefs to the mentoring process, all of which make for potential areas of conflict. These differences, if managed well, can lead to rich learning (Cross & Lincoln, 2005:50).

Seepersad (2012:34-35) asseverates that mentorship within higher education currently expands across the arts, business and sciences, across age levels and long distances, and

recently, amid diverse cultures and expanding technology. Shared cognition through personal and group interactions extends knowledge structures and enables a cognitive representation of mentoring within one-on-one and group mentorships, whether formal, or informal (Seepersad, 2012:36).

Patnaik (2012:227) suggests a program where people who complete their training will be given consulting opportunities to mentor others, to facilitate searches for minority individuals, and consult with schools, companies, government and other areas within their community that need a consultant.

2.5 Mentorship Models

There are five disciplines of the learning organisation, namely personal mastery, mental models, team learning, building a shared vision, and systems thinking as an integrating agent (Pillay & Pillay, 2012:9419). Pillay and Pillay (2012:9419) add that mental models represent the portraits of the mind that determine how the world is conceptualised.

Pillay and Pillay (2012:9422) predicate that sharing of knowledge, skills transfer and continuous learning are evident and people are willing to share more freely in order for learning to become an inherent act, which ultimately strengthens the motives of the mentorship programme. This systemic model, with reinforcing feedback loops, reiterates that the individual, through maturity, strengthens relationships with other partners to enhance the whole system of learning (Pillay & Pillay, 2012:9419).

The common trend in literature is toward either a formal mentoring model or a combination of both formal and informal (Alderman *et al.*, 2012:19). Alderman *et al.* (2012:26) accede that the tendency is focussed towards both a formal and informal mentorship model, drawing on both aspects to complement novices' learning.

2.5.1 Informal Structured Model

While traditional mentoring programs seek to match mentors with mentees, the respondents in Griffith's (2012:65) study had to seek out their own sources for training and support and consequently suggest that traditional mentoring programs are not the only viable means for leaders to gain professional growth.

Griffith (2012:75) states an awareness of the need for on-going support, guidance, advice, and encouragement, and with a keen understanding of their role, principals at all levels understand they need formal and informal sources of support in order to lead students to high performance.

Abiddin and Hassan (2012:79) suggest that the mentee should make an attempt to contact the mentor at least every three to four weeks so that the relationship can be built and should maintain informal contact, or the mentor should complete at least three structured academic activities per semester with the mentee. The mentor and mentee are jointly attracted by each other's qualities and attributes (Abiddin & Hassan, 2012:84). In classical mentoring the mentor and mentee are free to develop the relationship in the manner of their choosing; therefore the emphasis is on informality as the nature and terms of the relationship are set informally by the people involved (Abiddin & Hassan, 2012:84).

Dimitrova, Thakker and Lau (2012:1) present a unique approach to aggregate content from social spaces into a semantic-rich data cloud to facilitate informal learning in ill-defined domains. This pioneers a new way to exploit digital traces about real-world experiences as authentic examples in informal learning contexts and in order to address these challenges, the third driver for the radical change in today's learning landscape, the emerging technological advancements and paradigms should be taken into account (Dimitrova *et al.*, 2012:1). Dimitrova *et al.* (2012:1) continue that they specifically consider the blurring boundaries between digital, physical and social worlds and the new opportunities for informal learning.

Ragins and Kram (2007:676) suggest that due to the requirements, expectations, and time constraints of formal programs, it is quite likely that some of the personal benefits experienced by mentees and mentors in informal mentoring relationships are less likely to occur in formal relationships. Organisational contexts also influence the values and expectations associated with formal and informal mentoring relationships (Ragins & Kram, 2007:676).

Roberts, Butcher and Brooker (2011:55) postulate that there are also disadvantages associated with using an informal mentoring approach and these include: a few people being left to carry the load; advantage being taken of their good will; and there being no basis upon which to make allowance for the time allocated to mentoring in a workload calculation. Another disadvantage is the “hit and miss” nature of informal mentoring, which revolves around who might be accessible and available to provide support and information at a time of need and there also lies a danger of passing on misinformation with the wrong or untrained person (Roberts *et al.*, 2011:55).

2.5.2 Formal Structured Model

Griffith (2012:56) predicates that a growing body of literature suggests that principals may benefit from formal coaching and mentoring as a means to receive support and develop proficiency in all areas of the position. Abiddin and Hassan (2012:84) suggest that contact mentoring concerns the adaptation of classical mentoring and its resulting application within structured programs and that the people involved are obliged to achieve the identified aims, purposes and outcomes of a recognised program of development and support.

Higgins and Kram (2001:264) suggest that mentoring relationships can be built on formal hierarchical structures or may evolve organically into the form of peer mentoring and developmental networks. Chua (2012:40) supports this statement and adds that between the two ends of the spectrum lie the differences in dimensions including the emotional intensity of the relationship, the social origins of the relationship, the mentor-mentee hierarchical distance, the power of the mentor, as well as the amount and focus of

assistance the mentor provides. Wanberg *et al.* (2003:41) accede it is generally agreed that mentoring is the most intense and powerful one-on-one developmental relationship, entailing the most influence, identification, and emotional involvement.

Atkinson and Butler (2012:25) postulate that strong agents are those leaders in an organisation that not only sit in formal leadership positions but possess the referent power and mentoring skills to break out of the confining structures and myths of their organisations to make the organisation and its people change from a single collective rationality forced by law to a collective ethics enabled by strong actor-member relationships. Atkinson and Butler (2012:25) state that we need good myths and saga to hold our groups together, but if the myths holds a destructive element, such as fear, then they should be targeted for modification.

Harding and Parsons (2011:55) predicates that, in reality, not all districts or schools have formal, structured mentorship or induction programs, structured and endorsed professional learning opportunities or even inclusive, friendly school cultures and these failings leave a void into which newcomers might go missing and suggest that explicit, self-directed career advocacy plans might be a valuable part of pre-service curriculum. Consequently it is advised that newcomers must find mentors, have conversations, foster collegial friendships and actively engage in self-initiated professional learning activities (Harding & Parsons, 2011:55).

2.5.3 Voluntary Participation Model

Alderman *et al.* (2012:27-28) accedes that the majority of articles they have examined, favoured voluntary mentorship programs over mandated ones. Newton, Mclean, Williams, Hardy, and Thompson (2011:6) predicate that the voluntary peer mentoring model is one that may be successfully applied in any organisation with a group of staff who have an interest in discussing issues facing new professionals, and focusing on their professional development.

Most facilitated programs target highly talented individuals that the company feels will benefit from having a trusted advisor (Coll & Raghavan, 2012:69). Coll and Raghavan (2012:69) postulate that mentors must be voluntary for the program to work and not everyone is suited to be a mentor or wants to be a mentor and an individual who is forced to participate may lack commitment and not be able to assist the mentee. This lack of commitment will frustrate the mentee and will sour the mentee's perception of the company and process, defeating the main objective of having a mentor program, but there is no conclusive evidence stating whether mentees should be voluntary (Coll & Raghavan, 2012:69).

Prout-Jones (2003:69) asseverates that the larger portion of voluntary mentoring is of some concern, as organisations are letting individuals do it on their own and very few are monitoring these relationships and not all mentors have the appropriate training.

Alderman, Blake, Cornell, Higgs and Klein (2012:28) postulate that a willingness on the part of both mentor and novice teacher must be present for a success relationship and in order to create a truly functional reciprocal relationship, there must be will and engagement by both members in the relationship. Alderman *et al.* (2012:28) continues that one negative aspect of voluntary mentorship is the lack of funding available for it. Voluntary programs can create resentment as not all new professionals will look for mentors or be selected by mentors and mentors tend to select like-minded novices (Alderman *et al.*, 2012:32). Alderman *et al.* (2012:28) conclude by saying that programs that are longer in duration are not necessarily focused solely on the mentor, but the reciprocity between mentor and novice.

2.5.4 Mandated Participation Model

Alderman *et al.* (2012:28) allege that only one article was written that recommended a mandated program and it believed that both mandated and voluntary forms had potential benefits and the reason for this is outlined in articles stating that willingness on the part of both mentor and novice teacher must be present for a success relationship. When mentorship is mandated it tends to taint the relationship (Alderman *et al.*, 2012:28).

2.5.5 One-on-One Pairing Model

Alderman *et al.* (2012:29) conjectures that the majority of articles they examined recommended mentorship programs that were one-on-one rather than group focussed.

DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn and Valentine (2011:57) suggest that from a developmental standpoint, benefits of participation in mentoring programs are apparent from early childhood to adolescence and thus not confined to a particular stage of development. Similarly, although programs typically have utilised adult volunteers and focused on cultivating one-on-one relationships, those that have engaged older peers as mentors or used group formats show comparable levels of effectiveness and collectively (DuBois *et al.*, 2011:57). These findings point toward the flexibility and broad applicability of mentoring as an approach for supporting positive youth development (DuBois *et al.*, 2011:57).

Syma and Henry (2009:178) asseverate that identifying areas where all generations can relate is a way to find commonality in colleagues and this allows a basic trust to be established in the relationship, which then sets up the opportunity for colleagues to learn from one another.

Cummings (2010:2) accedes that currently, one-on-one mentoring programs have been studied more extensively than group mentoring programs and report that a national one-on-one youth mentoring program has documented gains for mentored youth compared to non-mentored youth in a variety of areas. Cummings (2010:6) continues that, although considered the gold standard, the literature acknowledges that one-on-one mentoring programs have a chronic shortage of quality mentors which limits the growth of these initiatives and leaves many that would benefit from these relationships without mentors and in addition to contributing to the mentoring gap, one-on-one mentoring programs usually have a lot of flexibility that may motivate some mentors but intimidate others. Cummings (2010:6) concludes that this requires the mentor to identify and set up activities to promote the establishment of a meaningful relationship with their mentee.

2.5.6 Group Pairing Model

Johnson and Andersen (2010:120) postulate that although most human resource leaders still think in terms of traditional one-on-one mentoring when formulating mentoring programs, recent theoretical and empirical developments support the comparative virtues of developmental networks, or mentoring constellations.

Developmental network has been defined as the set of people a mentee names as taking an active interest in and action to advance the mentee's career by providing developmental assistance (Johnson & Andersen 2010:120). Johnson and Andersen (2010:120) conclude that rather than place the entire burden for career and personal development on a single mentor, organisations should recognise the value of multiple short-term mentors, peer mentors, mentoring groups, and online support communities.

Slauson, Carpenter and Snyder (2010:4) asseverate that beyond initial screening and matching issues, someone must be available to deal with mentor/mentee issues that arise. Slauson *et al.* (2010:4) continue that perhaps less of a one-on-one approach would be preferable so in other words, have a group of mentors.

DuBois *et al.* (2011:74) predicate that despite prevailing conceptualisations of mentoring as involving a one-on-one relationship between a young person and an adult, it is clear that programs also have been effective when utilising older peers as mentors and when mentors have worked with multiple youth in group contexts.

Cummings (2010:1) suggests that many students of colour may be more comfortable in, and better equipped to, benefit from group mentoring than from one-on-one mentoring. However, limited research on group mentoring has left many questions on the effectiveness, processes and best practices for group mentoring initiatives. Cummings (2010:6) asseverates that in contrast to one-on-one mentorship models, most group mentoring initiatives have a built-in curriculum or focus (e.g. problem behaviours). Due to its more efficacious use of resources, group mentoring has achieved recent popularity as

an alternative to one-on-one mentoring as it holds a specific appeal to school and community-based initiatives due to its cost effectiveness (Cummings, 2010:8).

Group mentoring makes more intensive use of mentors to serve a larger number of students providing support to students that would not otherwise be reached. In addition, it was found that within group mentoring initiatives, there are two levels of relationships that include the mentee to their peers and the mentee to the mentor (Cummings, 2010:8). Cummings (2010:8) concludes that these mechanisms include the development of interpersonal skills within the program mentees then utilise for the expansion of their social support networks beyond the group, and with greater efficacy in assessing and creating social networks it increases students' potential for future success and establishes important skills that can be utilised throughout life.

Hargreaves (2010:3) postulates that in the word co-construction, the prefix “co-“ does suggest the construction being made together, jointly, reciprocally, as a pair or group, rather than in subservience to another or others and consequently, when co-construction is at its most mutually beneficial collaborative learners complement and build on each other's' views to construct shared knowledge (Hargreaves, 2010:3). The concept of co-construction can also be associated with socio-cultural theories of learning where, within these theories, learning itself tends to be conceived more as an action of participation than as a construction of something (Hargreaves, 2010:3).

2.5.7 Apprentice Model

Alderman *et al.* (2012:30-31) asseverate that from their analysis of modes of delivery of mentorship models, two main approaches emerged: the collaborative model and the apprenticeship model. An environment where a group of mentors surround a mentee is needed, rather than just a single mentor as suggested by the apprenticeship model (Hellsten *et al.*, 2009:719).

Ahmad, Huffaker, Wang, Treem, Poole, and Srivastavals (2010:1294) observe that much of the literature portrays mentorship as primarily a one-on-one phenomenon, where a

mentor and apprentice form a strong mutual relationship. Recent research on networks suggests that many phenomena, previously regarded as primarily individual-level exchanges, are in fact more complex as mentoring may be more communal in nature (Ahmad *et al.*, 2010:1294). With this view mentoring is conducted by a larger community which gives the apprentice coaching, and the apprentice is embedded in a mentoring community rather than connected to a single mentor (Ahmad *et al.*, 2010:1294).

Asante (2011:34) postulates that, in the apprentice mentoring model, while the mentor tries to let the mentee get the sense of what is there, it must be done collaboratively; with joint planning, teaching of identified components of lessons, and then discussing these actions together.

Johnson (2012:16) predicates that the apprentice can be well served by a mentoring relationship in which the apprentice is equipped to apply the basics of his or her training within the context in which he or she serves. An apprentice may have received excellent training, might be emotionally prepared for the service, yet still not know what to do upon arrival at the field (Johnson, 2012:16). Johnson (2012:16) asseverates that during the apprenticeship term, the apprentice is expected to have exposure, opportunities for practice in which progress can be measured and consistent opportunities where competency can ultimately be assessed.

Abell, Park Rogers, Hanuscin, Lee and Gagnon (2009:88) postulate that the apprentice learns specific knowledge and skills and has the opportunity of practising in ways that approximate the work of the veteran and therefore the apprentice develops by actively engaging in discussion with a veteran and by reading about, discussing, and practising in small fragments.

Thomas (2011:38) asseverates that mentoring should be woven into company culture so that it becomes part of the day-to-day operations in order to provide the most effective manner by which knowledge can continually be transferred and shared if the organisation builds social learning into its operations. A manager with more experience might mentor an apprentice, while the apprentice mentors a novice within the same group and by doing this,

the novice gains an indirect benefit of having an apprentice mentor that can also share knowledge learned from the more experienced mentor, but in a language that might have more contexts to someone with limited experience (Thomas, 2011:38). Thomas (2011:40) concludes that based on the different levels of experience, novice to expert, research showed that an apprentice might be best suited mentoring a novice instead of an expert.

Ahmad *et al.* (2010:270-271) accede that people can have a variety of reasons for mentoring. However, the main goal of mentoring is usually the advancement of the apprentice. From the perspective of the apprentice the primary goal of mentoring is to increase the level of the apprentice and, as soon as the level of the mentee equals that of the mentor, it is not possible for the mentor to continue that mentorship process with the specific apprentice and, consequently there is a limit to the mentorship process (Ahmad *et al.*, 2010:274).

2.5.8 Collaborative Model

Alderman *et al.* (2012:30-31) postulate that the apprentice model differs from the collaborative model, which values a more reciprocal relationship and the mentor is seen as having a certain skill set, and the novice teacher also has his own skill set to pass onto the mentor. More equality and information seems to be flowing from one professional to another within the relationship (Alderman *et al.*, 2012:30-31).

Mullen and Schunk (2010:187) predicate that a premium is placed on continual learning; consequently it is essential that members share their points of view, seek to learn, and collaboratively promote desirable results in mentee achievement through consensus building. Elementary educators that discern a drop in student reading or mathematics test scores from one grade to the next could collaboratively mentor one another across grades to increase understanding of the skills and competencies required of students and to improve their own monitoring towards goals (Mullen & Schunk, 2010:191).

Mullen and Schunk (2010:191) asseverate that the mentoring leadership model underscores the role and importance of accountability for improvement, professional

development, and learning, but lopsided attention to this gives rise to technical or functional mentoring. This type of mentoring involves fewer players in decision-making and learning experiences, concentrates on the transfer of skills within training contexts, and reinforces the status quo (Mullen & Schunk, 2010:191). Mullen and Schunk (2010:191) conclude that collaborative mentoring is a more expansive concept of mentorship and promotes democratic accountability through lifelong learning, organisation-wide inclusiveness in reciprocal learning, collaborative practices, and shared governance.

Zipp and Olsen (2008:9) suggest that critical thinking is developed through a collaborative journey consisting of productive and positive activities, representing a process and not an outcome. Mentors must communicate and incorporate strategies to transform information so that the mentee “gets it”, to engage the mentee in “active collaborative” learning experiences, and to teach the mentee how to learn by “inquiry and reflection” (Zipp & Olsen, 2008:16).

Darwin and Palmer (2008:133) propose that the time allocated for the mentoring circles seems to be appropriate and many of the respondents benefit from working in a collaborative atmosphere and the latter point is deemed to be a benchmark of success. Mentoring circles work for those that feel comfortable in a collaborative group environment and not for those that feel uncomfortable sharing information with colleagues who have personalities, values and motives that differ from their own (Darwin & Palmer, 2008:133).

Fouché and Lunt (2010:393) advocate that learning organisations, which stress the development of a climate in which risk-taking, dialogue, and horizontal relationships are encouraged as a means of creating new knowledge. In this context, mentoring becomes a collaborative, dynamic, and creative partnership of co-equals, founded on openness, vulnerability, and the ability of both parties to take risks with one another beyond their professional roles (Fouché & Lunt, 2010:393).

Driscoll, Parkes, Tilley-Lubbs, Brill, and Pitts Bannister (2009:11) conjecture that collaborative consciousness occurs late in the collaborative process; it happens when collaborators accept the language, interpretations and conclusions of another member as

their own. The collaborative process is in progress when collaborators examine the differences in each other's points of view (Driscoll *et al.*, 2009:12). Driscoll *et al.* (2009:12) suggest that the critical stages of collaboration emerge when people examine the differences in another person's point of view and ultimately appreciate difference as a way of learning about oneself, others and the collaborative process. Reflecting on the collaborative process, one realises that it may have been short-sighted to expect an equivalent level of commitment from all group members simultaneously throughout the process; rather, the collaborative style works best when one is flexible and non-judgmental about participation and maintains on-going communication and negotiation (Driscoll *et al.*, 2009:12).

2.5.9 Mastery Model

Individuals look for capable models that have the knowledge, skills, and abilities they desire to possess (Bandura, 1997:88). Bandura (1997:88) predicates that one will locate such individuals by monitoring their behaviour and expressed ways of thinking. Bandura (1997:88) concludes that competent models transmit knowledge and teach observers effective skills and strategies for managing environmental demands.

Maruta (2012:3) explains that the Facility-based approach suggests that to foster a team approach to quality, the mentorship model employed a facility-based approach. Maruta (2012:3) continues that in this model the mentor does not focus on specific individuals (e.g. the laboratory supervisor) but rather works with all laboratory staff, including supervisors, technologists, microscopists and sample transporters. The mentor will be embedded within the operations of the laboratory in order to understand its processes, challenges, and the strengths and capabilities of the staff and consequently the mentor will work alongside the laboratory staff as an experienced peer (Maruta, 2012:3).

2.6 Well-Being

Seligman (2011:13) asserts that the core of positive psychology is well-being of the individual, whilst the gold standard for measuring well-being is the flourishing of the individual. The assumption then is that the ultimate goal of positive psychology is to increase flourishing. Dodge, R., Daly, A., Huyton, J., & Sanders, L (2012:226) add that the set of building blocks for a flourishing life is **P**ositive Emotion, **E**ngagement, **R**elationships, **M**eaning, and **A**ccomplishment (PERMA).

Yarnell and Neff (2013:7) suggest that feelings of relational well-being is often related to dealing with conflicts in a manner that meets both the need of the Self and the needs of other individuals and is likely to create harmony within a relationship.

Church, Katigbak, Locke, Zhang, Shen, Vargas-Flores, Ibáñez-Reyes, Tanaka-Matsumi, Curtis, Cabrera, Mastor, Alvarez, Ortiz, Simon and Ching (2012:526) propose that individuals in different cultures vary, on average, in their perceptions of need satisfaction and well-being, but nonetheless, perceived need satisfaction can have a positive impact on well-being across cultures. Needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness as well as self-actualisation are universally important in terms of well-being (Church *et al.*, 2012:526). Church *et al.* (2012:526) conclude that interventions that facilitate need satisfaction can benefit mental health around the world.

2.7 The Relationship between Mentorship and Well-being

Goldner and Mayseless (2009:1345) postulate that closeness as reported by mentees was positively associated with mentees' reports regarding the contribution of mentoring to well-being. The perceived support of the mentor was enhanced and may reflect the centrality of this relationship in the mentee's social network; hence its sensitivity to internal improvements in wellbeing (Goldner & Mayseless, 2009:1346). In addition to closeness in the relationships, unrealistic expectations and dependency were also qualities associated with mentoring success (Goldner & Mayseless, 2009:1346).

Eby, Butts, Durley, and Ragins (2010:83) accede that the examination of overall relational quality and motivational intentions related to the relationship, psychological and physiological indicators of well-being. The importance of expanding the range of outcomes examined in relation to mentoring is underscored by recalling that mentoring relationships are developmental and relational in nature – they are not simply tickets to advancement in organisational settings (Eby *et al.*, 2010:83). For mentees, the average extent of good and bad experiences is likely to influence overall perceptions of relational quality, intentions to stay in the mentoring relationship, and indicators of psychological and physiological well-being (Eby *et al.*, 2010:83). Eby *et al.* (2010:83) conclude that a well-established body of social-psychological research on close relationships links both positive and negative relational experiences to perceived quality of the relationship and intentions to stay in the relationship.

Poteat, Shockley and Allen (2009:333) suggest that the negative emotions accompanying non-mutuality are detrimental to well-being. For example, individuals that are more committed to the relationship than the partnership may experience anxiety, insecurity and mistrust, which may lead to decreased well-being. Similarly, individuals that are less committed to the relationship than the partnership may experience unwanted responsibility, irritation, guilt, or resentment, which may also have a negative effect on well-being (Poteat *et al.*, 2009:333).

Cameron and Spreitzer (2010:23) presuppose that partner affirmations take the form of perceptual affirmation where partners view each other in terms of their ideal selves, and behavioural affirmations, where individuals help their partners engage in behaviours that are aligned with their ideal selves by directly eliciting or creating opportunities to engage in desired behaviours, or by decreasing the opportunity to engage in behaviours that conflict with ideal selves. Movement towards ideal selves predicts positive outcomes reflecting relational and personal well-being, life satisfaction, emotional well-being, self-esteem, vitality, relational stability and relational satisfaction (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2010:23).

Huppert (2009:137) postulates that psychological well-being is about lives going well and it is the combination of feeling good and functioning effectively. Sustainable well-being does

not require individuals to feel good all the time; the experience of painful emotions (e.g. disappointment, failure, grief) is a normal part of life, and being able to manage these negative or painful emotions is essential for long-term well-being (Huppert, 2009:137). Huppert (2009:137) continues by saying that psychological well-being is, however, compromised when negative emotions are extreme or very long lasting and interfere with a person's ability to function in his or her daily life. Both humans and primates have shown that the role of the father (mentor) as well as the mother (mentor) is important in the development of well-being and by having an absent, abusive, or authoritarian father/mother is associated with an increased risk of mental health problems in adolescence and early adulthood (Huppert, 2009:137).

Stamm and Buddeberg-Fischer (2011:495) suggest that questions have been raised as to which elements of mentoring are important for career advancement and, drawing on the distinction between career support and psychosocial support, it bears out the suggestion that career support is more important to career success than psychosocial support, which might be more relevant to well-being at work.

2.8 Conclusion

The term "Mentor" is not a new term and was established in historical times where more experienced people had the opportunity of contributing to the lives of inexperienced individuals. Mentoring is largely found in medical institutions, school structures and the sport world and recently, the corporate world has entered this paradigm in order to better equip, skill and mentally care for their workforce.

Mentoring is a process that occurs over a period of time. The individual is gradually sculpted, but also given the opportunity to add their own style to their own development as the new knowledge and wisdom is shared with them. Mentorship has advantages and disadvantages, but research shows that the advantages supersede the latter.

Research has shown that organisations develop and have a sense of stability as a result of a more satisfied workforce, probably due to them being cared for. Knowledge is transferred

in the mentorship process without having to “re-design the wheel” and, as a result of the learning process, people seem to grasp how and be able to do certain tasks quicker.

South Africa, as a developing nation, is emphasising care and growth of the work force where training, development, education and mentorship form an integral part. It is evident that there is much room for improvement.

In Chapter 3, the methodology used in order to gather the necessary data will be explained in detail. The quantitative methodology employed in this study will be discussed, as well as the questionnaires utilized.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the nature of mentorship was discussed, especially how it is perceived as well as the mentoring processes that could be followed. The advantages and disadvantages of mentorship were considered and whether it contributes to organisational development globally as well as in a South African context. Finally, education, training and development were examined within a mentorship context, whether it contributed to well-being and whether there was any relationship between mentorship and well-being.

In this chapter, the author will discuss the research methodology followed as well as why this type of research was chosen and, finally, how it is perceived to contribute to the study.

The main objectives of this study focussed on the pragmatic evaluation, according to the perception of respondents, of the effect of mentorship, or the lack thereof, on the well-being of the employee. Consequently, the study adopted a quantitative methodology, where more than one standardised questionnaire was utilized. The use of multiple sources of data helped to combat concerns over mono-method bias and improved construct validity (Jick, 1979:608; Allen *et al.*, 2008:346).

3.2 Research Design

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009:266) postulate that there have been numerous waves or phases in research and in many disciplines, the quantitative research paradigm, which incorporates multiple types of quantitative research designs, was the first and only research design choice. The quantitative research paradigm was considered 'research' because it was the first research paradigm that incorporated ontological, epistemological,

axiological, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions and principles (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009:266)

3.2.1 Research Disciplines

Heppner, Wampold and Kivlighan Jr. (2008:5) advocate that the scientific method was developed to create knowledge and explained that the scientific method was basically a set of assumptions and rules about collecting and evaluating data. Heppner *et al.* (2008:5) continues in asseverating that the explicitly stated assumptions and rules enable a standard, systematic method of investigation designed to reduce bias as much as possible. Central to the scientific method is the collection of data that allowed researchers to put their ideas to an empirical test, outside of or apart from their personal biases and in essence, the proof of the science was in the data (Heppner *et al.*, 2008:5).

Yoshikawa, Weisner, Kalil, and Way (2008:352) suggested that the focus of research should be on the respondents, the contexts in which they live, the theory, and the emerging story that the accumulated evidence tells and not on the method used to gather such evidence.

Borrego, Douglas and Amelink (2009:54) postulate that quantitative methods were a good fit for deductive approaches, in which a theory or hypothesis justified the variables, the purpose statement, and the direction of the narrowly defined research questions. The purpose of quantitative studies is for the researcher to project his or her findings onto the larger population through an objective process (Borrego *et al.*, 2009:54; Holton and Burnett, 1997:71). Borrego *et al.* (2009:54) accedes that data collected, often through surveys administered to a sample or subset of the entire population, allowed the researcher to generalize or make inferences where the conclusions found among the sample could be replicated within the larger population.

Creswell (2008:124) and Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) postulate that in quantitative studies, researchers used research questions and hypotheses to shape and specifically focus the purpose of the study, where research questions and interrogative

statements or questions are used for that which the researcher seeks to answer. Creswell (2008:124) continues in saying that questions were used frequently in social science research and especially in survey studies, whereas hypotheses are predictions the research holds concerning the relationship among variables.

Quantitative strategies involve complex experiments with many variables and treatments (e.g. factorial designs and repeated measure designs), and Creswell (2008:15-16) adds that they also included elaborate structural equation models that incorporated causal paths and the identification of the collective strength of multiple variables. Creswell's (2008:15-16) inquiries included experiments and surveys. Experiments included true experiments, with the random assignment of subjects to treatment conditions, as well as quasi-experiments that used nonrandomized designs and included single-subject designs within quasi-experiments (Creswell, 2008:15-16). Surveys, on the other hand, included cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalising from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2008:15-16).

Heppner *et al.* (2009:65-66) maintained that the basic tasks of the experimenter was to design research in such a way as to describe a phenomenon or identify relationships between constructs while ruling out as many plausible rival hypotheses or explanations as possible.

As quantitative data were in the form of numbers and units (Cameron & Price, 2009:212) which could be seen as both an advantage and a disadvantage as it did not elaborate on the rationale of respondents in a study. Allen *et al.* (2008:346) added that quantitative data was excellent for identifying the prevalence of phenomena and precisely measuring specific variables.

The most common disadvantages of quantitative research methods included the difficulty of obtaining random samples. (Swanson & Holton, 2005:33). Maxwell (2010:479) acceded that a particular setting or sample may be unrepresentative, and a facetious reading of quantitative results may lead a reader to ignore this limitation. Freitas (2012:49) concluded

that quantitative research was a process of testing objective theories by assessing the relationship among variables and as the data is numerical these variables can be measured with analytic instruments using statistical procedures.

Fraenkel and Wallen (2010:328-343) suggested that correlational research, such as causal-comparative research is an example of what is occasionally referred to as associational research. In associational research, the relationships among two or more variables were studied without any attempt to influence them and in their simplest form (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2010:328-343). Correlational studies investigated the possibility of relationships between only two variables, although investigations of more than two variables were common. Fraenkel and Wallen (2010:328-343) acquiesced by saying that in contrast to experimental research, however, there were no manipulation of variables in correlational research.

Correlational research is also occasionally referred to as a form of descriptive research because it describes an existing relationship between variables (Fraenkel & Wallen 2010:328-343). Fraenkel and Wallen (2010:328-343) postulate that a correlational study described the degree to which two or more quantitative variables were related by making use of a correlational coefficient. A correlational research design was generally carried out for one of two basic purposes and that was either to help explain important human behaviours or to predict likely outcomes (Fraenkel & Wallen 2010:328-343).

3.2.2 Data Collection Method

Rogers, Kranz and Ferguson (2012:3-4) postulate that the method employed for data collection may be called the “embedded researcher” method, as Salganik and Heckathorn (2004) stated that a variety of respondent-driven sampling had shown to be useful in populations resistant to traditional data collection tactics (e.g. Mail surveys, phone interviews, etc.). Rogers *et al.* (2012:3-4) suggested that this method consists of employing a researcher that was an “embedded” resident of the community in which (and about which) data was collected. As a member of the research respondents’ family or friend networks, an embedded researcher automatically possessed a high degree of cultural

competence and may have collected data from individuals otherwise disinclined to participate in research (Rogers *et al.*, 2012:3-4).

A simple method for this assessment was a questionnaire, based on known “problem areas” and scientific recommendations, which could be used to determine the existing state of well-being as perceived by the individual and inevitably enabling the researcher to formulate an effective educational approach for individuals and groups (Ralph, 2012:8).

3.3 Research Methodology

Aspiring to answer the research question of this research involved the use of both primary research and secondary research. Greener (2008:10) postulates that many authors used the terms interchangeably, but there is a correct way of using them and as students of “Research Methods”, we must know the difference. Textbooks usually treat this differentiation differently but research “methods” usually refers to specific activities designed to generate data (e.g. questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observation) and research “methodology” is more about one’s attitude to and one’s understanding of research and the strategy you choose to answer questions (Greener, 2008:10). It was the ontological (philosophical study of the nature of being) and epistemological (a branch of philosophy that investigated the origin, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge) stance of the researcher that affected the methodology and specific methods they chose for their research (Greener, 2008:35).

The empirical method in this research was based on a survey. Utilising a survey as the research method enabled the researcher to collect quantitative data which provided control over the research process. The survey was performed using questionnaires as a method to determine the employees’ perception on the impact of their mentorship experience or the lack thereof in their lives.

The form of mentorship was not determined, as the respondents were simply asked whether they were subjected to some form of mentorship and how they felt it had impact on their overall well-being. The mentored versus the non-mentored group categorised

themselves based on their perception of the term mentorship and their exposure to mentorship throughout their career. Thus, the respondents self-selected the groups into which they distinguished themselves to be.

3.3.1 Variables

Mentorship was the independent variable in this study and well-being the dependent variable. Gender, year of birth and age, ethnicity, language, level of education, level of position at work, area of expertise at work, household situation, number and ages of children were some of the variables accounted for as part of the demographic information required within the questionnaire. Well-being was measured by the mental health continuum and the general health questionnaire. Both these concepts were measured according to the perception of the respondent and how the respondent perceived mentorship to have had an influence on his/her general well-being.

There is always some form of mentorship, be it from leading by example or a more formal approach by actually mentoring someone; thus being independent and not influenced by external factors to a large degree (Livingston, 2010:40).

Well-being on the other hand is influenced by external factors, be it positive impacts that improve well-being or negative impacts that assist in the deterioration of well-being (Goldner & Mayseless, 2009:1346).

Consequently, this quantitative study has focussed on employees/mentees that had/had not undergone mentoring from a senior individual during their careers.

3.3.2 Participating Organisation

There was one participating organisation in this study, **AEL Mining Services**. AEL Mining Services' head offices are located in Modderfontein, Gauteng region. They manufacture explosives and deploy it and accompanying initiating systems in the world's deepest mining operations as well as at one of the highest mines in Africa.

As one of the leading explosive companies with a century old history, AEL truly understands the enormous responsibility of its role in mining the earth. AEL also deeply appreciates the importance of mining to the welfare of a nation's people and the development of economies. AEL strives to take meticulous care in the development, supply and application of its energy solutions in mining industries around the world. After all, AEL breaks rock – with meticulous care and well-controlled energy.

In this, AEL also strives to continually evolve and remain relevant to its customers and the broader community of stakeholders. AEL takes its role as leader in many markets, applications and technologies very seriously, believing in the power of active collaboration with its customers. AEL's passion for meticulous care and controlled energy drives its customer focus and innovation. It strongly underpins AEL's corporate objective 'to continually evolve and remain relevant'. It ensures a sharpness in AEL's core competencies of 'making its technologies significantly beneficial and immensely accessible'. In this, AEL's resolve to "unearth wealth with meticulous care, and energy" extends more broadly:

- To unearthing the wealth of talent in its people and energising them to do remarkable work
- To unearthing the wealth in its technology programmes and energetically bringing them to fruition
- To unearthing the wealth and energy in productive and mutually beneficial customer relationships
- To unearthing the wealth that mining brings to a nation's people... and 'how AEL can contribute more broadly'.
- To deliver this, AEL constantly has to rely on its values of 'confidence, courage and care'.

AEL applies its learning to successfully develop and bring appropriate technologies and services to mining industries throughout the world.'

To this end, based on the vision and mission of the organisation, AEL commits itself to:

- **Quality through a culture of continuous improvement**

AEL understands why quality is important to its customers. At the rock face, we learn through experience how our products and services can deliver improved results for your mine. This is what drives our investment in continuously improving our market offering. Customers reap the benefits of this continuous improvement as we provide you with superior products and better blasting efficiencies, at a competitive cost. We call it 'total blasting solutions.'

AEL will continue to maintain and develop an internationally accepted quality management system according to AEL's accredited ISO 9001 and world-class rating. AEL also adheres to the United Nations' quality standards, as set out in the international markets.

- **Safety, health and environmental**

AEL has always operated an environmental management system, but this was formalised in 1996 when AEL achieved ISO14001 listing for seven of its sites - Modderfontein, Mankwe, Witbank, Potgietersrus, Lichtenberg, Thabazimbi and Nelspruit. In 2009 AEL retained its listing and a further 21 sites were added - Vereeniging, Westville, East London, Somerset West, Klerksdorp, Lime Acres, Kimberley, Musina, Steelpoort, three sites in Zambia and Botswana and five sites in Ghana.

This international standard ensures that AEL manages its environmental impact while adhering to the requirements of international norms, legislation and regulations. It forms the foundation for continuous improvement in environmental performance.

- **Product stewardship “From cradle to grave”**

In the blasting industry, when a supplier's value system lacks product stewardship, it is reasonable to expect that both supplier and mining employees will be exposed to unnecessary risks and danger. These risks become apparent when potentially dangerous explosives need to be relocated, or expired products have to be disposed

of safety. They also manifest when hazardous elements are used in products themselves, which compromise the safety of the mining environment.

AEL takes ownership of, and responsibility for, the entire chain of supply to our customers. For many years, AEL has practised product stewardship - a moral and ethical code along the life cycle of a product or service. This involves an absolute commitment to, and responsible management of our products, throughout their life cycles. We focus on performance, health, safety and environmental issues in each life cycle phase, while also adhering to the Explosives Act and Minerals Act.

Product stewardship is thus a comprehensive cradle-to-grave approach for each product and service. It goes beyond traditional manufacturing to include suppliers, contractors, distributors and customers. It affords us the opportunity of analysing existing practices, identifying gaps leading to potential liabilities, developing processes that will add value to our business results. (Anon, 2012)

With its large team of leading engineers and scientists, AEL has over a century of expertise and knowledge in developing ground-breaking and innovative blasting solutions.

AEL partners with academic institutions to conduct fundamental research that will ultimately benefit industry.

AEL's Research and Development department has pioneered and patented many world firsts, one of them being the world's first commercial pyrotechnic spray drying plant, which will provide all the delay powders the company needs for its new multi-million rand automated assembly plant. (Anon, 2012)

AEL Mining Services is a long-standing company with more than a hundred years' experience in the market and is supported by a vast pool of employees with experience, acquired through many years. No mentorship programs were offered within the organisation and it was realized that, as a result, a vast amount of knowledge was lost when a veteran left the organisation. There was a need to ascertain how the employee

pool perceived the experience of some form of mentorship, or the lack thereof, to have impacted their lives in terms of general well-being. Consequently having a large pool of employees survey documents were remitted in order to gather the necessary data.

3.4 Researcher's Role

Marshall and Rossman (1999:21) conjectured that for the social scientist or researcher in applied fields, research was a process of trying to gain a better understanding of the complexities of human experience and, in some genres of research, to take action based on that understanding. Marshall and Rossman (1999:21) concluded that through systematic and collaborative strategies, the researcher gathered information about actions and interactions, reflected on their meaning, arrived at and evaluated conclusions, and eventually put forward an interpretation, most frequently in written form.

Angrosino (2005: 734) acceded that the researcher's role is developing in response to a greater consciousness of situational identities and to the perception of relative power. Postmodernism emphasized the importance of understanding the researcher's context (gender, class, ethnicity, etc.) as part of narrative interpretation and by extension, researchers were increasingly making known their membership identity in the communities they study (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009:55).

The researcher is an employee of AEL Mining Services and will provide the HR department of AEL Mining Services with validated survey documents. These documents were electronically forwarded to the identified HR practitioner who would be in control of the circulation process as well as the anonymity of each and every respondent that would be taking part in the survey. Prior to this phase, an informed consent form was sent to the same pool of employees and only after they had accepted and consented to be part of this research study, would they be eligible to receive the survey documents.

These survey documents were circulated within the AEL data base to all employees having access to email facilities, a total of 1 200 employees. Upon completion of the survey document, each respondent returned their completed survey document to the HR

department by electronically forwarding it back to the original sender being the dedicated HR practitioner (not part of this study) allocated for this assignment.

This HR practitioner had to make sure that all possible traces of identifying the respondents were deleted from each email, e.g. personal signatures or identification marks. Only the completed questionnaires were handed to the researcher who compiled a data set that contained all the responses per individual respondent. The data set was sent to the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University, Potchefstroom campus for analysis. The data was analysed to determine the mental health of the respondents based on how they perceived the form of mentorship they experienced or the lack thereof, to have contributed to their general well-being.

3.5 Study Population and Sample

As a result, this quantitative study focused on employees that perceived themselves to have been part of some form of mentoring from a senior individual or not. From AEL Mining Services there were two groups of respondents, those that perceived themselves to have received some form of mentoring and those that did not.

A total number of 79 (15 subjected to some form of mentoring and 64 with no form mentoring) respondents were selected via an availability sample from the AEL Mining Services' email database, using the services of the AEL Human Resource (HR) Department (See 3.4, p 64 and 65, for a description of this process). Finally, the researcher was able to capture the responses onto a database.

The survey documents, consisted of a demographic sheet, two questionnaires, and an informed consent form. The purpose of the study was to investigate well-being, based on life experiences, linked to employees perceiving themselves as having either formal or informal mentorship. The study also investigated well-being, based on the life experiences of employees that did not perceive themselves to be subjected to mentorship.

The intent of the quantitative research was to examine whether the achievement gap had widened or narrowed from an individual that was subjected to mentorship to one that did not receive any form of mentorship at all (flourishing or languishing) among a cohort of 79 employees that made up 6.1% of the employee pool of AEL Mining Services. To be included in this cohort, the respondent needed to be an employee of AEL Mining Services and have/have not been subjected to some form of mentorship.

3.6 Data Collection

Creswell, Klassen, Plano Clark and Smith (2010:4-5) suggested that data collection in the form of quantitative research was a mode of inquiry used often for deductive research, when the goal was to test theories or hypotheses, gather descriptive information, or examine relationships among variables. These variables were measured and yielded numeric data that could be analysed statistically (Creswell *et al.*, 2010:4-5). Quantitative data have the potential of providing measurable evidence, to assist in establishing probable cause and effect, yielding efficient data collection procedures, creating the possibility of replication and generalisation to a population, to facilitating the comparison of groups, and in providing insight into a breadth of experiences (Creswell *et al.*, 2010:4-5).

3.6.1 Measuring Instruments

Byrne, Leong, Hambleton, Oakland, Van De Vijver, Cheung and Bartram (2009:99), postulate that the need to be critical of the instruments we use is apparent and therefore the recommendation is to use only those instruments shown to yield reliable and valid scores within a multicultural context that is self-evident and consistent with existing standards. Byrne *et al.* (2009:99) conclude in saying that credible and unbiased research findings coupled with psychometrically sound selection and use of assessment instruments contribute importantly to attaining the gold standard for research and testing practices.

Jung, Scott, Davies, Bower, Whalley, McNally and Mannion (2009:1088) asseverate that instead of taking a limited view of organizational culture that encourages subdivision and fragmentation, they prefer to explore it from a plurality of perspectives, each offering

different insights and approaches. Similarly, they do not see “instrument” in the sense of a precise measuring tool, but take a broader perspective and consider it as a general means that encompasses any method of gauging organizational culture (Jung *et al.*, 2009:1088). Jung *et al.* (2009:1088) conclude in stating that a typical review would include a spectrum of perspectives and approaches, from specific quantitative tools aimed at measuring culture through more flexible and emergent approaches.

For this study, the Mental Health Continuum and the General Health Questionnaire was utilised in order to determine the level of well-being as perceived by the respondent, based on mentorship or the lack thereof.

Table 3.1: Motivation for Measurement inclusion

Measurement Instruments	Reasons for inclusion of each measure as it relates to the research question
Biographical Survey	This survey was done in order to ascertain where the respondents fit into the organisational structure as well as their general demographic information which would be valuable to see how their general state regarding well-being could influence the environment in which they find themselves at a certain point in time.
Mental Health Continuum	This standardised instrument is focussed on measuring either flourishing or languishing in order to determine the level of mental health at a specific point in time. The respondents were prompted to answer this instrument, taking into consideration how they perceived mentorship or the lack thereof to have influenced their response.
General Health Questionnaire	This standardised instrument explores the underlying concepts that influence languishing as part of diminished mental health. The respondents were prompted to answer this instrument, taking into consideration how they perceived mentorship or the lack thereof to have influenced their response.

The Informed Consent form (Annexure A) sent to the respondents refer to an interview that would have been done with selected respondents so as to ascertain their personal view on mentorship, what they perceive it to be and how they perceived it to have influenced their lives. This idea was discarded after one of the companies withdrew their willingness to participate. The original intent was to ascertain the view on mentorship from two different organisations and see whether there was any correlation in the methods used regarding mentorship. Due to the withdrawal of the second company, this idea was no longer viable. At this time the Informed Consent form could not be changed.

3.6.2 Mental Health Continuum

The Mental Health Continuum-Short Form (MHC-SF) (Annexure D) is a standardised questionnaire and has been found to replicate the structure of the original questionnaire in a sample of Setswana-speaking adults in the North-West Province (Keyes, Wissing, Potgieter, Temane, Kruger & Van Rooy, 2008:181). Internal reliability of the overall MHC-SF scale was found to be adequate with a Cronbach alpha of 0.74, which is an adequate level of reliability in respect of the study sample.

The MHC-SF comprises 14 items. It measures the degree of (1) emotional well-being (items 1-3) as defined in terms of the presence of positive affect (PA) and satisfaction with life; (2) social well-being (items 4-8) as described in Keyes' (1998:121-140) model of social well-being (one item on each of the facets of social acceptance, social actualization, social contribution, social coherence and social integration); and (3) psychological well-being (items 9-14) as described in Ryff's (1989:1069-1080) model (including one item on each of the dimensions of autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life and self-acceptance). Dimensions and scales of subjective well-being are reviewed and conceived as mental health symptoms (Keyes, 2002:207).

To diagnose mental health, all scales of well-being are divided by the number of constituent items, standardized, and tertiles are computed for each scale. Individuals with scores in the upper tertiles of one of the two emotional well-being scales and six of the 11 scales of psychological and social well-being are classified as flourishing (Keyes,

2002:212). Individuals with scores in the lower tertiles of one of the two emotional well-being scales and six of the 11 scales of psychological and social well-being are classified as languishing (Keyes, 2002:212). Adults that are neither flourishing nor languishing are classified as moderately mentally healthy (Keyes, 2002:212).

3.6.3 General Health Questionnaire

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) (Annexure E) is also a standardised questionnaire and has four subscales (Somatic Symptoms, Anxiety and Insomnia, Social Dysfunction, and Severe Depression) developed by principal components analysis and varimax rotation (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979:139). Each scale consists of seven items and the sum of these scale scores yields a single score, for which threshold scores of 4 or 5 (bimodal scoring) would indicate probable psychiatric disorder.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to distinguish people with some form of psychological disturbance from those that are relatively healthy. The assumption is that, although mental disorders may manifest with a wide range of symptoms, there is an underlying commonality to all these states. This common denominator is the disruption in the performance of daily life activities and the experience of subjective distress (Goldberg & Williams, 1988).

Validity of the GHQ-28 is supported by numerous studies investigating the specificity (probability that a 'true normal' will be correctly identified) and sensitivity (probability that a 'true abnormal' case will be correctly identified) of each scale across a variety of cultures. The median specificity of the GHQ-28 is .82 and the median sensitivity is .86 (Goldberg & Williams, 1988), an adequate level of specificity and sensitivity for this study.

3.6.4 Measuring Procedure

The quantitative research methodology followed was a cohort study where it sampled a particular population whose members did not change over the course of the survey. In view of the aim and objectives of the study (pragmatic evaluation, according to the perception of respondents, on the effect of mentorship, or the lack thereof, on the well-being of the

employee), the author opted for a quantitative methodology. In addition, the use of multiple sources of data helped combat concerns regarding mono-method bias and improved construct validity through triangulation (Jick, 1979:608; Allen *et al.*, 2008:346). Data were collected to determine the relationship between mentorship, the lack thereof and the well-being of the respondent exposed to either situation.

Employees with access to email each received an electronic copy of an informed consent form which they completed and signed. They then sent it back to the HR practitioner from whom they received the document. Based on the consent of the employees, they were selected as respondents within this study and were allowed to participate.

Questionnaires were electronically distributed within the AEL organisation to all employees who consented to participate. They were prompted to answer the questions within the questionnaires based on how they perceived their experience of mentorship or the lack thereof had an impact on their well-being. According to the Statistical Consultation Services of the NWU, the minimum acceptable number of questionnaires for this type of study was 70. All returned questionnaires were used in the quantitative data analysis phase.

No random selection took place. All employees with access to email and who had given consent received a questionnaire. In addition to the informed consent form, each respondent, by choosing to complete the questionnaire, once again verified that he/she consented to being part of the research. The respondents grouped themselves into two groups, based on their perception of either having been exposed to some form of mentorship or not having been exposed to mentorship at all.

Based on Fraenkel and Wallen's definition (2008:98) of convenience sampling where they acceded that convenience sampling took place when a group of individuals were used based on availability for a study. Consequently convenience sampling was used for this research. Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:99) acknowledged that in general, convenience samples cannot be considered representative of any population but unfortunately, at times that is the only option.

3.7 Data Analysis

The Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University determined the statistical methods and procedures for the analyses of the research data. The North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) uses the SPSS statistical package (SPSS, 2006 data analysis software system) for all statistical analysis and is the compulsory statistical analysis method for all Quantitative research. Respondent's responses were grouped according to their exposure to what they understand/perceive mentorship to be. The experimental group, a total of 15 respondents, that perceived themselves to previously have been exposed to some form of mentoring, and the control group, which consisted of 64 respondents that did not perceive themselves to have received any form of career-wise mentorship.

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) continue in saying that the p-value is a criterion of statistical significance, giving the probability that the obtained value (or more extreme) could be obtained under the assumption that the null hypothesis (e.g. no difference between the population means) is true. asseverate that a small p-value (e.g. smaller than 0.05) is considered to be sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant, but statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the result is important in practice as these tests have a tendency to yield small p-values (indicating significance) as the sizes of the data sets increase Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53).

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) propose that in many cases researchers are forced to consider their obtained results as a sub-population of the target population due to convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is often erroneously analysed as if it were obtained by random sampling Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53). Consequently, according to Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53), these data should be considered small populations for which statistical inference and p-values are not relevant as statistical inference draws conclusions regarding the population from which a random sample was drawn, using the descriptive measures that have been calculated. Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) suggest that instead of only reporting descriptive statistics in these cases, effect sizes can be determined and

practical significance can be understood as a large enough difference to have an effect in practice.

3.7.1 Effect Size for the Difference between Means

If a sample is small, it is possible that results may be practically significant even if it is not statistically significant. Statistical significance tests have a tendency to yield small p-values (indicating significance) as the size of the data sets increase (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51-53). The effect size is independent of sample size and is a measure of practical significance (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51-53). It can be understood as a large enough effect to be important in practice (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51-53).

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) advocate that a natural way to comment on practical significance is by using the standardised difference between the means of two populations, i.e. the difference between the two means divided by the estimate for standard deviation, see Table 3.1. Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) introduced a measure called the effect size, which not only makes the difference independent of units and sample size, but relates it also with the spread of the data.

Table 3.2: Effect sizes for means

Test	Conditions	Effect size
z or t	$\bar{x}_E$: experimental $\bar{x}_K, s_K$: control	$d = \frac{ \bar{x}_E - \bar{x}_K }{s_K} \quad (1)$
z or t	Population SD's σ_1 and σ_2 not necessarily equal. Take $s_{\max}$ = maximum of s_1 and s_2 , the sample SD's.	$d = \frac{ \bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 }{s_{\max}} \quad (2)$
t	$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$: Take s the pooled standard deviation from the samples.	$d = \frac{ \bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 }{s} \quad (3)$
ANOVA	$\sigma_i = \sigma_j$ for all i, j : Take MSE the mean square error of analysis of variance	$d = \frac{ \bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j }{\sqrt{MSE}} \quad (4)$

At formula (1) the difference in means relative to the control group's standard deviation is used, since in such cases the control group is the point of departure. When no control group exists, the division by $s_{\max}$ in formula (2) gives rise to a conservative effect size in the sense that a practically significant result will not be concluded too easily.

Cohen (1988), as quoted by Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53), give the following guidelines for interpreting the effect size in the current case:

- (a) small effect: $d=0.2$,
- (b) medium effect: $d=0.5$ and
- (c) large effect: $d=0.8$.

We consider data with $d \geq 0.8$ as practically significant.

3.7.2 Effect size for the Relationship in a Contingency Table

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) conjecture that in many cases it is important to know whether a relationship between two variables is practically significant. For random samples, the statistical significance of such relationships are determined with Chi-square tests, but actually one wants to know whether the relationship is large enough to be important Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53).

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) asseverate that in this case the effect size is the square root of the usual (Chi-square statistic divided by the sample size)

Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) continue by saying that in the special case of a 2 x 2 table, the effect size (w) is given by the phi (ϕ) coefficient, and take note that the effect size is again independent of sample size. Cohen (1988), as quoted by Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53), gives the following guidelines for interpreting it in the current case:

(a) small effect: $w = 0.1$,

(b) medium effect: $w = 0.3$,

(c) large effect: $w = 0.5$.

A relationship with $w \leq 0.5$ is considered to be practically significant.

3.8 Techniques of Statistics Analysis

The following techniques of analysis were used to examine the objective:

- Firstly, factor analysis was performed on the measuring instruments to determine construct validity and calculation of Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the reliability of the measuring instruments.
- Descriptive statistics included measures of central tendency and variability.
- Next, chi square tests were performed to determine whether the groups differed statistically and practically significantly from one another.

- *T*-tests were then used to measure the difference in well-being between the psychological measurements and the gender, ethnicity, language and finally the mentored against the non-mentored groups.
- Next, ANOVA were used to measure the difference in well-being between the psychological measurements and the household situation.
- Spearman Rank Order correlation was performed next: The non-parametric statistical Spearman Rank Order correlation analysis was used in the study to measure the relationship between different measuring instruments.
- Finally, ANCOVA analyses excluded age in order to determine whether the statistically significant difference between the mentored/non-mentored groups held up.

Byun, Ruffini, Mills, Douglas, Niang, Stepchenkova, Lee, Loutfi, Lee, Atallah and Blanton (2009:206) advocate that the outcomes of a quantitative meta-analysis serves as a basis for those looking forward to expanding a field of study not simply as an accumulation of relevant knowledge but more as a basis of formulating a more sustainable foundation for the development of treatment approaches.

3.9 Triangulation

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007:114) accede that the most persuasive evidence comes through a triangulation of measurement processes and if a proposition can survive the onslaught of a series of imperfect measures, with all their irrelevant error, confidence should be placed in it. In social science, triangulation means that we investigate a given question using multiple methods and different approaches (Jick, 1979:608). Fraenkel and Wallen (2010:510) add that triangulation is fundamental in ethnographic research. Gratton and Jones (2010:119-120) postulate that triangulation in its most common form refers to the use of multiple means of data collection to explore a single phenomenon. The basis of

triangulation refers to the use of data from different methods which allow you to draw the same conclusions (Gratton & Jones, 2010:119-120).

In this study we opted to make use of both the Mental Health Continuum and the General Health Questionnaire to ascertain the general well-being of the respondents. Gratton and Jones (2010:121) predicate that triangulation can strengthen the validity of the research, and is useful as a means to demonstrate trustworthiness in the analysis (Gratton and Jones 2010:247).

Fraenkel and Wallen (2010:510) are of the opinion that triangulation can work with any subject, in any setting, and at any level. They continue in stating that it improves the quality of the data collected and the accuracy of the researcher's interpretations (Fraenkel & Wallen 2010:510).

Klein and Olbrecht (2011:347) suggest that triangulation provides the researcher with a number of opportunities where different data sources and methods cross-stimulate each other and fertilize the data and it allows researchers to be more confident of their results.

Stanculescu and Marin (2011:139) suggest that long-term project sustainability highly depends on county and local stakeholders' openness and involvement which, although addressed by proxy variables in the selection process, can only be confirmed by effective project implementation.

3.10 Validity

Guion, Diehl and McDonald (2011:1) postulate that data triangulation involves using different *sources* of information in order to increase the validity of a study and in extension, these sources are likely to be stakeholders in a program – respondents, other researchers, program staff, other community members, and so on. Guion *et al.* (2011:2) continues in saying that if each evaluator from different disciplines interprets information in the same way, then validity is established.

3.11 Reliability

Stanculescu and Marin (2011:139) advocate that triangulation proves to produce reliable results for targeting the local communities where the project will be both needed and successful.

3.12 Ethical Aspects of the Research

Drew, Hardman and Hosp (2008:56) postulate that ethics has become a cornerstone for conducting effective and meaningful research, where ethical behaviour of individual researchers is under unprecedented scrutiny. Drew *et al.* (2008:56) propose that any apprehensions regarding ethical practices in today's society, will negatively impact attitudes about science.

On ethics and quantitative research, Drew *et al.* (2008:69) asseverate that quantitative research involves studies in which the data analysed is in the form of numbers and in this research approach, behaviours are counted, correct answers or errors are counted, and other types of measures are recorded in terms of quantity. Quantitative research involves both experimental and non-experimental research and consequently ethical issues in experimental research focus on protecting individuals that receive an intervention (Drew *et al.*, 2008:69).

Drew *et al.* (2008:70) conclude that although ethics in nonexperimental designs (e.g., survey research) are often less complex or harmful than experimental studies, it is important for investigators to be aware of basic principles for protecting the respondents, including "full disclosure and consent." For example, in survey research, each respondent should be fully informed as to the purpose of the study, respondent demographics (e.g. teachers, college students, the general public), confidentiality of responses, how the results are intended to be used, and who will have access to the data (Drew *et al.*, 2008:70).

Brown, Daly and Leong (2009:312) postulate that it is imperative that junior colleagues be mentored in conceptualising research problems and ideas, conducting ethical and

responsible data collection, and disseminating research efforts into viable products that will have an enduring impact on the literature.

Kamat (2006:3) details three main ethical obligations of a researcher:

- i. to honor the trust of peers by producing work that is scientifically valid and reliable;
- ii. to produce quality work that is properly vetted; and
- iii. to serve the public by creating information that may be used to shape public policy.

Respondents received clear written instructions on how to complete the questionnaires. Respondents were also requested to sign an informed consent form which contained information regarding the focus and reasons for the research and what was expected of them. The survey document also included a “Welcome Note” on page 1 which specifically stated that, upon completion of the survey document, the respondent gave full consent that the document could be used as part of the study. This form confirmed their privacy, confidentiality and voluntary participation, before their participation in this study.

All phases of the research were conducted with the guidelines, approval and parameters set by the Ethics Committee of the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus.

3.13 Conclusion

The quantitative research methodology was followed in order to identify whether perceived mentorship or the lack thereof, contributed to the well-being of the group of employees. Due to the nature of quantitative research it was anticipated that the results from the questionnaires, and the subsequent statistical analyses could assist in identifying whether mentorship contributed to well-being, or the lack thereof deferred from well-being.

In the next chapter the research conducted will be analysed to establish whether the employees' general health and well-being were affected. Possible methods to improve on the well-being of the employee through mentorship will also be investigated in an endeavour to increase organisational effectiveness.

CHAPTER 4

INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the research design was discussed and quantitative research was addressed in detail as well as how it is implemented and used within research today. The data collection method for this study was deliberated in that the study will make use of a survey method to gather data. The participating organisation was examined with an overview of their value system, what they stand for and their view on learning within the organisation. The researcher's role was reviewed in terms of what measuring instruments will be used as well as what the Mental Health Continuum and General Health Questionnaire will contribute to measuring the overall well-being of the respondents.

In this chapter the research conducted will be evaluated in order to establish the level of the employees' general health and well-being as well as to investigate possible methods to improve on the well-being of the employee through mentorship in an endeavour to increase organisational effectiveness through ensuring a healthy work force.

Although 79 respondents took part in the study, 15 perceived themselves as having received mentorship and 64 perceived themselves as not having received mentorship, not all completed the survey documents in its entirety. The statistical analyses were done with the amount of completed sections available for each of the responses, which amount to some of the Tables reflecting less than 79 respondents.

After receipt of the completed questionnaires from the respondents, the data was sent to the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus for further analysis and interpretation.

4.2 The Reliability of the Measuring Instruments

For this study, the author opted to use the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) and the Mental Health Continuum (MHC) in order to determine the level of well-being as perceived by the respondents, based on their perception of mentorship or the lack thereof.

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) has four subscales (Somatic Symptoms, Anxiety and Insomnia, Social Dysfunction, and Severe Depression) developed by principal components analysis and varimax rotation (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979:139). Each scale consists of seven items and the sum of these scale scores yields a single score, for which threshold scores of 4 or 5 (bimodal scoring) would indicate probable psychiatric disorder. Table 4.1 shows the individual GHQ-28 scales' internal reliability as calculated for this study.

Table 4.1: Reliability (Cronbach Coefficient Alpha) of the General Health Questionnaire

	Cronbach's alpha
GHQ_SS	0.73
GHQ_AS	0.58
GHQ_SD	0.69
GHQ_DS	0.83

The GHQ_AS subscale had a Cronbach coefficient alpha of 0.58, and the GHQ_SD had a value of 0.69, but the GHQ total score had an alpha value of 0.83

The MHC-SF comprises 14 items. It measures the degree of (1) emotional well-being (items 1-3) as defined in terms of the presence of positive affect (PA) and satisfaction with life; (2) social well-being (items 4-8) as described in Keyes' (1998) model of social well-being (one item on each of the facets of social acceptance, social actualization, social contribution, social coherence and social integration); and (3) psychological well-being (items 9-14) as described in Ryff's (1989) model (including one item on each of the dimensions of autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with

others, purpose in life and self-acceptance). Dimensions and scales of subjective well-being are reviewed and conceived as mental health symptoms (Keyes, 2002:207). Table 4.2 shows the individual MHC scales' internal reliability as calculated for this study.

Table 4.2: Reliability (Cronbach Coefficient Alpha) of the Mental Health Continuum

	Cronbach's alpha
Emotional Well-being	0.85
Social Well-being	0.90
Psychological Well-being	0.87
Total Mental Health Continuum	0.94

All of the MHC scales had values above 0.85, with the Total MHC scoring a 0.94. A Cronbach Alpha of more than 0.70 is accepted as reliable.

4.3 Preliminary Information regarding Biographical Survey Results

The respondents were asked to complete the survey based on how they perceived mentorship, or the lack thereof, has impacted on them throughout their individual careers.

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics for the group with regard to the GHQ-28

	N	Mean (Minimum, Maximum)	SD
Age, years	78	43 (22, 71)	1.79
How many children	78	1.74 (0, 6)	1.29
GHQ	78		
Somatic Symptoms	78	1.54 (0, 6)	1.79
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	78	2.03 (0, 7)	1.62
Social Dysfunction	78	1.04 (0, 6)	1.44
Depressive Symptoms	78	0.29 (0, 6)	0.96
GHQ Total Score	78	4.88 (0, 15)	3.94

Table 4.3 portrays the descriptive statistics with regard to the GHQ-28 that describes the group of employees that took part in the survey

Age, years

The average age of the 78 respondents that completed this portion of the survey documents, was 43 years, with the oldest at 71 years, and the youngest at 22 years.

How many children

The minimum number of children per household was 0, and the maximum number was 6, with an average of approximately 2 for the 79 respondents.

General Health Questionnaire

Each scale of the GHQ consists of seven items and the sum of these scale scores yields a single score, for which threshold scores of 4 or 5 (bimodal scoring) would indicate probable psychiatric disorder. The mean score of all the respondents was 4.88, indicating probable psychiatric disorder.

Mental Health Continuum

To diagnose mental health, all scales of well-being are divided by the number of constituent items, standardized, and tertiles are computed for each scale. Individuals with scores in the upper tertiles of one of the two emotional well-being scales and six of the 11 scales of psychological and social well-being are classified as flourishing (Keyes, 2002:212). Individuals with scores in the lower tertiles of one of the two emotional well-being scales and six of the 11 scales of psychological and social well-being are classified as languishing (Keyes, 2002:212). Adults neither flourishing nor languishing are classified as moderately mentally healthy (Keyes, 2002:212).

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics for the group with regard to the MHC-SF

MHC-SF Category	Frequency (% of population)
Flourish	40%
Languish	48.28%
Moderately mentally healthy	11.72%

Overall the MHC-SF indicates that almost half of the group (48.28%) was languishing and 40% flourishing

4.4 Results relating to Culture

The survey responses between the mentored and the non-mentored groups indicate relationships with regards to the various cultural demographical responses. As such the relationships between the various variables do not prove cause and effect.

Table 4.5: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to gender and ethnicity

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 64)
Male, N (%)	13 (86.7%)	38 (59.4%)
Female, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	26 (40.6%)
Ethnicity		
Caucasian, N (%)	10 (66.7%)	44 (68.8%)
African, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	12 (18.8%)
Coloured, N (%)	0	4 (6.3%)
Indian, N (%)	0	3 (4.7%)
Other, N (%)	3 (20%)	1 (1.6%)

Almost 87% of the mentored group consists of males with only 13% of the mentored group represented by female respondents.

A chi-square test was performed and a relationship was found between mentorship and gender, where $p = .047$ and $\phi = 0.22$, indicating that the gender groups differed practically between the mentored and non-mentored groups.

A relationship was found between mentorship and ethnicity after performing a chi-square test, where, $p = .040$ and $\phi = 0.36$, indicating a possibility of practical implications. Even though very few Coloureds and Indians formed part of the sample, none of these ethnic groups were represented in the mentored group.

Table 4.6: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to language

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 64)
Language		
Afrikaans, N (%)	3 (20%)	30 (46.9%)
English, N (%)	8 (53.3%)	22 (34.4%)
Sepedi, N (%)	0	2 (3.1%)
Sesotho, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	4 (6.3%)
Setswana, N (%)	0	1 (1.6%)
siSwati, N (%)	0	0
Tshivenda, N (%)	0	0
isiNdebele, N (%)	0	0
isiXhosa, N (%)	0	0
isiZulu, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	4 (6.3%)
Xitshonga, N (%)	0	1 (1.6%)
Other, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	0

More than 70% of the mentored group and 81.3% of the non-mentored group was either Afrikaans or English. There were no siSwati, Tshivenda, isiNdebele or isiXhosa respondents in this group.

A chi-square test was performed and no relationship was found between mentorship and language, where $p = .234$ and $\phi = 0.34$, indicating that this effect is not important in practice.

Table 4.7: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to level of education

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 63)
Level of education		
Lower than grade 10 (Std 8), N (%)	0	1 (1.6%)
Grade 10 (Std 8), N (%)	1 (6.7%)	1 (1.6%)
Grade 11 (Std 9), N (%)	0	1 (1.6%)
Grade 12 (Std 10), N (%)	2 (13.3%)	26 (41.3%)
Technikon diploma, N (%)	3 (20%)	6 (9.5%)
Technical College diploma, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	4 (6.3%)
University degree, N (%)	0	13 (20.6%)
Postgraduate degree, N (%)	7 (46.7%)	4 (6.3%)
Other, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	7 (11.1%)

Upon closer inspection, it was found that 46.7% of the mentored group had a postgraduate degree, whereas the bulk of the non-mentored group (41.3%) had grade 12.

Upon performing a chi-square test, a practically significant relationship was found between mentorship and level of education, where $p = .004$ and $\phi = 0.54$, indicating that this effect might be important in practice.

Table 4.8: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to level of position at work

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 62)
Level of position at work		
Secretary, N (%)	0	1 (1.6%)
Administrative Assistant, N (%)	0	3 (4.8%)
Administrative Officer, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	5 (8.1%)
Sales Representative, N (%)	0	2 (3.2%)
Manager in Training, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	5 (8.1%)
Regional Manager, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	3 (4.8%)
Managing Director, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	0
Director, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	0
Other, N (%)	7 (46.7%)	43 (69.4%)

Upon investigation, it was found that the mentored respondents mostly worked in a team-related environment as opposed to the non-mentored group that worked in a more individual operating environment. The “Other” group mostly represents respondents that are working in smaller teams in the field.

Upon performing a chi-square test, a practically significant relationship was found between mentorship and level of position at work, where $p = .009$ and $\phi = 0.51$, indicating that this effect might be important in practice.

Table 4.9: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to area of expertise

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 61)
Area of expertise		
Research and Technology, N (%)	2 (13.3%)	6 (9.8%)
Finance, N (%)	0	4 (6.6%)
Education, training and development, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	2 (3.2%)
Engineering, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	9 (14.8%)
Safety, health and environmental, N (%)	0	5 (8.2%)
Legal Services, N (%)	0	2 (3.3%)
Human Resources, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	4 (6.6%)
Sales and marketing, N (%)	5 (33.3%)	13 (21.3%)
Other, N (%)	5 (33.3%)	16 (26.2%)

Upon reviewing of the results on the area of expertise it was found that the bulk of the mentored was in either sales and marketing or other, which included engineering personnel and front line personnel, e.g. secretaries, clerks etc.

A chi-square test was performed and no relationship was found between mentorship and area of expertise, where $p = .784$ and $\phi = 0.25$, indicating that this effect is not important in practice.

Table 4.10: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to household situation

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 61)
Household situation		
Married/living with a partner, with children living at home, N (%)	6 (40%)	28 (45.9%)
Married/living with partner, with children not living at home, N (%)	5 (33.3%)	8 (13.1%)
Other, N (%)	4 (26.7%)	25 (41%)

Reviewing respondents that were subjected to mentoring, the feedback does not support that the household situation had any real contribution to them receiving any mentoring.

A chi-square test was performed and no relationship was found between mentorship and household situation, where $p = .164$ and $\phi = 0.22$, indicating that this effect is not important in practice.

Table 4.11: Comparing the mentored group with the non-mentored group with regard to the Mental Health Continuum (MHC)

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 64)
Mental Health Continuum		
Flourish, N (%)	14 (93.3%)	42 (65.6%)
Moderately Mentally Healthy, N (%)	1 (6.7%)	16 (25%)
Languish, N (%)	0	6 (9.4%)

Of note is the mentored group that did not report any languishing, with 93.3% flourishing compared to 65.6% flourishing in the non-mentored group.

A chi-square test was performed and no relationship was found between mentorship and the mental health continuum, where $p = .099$ and $\phi = 0.24$, indicating that although this effect was not important statistically, but was significant in practice.

Table 4.12: T-tests between male and female respondents' GHQ and MHC scores (Mean $\pm$ Standard Deviation)

	Male group (N = 49)	Female group (N = 28)	Practical Significance
General Health Questionnaire			
Somatic Symptoms	1.35 $\pm$ 1.77	1.82 $\pm$ 1.89	0.31
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	1.92 $\pm$ 1.56	2.22 $\pm$ 1.76	0.17
Social Dysfunction	0.94 $\pm$ 1.36	1.25 $\pm$ 1.58	0.20
Depressive Symptoms	0.23 $\pm$ 0.81	0.39 $\pm$ 1.20	0.13
GHQ Total Score	4.45 $\pm$ 3.77	5.77 $\pm$ 4.16	0.32
Mental Health Continuum			
Emotional Well-being	14.69 $\pm$ 2.59	14.19 $\pm$ 3.32	0.15
Social Well-being	19.25 $\pm$ 7.11	16.37 $\pm$ 7.31	0.39
Psychological Well- being	29.64 $\pm$ 5.44	28.00 $\pm$ 5.92	0.28
MHC Total Score	63.59 $\pm$ 13.82	58.56 $\pm$ 15.12	0.33

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated with *, $p \leq 0.05$

The male and female respondents did not statistically or practically differ from one another with regard to the scores of either the GHQ or MHC.

Table 4.13: T-tests between Caucasian and African ethnicity's GHQ and MHC scores (Mean $\pm$ Standard Deviation)

	Caucasian group (N = 52)	African group (N = 15)	Practical Significance
General Health Questionnaire			
Somatic Symptoms	1.46 $\pm$ 1.79	1.69 $\pm$ 1.60	0.13
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	2.01 $\pm$ 1.71	2.24 $\pm$ 1.13	0.13
Social Dysfunction	1.28 $\pm$ 1.60	0.43 $\pm$ 0.67*	0.53*
Depressive Symptoms	0.26 $\pm$ 0.94	4.45 $\pm$ 3.77	0.17
GHQ Total Score	5.01 $\pm$ 4.13	4.78 $\pm$ 3.03	0.03
Mental Health Continuum			
Emotional Well-being	14.39 $\pm$ 3.09	14.29 $\pm$ 1.86	0.03
Social Well-being	16.64 $\pm$ 7.09	21.21 $\pm$ 6.09	0.65*
Psychological Well- being*	27.84 $\pm$ 5.78	32.06 $\pm$ 2.77*	0.73*
MHC Total Score	58.88 $\pm$ 14.53	67.61 $\pm$ 9.62	0.60*

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated when $p \leq 0.05$ with *

With regard to the 2 best represented ethnic groups, Caucasian and African, the Caucasian group reported higher statistically significant Social Dysfunction scores, and practically and statistically significant lower psychological well-being, social, and total well-being scores than the African group.

Table 4.14: T-tests between Afrikaans and English respondents' GHQ and MHC scores (Mean $\pm$ Standard Deviation)

	Afrikaans group (N = 32)	English group (N = 29)	Practical Significance
General Health Questionnaire			
Somatic Symptoms	1.56 $\pm$ 1.98	1.46 $\pm$ 1.64	0.05
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	2.34 $\pm$ 1.58	1.75 $\pm$ 1.86	0.32
Social Dysfunction	1.51 $\pm$ 1.73	0.90 $\pm$ 1.26*	0.35*
Depressive Symptoms	0.42 $\pm$ 1.18	0.17 $\pm$ 0.66	0.21
GHQ Total Score	5.83 $\pm$ 4.39	4.28 $\pm$ 3.76	0.35
Mental Health Continuum			
Emotional Well-being	13.94 $\pm$ 3.14	14.93 $\pm$ 2.88	0.32
Social Well-being	16.77 $\pm$ 6.97	18.14 $\pm$ 7.98	0.17
Psychological Well- being	27.25 $\pm$ 6.38	29.32 $\pm$ 5.00	0.29
MHC Total Score	57.97 $\pm$ 15.42	62.39 $\pm$ 14.42	0.29

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated as $p \leq 0.05$ with *

The Afrikaans group demonstrated statistically significant higher social dysfunction scores than the English subgroup.

Table 4.15: One way ANOVA between respondents' household situation and GHQ and MHC scores (Mean $\pm$ Standard Deviation)

	1 group (N = 35)	2 group (N = 14)	3 group (N = 29)	Practical Significance Group 1 with group 2	Practical Significance Group 1 with group 3	Practical Significance Group 2 with group 3
General Health Questionnaire						
Somatic Symptoms	1.51 $\pm$ 1.92	1.40 $\pm$ 1.86	1.63 $\pm$ 1.66	0.06	0.06	0.12
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	1.84 $\pm$ 1.50	1.74 $\pm$ 1.58	2.39 $\pm$ 1.77	0.06	0.31	0.37
Social Dysfunction	1.17 $\pm$ 1.60	0.64 $\pm$ 1.34	1.07 $\pm$ 1.28	0.33	0.06	0.32
Depressive Symptoms	0.57 $\pm$ 0.24	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00	0.70 $\pm$ 1.48*	0.24	0.44*	0.47*
GHQ Total Score	4.56 $\pm$ 3.95	3.75 $\pm$ 3.72	5.81 $\pm$ 3.95	0.21	0.31	0.52*
Mental Health Continuum						
Emotional Well-being	15.06 $\pm$ 2.26	14.57 $\pm$ 3.25	13.86 $\pm$ 3.17	0.15	0.38	0.22
Social Well- being	19.79 $\pm$ 7.38	17.32 $\pm$ 7.08	17.00 $\pm$ 7.07	0.33	0.38	0.05
Psychological Well-being	30.03 $\pm$ 5.34	29.29 $\pm$ 5.84	27.96 $\pm$ 5.81	0.23	0.03	0.20
MHC Total Score	58.84 $\pm$ 14.10	61.22 $\pm$ 13.40	58.85 $\pm$ 14.85	0.16	0.05	0.21

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated when $p \leq 0.05$ with *

Group 1 consisted of married respondents or respondents living with their partners, and living with their children at home. Group 2 included the respondents that were married or living with a partner, with their children not living at home. Group 3 included divorced and/or single respondents. The results show a practically significant difference between groups 1 and 3 (0.44), and groups 2 and 3 (0.47) with regard to the GHQ-depressive symptoms. Also the GHQ-Total score shows a practically significant difference between groups 2 and 3 (0.52).

4.5 Results relating to Well-being

The survey responses between the mentored and the non-mentored groups indicate relationships with regards to the various demographical responses. As such the relationships between the various variables do not prove cause and effect.

Table 4.16: T-tests between mentored and non-mentored respondents' GHQ and MHC scores (Mean $\pm$ Standard Deviation)

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 61)	Practical Significance
General Health Questionnaire			
Somatic Symptoms	0.60 $\pm$ 0.91	1.82 $\pm$ 1.89*	0.65
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	0.94 $\pm$ 1.34	2.30 $\pm$ 1.61	0.84
Social Dysfunction	0.13 $\pm$ 0.35	1.29 $\pm$ 1.52*	0.76
Depressive Symptoms	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00	0.37 $\pm$ 1.07*	0.34
GHQ Total Score	1.67 $\pm$ 1.87	5.78 $\pm$ 3.92*	1.05
Mental Health Continuum			
Emotional Well-being	16.53 $\pm$ 1.51	14.00 $\pm$ 2.92	0.87
Social Well-being	23.33 $\pm$ 6.14	16.92 $\pm$ 7.06	0.91
Psychological Well-being	32.20 $\pm$ 3.88	28.13 $\pm$ 5.71	0.71
MHC Total Score	72.07 $\pm$ 10.24	59.06 $\pm$ 14.28	0.91

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated when $p \leq 0.05$ with *

The mentored group consistently indicated statistically and practically significant, healthier scores in all the GHQ subscales except Anxiety and Sleeplessness. Anxiety and Sleeplessness were, however, indicated as practically significant. There were no statistical significant differences in the MHC scales. Practically significant differences were, however, observed in all the mental health continuum scales

Table 4.17: Spearman's rank order correlations

	Children	GHQ_ SS	GHQ_ T	MHC_ EWB	MHC_ SWB	MHC_ PWB	MHC_ T
Age	0.55 (0.00)	-0.30 (0.01)	-0.24 (0.04)	0.16 (0.18)	-0.21 (0.86)	-0.00 (0.98)	0.01 (0.96)
Level of Position at work	-0.23 (0.05)	0.08 (0.47)	0.18 (0.13)	0.06 (0.61)	-0.04 (0.71)	-0.08 (0.51)	-0.05 (0.70)
GHQ_Somatic Symptoms	-0.12 (0.31)	1.00	0.25 (0.03)	-0.25 (0.03)	-0.34 (0.00)	-0.22 (0.05)	-0.30 (0.01)
GHQ_Anxiety and Sleeplessness	-0.02 (0.86)	0.48 (0.00)	0.77 (0.00)	-0.28 (0.02)	-0.33 (0.00)	-0.18 (0.12)	-0.29 (0.01)
GHQ_Social Dysfunction	0.02 (0.84)	0.34 (0.00)	0.66 (0.00)	-0.51 (0.00)	-0.52 (0.00)	-0.49 (0.00)	-0.55 (0.00)
GHQ_Depressive Symptoms	-0.07 (0.55)	0.78 (0.00)	0.45 (0.00)	-0.42 (0.00)	-0.39 (0.00)	-0.35 (0.00)	-0.42 (0.00)
GHQ_ Total Score	-0.07 (0.52)	0.79 (0.00)	1.00	-0.51 (0.00)	-0.53 (0.00)	-0.42 (0.00)	-0.53 (0.00)

Age showed negative correlations with the somatic symptoms subscale and the GHQ total score. As both the GHQ and MHC are psychological instruments, it was expected that they would correlate. Because of correlations between the GHQ_SS and the GHQ-T with age, differences between means were calculated for the mentored and non-mentored groups controlling for age.

Table 4.18: Comparing mentored and non-mentored respondents adjusted GHQ scores, independent of covariate (age).

	Mentored group (N = 15)	Non-mentored group (N = 61)
Somatic Symptoms	0.81 (-0.89; 1.70)	1.78 (1.33; 2.23)*
Anxiety and Sleeplessness	1.01 (0.17; 1.86)	2.30 (1.88; 2.72)*
Social Dysfunction	0.10 (-0.64; 0.83)	1.37 (1.00; 1.74)*
Depressive Symptoms	0.50 (-0.47; 0.57)	0.37 (0.11; 0.63)
Total Score	1.96 (0.04; 3.87)	5.82 (4.87; 6.77)*

Mean $\pm$ standard deviation. Statistical difference indicated when $p \leq 0.05$ with *

Upon correcting for age, as there were correlations with the somatic symptoms subscale and the GHQ total score, the mentored group still had statistically significant lower scores in all the GHQ subscales except the depressive symptoms.

4.6 Conclusion

Based on the results from the survey, the mentored group has a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than the non-mentored group.

Upon performing chi square tests it was found that ethnicity, level of education and level of position at work had both statistically and practically significant differences between the respective sub-groups. Language, area of expertise and household situation showed no significant differences between the respective sub-groups.

Subsequently *T*-tests were performed between the psychological instruments (GHQ and MHC) and gender. No significant differences were found. Ethnicity had both statistically and practically significant (GHQ_SD and MHC_PWB) differences, as well as practically significant (MHC_SWB and MHC_T) differences between the groups.

T-test analyses also revealed statistically and practically significant differences regarding the GHQ_SD and the language groups. Household situation had a statistically and

practically significant relationship with GHC_DS, and a practically significant relationship with GHQ_T. Upon testing the mentored group against the non-mentored group, the GHQ_AS and all of the MHC subscales differed practically, where the rest of the GHQ subscales had both statistically and practically significant different scores.

As a result, partial correlations were calculated and it was found that the GHQ-SS and the GHQ_T had correlations with age. Finally, ANCOVA analyses excluded age in order to determine whether the statistically significant difference between the mentored/non-mentored groups held up and it was found that, except for the GHQ_DS subscale, all the other GHQ subscales were still statistically different for the mentored and the non-mentored groups.

In the next chapter, a summary of this dissertation will be given and some deductions discussed. The researcher will focus on the findings that emerged from the literature study which were empirically verified and certain recommendations will be made in an attempt to contribute to making an organisation a learning environment.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the results from the survey revealed that the mentored group had a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than that of the non-mentored group.

It was found that ethnicity, level of education and level of position at work had both statistically and practically significant differences between the respective sub-groups. In general, it appeared that the mentored group's well-being was much more desirable than that of the non-mentored group.

In this chapter, a summary of each of the chapters within this dissertation will be given and some deductions will be documented. The focus will to a large extent be on the most important aspects of the study. Secondly, the researcher will focus on the findings that emerged from the literature study which were empirically verified. Thirdly, a few recommendations will be made in terms of the role of mentorship and what positive contribution mentorship can make in an organisation as a learning environment.

5.2 Summary

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the study as well as the research process followed during the study. Reference was made to the data analysis approach as well as the expected contribution of this study to the literature as well as in general.

Masango (2011:1) suggests that mentorship begins on the day of birth and continues throughout one's entire life where one's first mentors are one's parents. The view derived from the literature proposes that, through childhood, the child will look at his/her parents

and learn from their actions: the way they speak, how they deal with conflict, how they plan things. These factors will impact on the child's development and life experiences. The nurturing and emotional support from the parents will contribute to the well-being of the growing and developing youth, and the successful completion of life skills and the practical experience acquired through time will develop confidence.

Billet *et al.* (2012:6) add that the continuing education and training provision appropriate for the twenty-first century workplace is likely to be as much based outside educational institutions as inside, and should be supported by workplace-based practitioners. Although this statement carries weight, it is also important to bear in mind that any knowledge gained at tertiary institutions forms the foundation on which practical experience is built and even more important than this, it teaches the individual to ask questions and instils in them the desire to have those questions answered.

Hattingh *et al.* (2005:47) proposes that, if development is a key driver for organizational business performance, mentoring should move towards the centre of the development strategy. In support of this, May (1999:337) accedes that organisations have to re-structure frequently to meet increasingly changing conditions and, depending on an organisation's business, managers will need competencies such as negotiating skills, leadership and creative thinking. A good leader will have the ability to transform a follower by applying themselves in being attentive to the needs of the individual, but will also include social and psychological needs, to name but a few. A leader that possesses the ability to have a holistic view of an individual's development and actively participate in the development stage can also be considered a mentor. Hattingh *et al.* (2005:41) states that mentoring is an inclusive and confidential relationship between two people that have mutual personal growth and corporate success as common goals.

The mentor has experience and power in the organisation and personally advises, counsels, coaches and promotes career development of the mentee, and promotion of the mentee's career may occur directly through actual promotions or indirectly through the mentor's influence and power over other organizational members (Chao *et al.*, 1992:624) Gilmore *et al.* (2005:27) found, in research done on mentoring in a South African mining

company, that mentors as well as mentees tend to prefer informal mentoring relationships and propose that factors contributing to the emotional outcomes of the mentoring relationship also improved the perceived quality of the relationship. In addition to this, they suggested that a formal structure is essential as it essentially provides meaning and direction for relationships and support when necessary (Gilmore *et al.*, 2005:27).

Blickle *et al.* (2009:188) and Allen *et al.* (2004:127) found that employees with mentors reported higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, compensation and promotions as well as objective career success. Banschbach (2008:175) predicate that mentors also receive abundant gratification from observing the achievements of their mentees. Tenenbaum *et al.* (2001:338) support this and conclude that the benefits of mentoring are gained by the mentors and their organisation as well as mentees. It is clear that maximum growth occurs when a mentor is involved in the development of an individual, but even more so, the mentor experiences further expansion of knowledge, confidence and self-worth in his/her own environment. The ability to gain experience through well-controlled opportunities where one is allowed to make mistakes and learn from them is of immense value.

Ehrich *et al.* (2004:529) postulate that the problematic outcomes for mentors and mentees suggest that it is similar across the education, business and medical reviews and conclude by saying that a lack of time was the most commonly noted problem. Reflecting on the above statement, it is important to consider the amount of time, effort and capital that was invested in one individual and how the “wheel needs to be re-invented” every time someone moves on and a void is left to be filled. This often goes hand in hand with someone that needs to take on an extra load at work until such time that a replacement is found which in itself could be a lengthy and time-consuming process. An unnecessary work constraint is placed on such an individual as well as the replacement and very often they are faced with a negative impact on their well-being.

In Chapter 2, the author focussed on mentorship and how it is viewed to have an impact on the overall well-being of the individual being mentored. In addition, the author has explored its advantages as well as the obstacles found as a hindrance to the process of mentorship.

This chapter also investigated the impact of mentorship on organisational development, mentorship in the workplace, mentorship models as well as the relationship between mentorship and well-being. The relationship between mentorship and well-being was also explored.

Learning is the primary purpose of any mentoring relationship and learning is associated with knowledge and consequently knowledge brings forth confidence. The mentor and mentee shares accountability and responsibility for achieving goals and the role of the mentor is to nurture and develop the mentee's capacity for self-direction over the course of their relationship. Mentors help the mentee grow as an individual, discover aspects of self previously unknown, imagine new possibilities, and realise dreams.

The mentoring process involves a period of growth for both parties, where the mentor will experience a sense of accomplishment and the mentee will encounter a brand new way of thinking. Mentors are not only a source of learning for mentees; they also play a key role in the development of mentees' self-esteem (confidence) and work identity (sense of belonging). Through friendship, counselling, and acceptance the mentor also helps the mentee develop a sense of professional competence and self-esteem. A mentoring relationship held in care bridges the distance between student and teacher, creating a safe space for vulnerability. A mentor is seen as an advisor, someone with career experience that is willing to share knowledge in support of emotional and moral development.

Competent mentors transmit knowledge and teach mentees effective skills and strategies for managing demands and it has been reported by mentees that the contribution of mentoring was positively associated with mentees' well-being. The overall quality of mentorship as well as the motivational intentions related to the mentoring relationship is positively associated with the psychological and physiological indicators of well-being. Mentoring relationships are developmental and relational in nature and are therefore not merely tickets to advancement in organisational settings.

The negative emotions accompanying feelings that are not mutually shared may be detrimental to the well-being of individuals that are more committed to the relationship than

the partnership that is supposed to be shared between the mentor and the mentee and consequently the mentee may experience the following as a result of not feeling that he/she can contribute to the relationship:

- Anxiety – The mentee may feel that he/she is not ready to perform certain responsibilities as is required and to the level that it is required. This feeling of uncontrolled fear may lead to excessive levels of stress that could have a direct impact on the physical and mental well-being of the mentee.
- Insecurity – There are many forms of insecurity, but in the corporate world one of the biggest factors that might lead to insecurity is when one is expected to carry out one's duties without really knowing how to do it properly. This may contribute to the employee feeling that his/her job could be in jeopardy should he/she fail in his/her duties.
- Mistrust – In a relationship there are certain expectancies between the parties involved. Very often it could happen that one of the parties may feel that the other is not having their best interest at heart and the mistrust that originate from such feelings may not contribute positively to the well-being of the parties involved and may lead to decreased well-being.

In Chapter 3, the researcher explained in detail the methodology used in order to gather data necessary for the sake of the research. The quantitative methodology was discussed in detail as well as the questionnaires that were used for researching this phenomenon. In view of the aim and objectives of the study (pragmatic evaluation, according to the perception of respondents, on the effect of mentorship, or the lack thereof, on the well-being of the employee), the author opted for a quantitative methodology. In addition, the use of multiple sources of data helped to combat concerns over mono-method bias and improved construct validity through triangulation (Jick, 1979:608; Allen *et al.*, 2008:346).

In Chapter 4, based on the results from the survey, the mentored group had a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than the non-mentored group. Upon comparing the mentored and non-mentored group with regard to gender and ethnicity in total more males responded to the questionnaires than female respondents.

The Caucasian group was the biggest ethnic group. The non-mentored respondents in the Caucasian group were primarily the bigger group and, of note, more than 70 % of the mentored group and 81.3 % of the non-mentored group were either Afrikaans or English-speaking. There were no siSwati, Tshivenda, isiNdebele or isiXhosa respondents in this group.

With regard to education, it was found that 46.7 % of the mentored group had a postgraduate degree, where the bulk of the non-mentored group (41.3 %) had grade 12.

The research revealed that the mentored respondents mostly worked in a team-related environment as opposed to the non-mentored group that had a more individual operating environment.

The male and female respondents did not differ statistically from one another with regard to either the GHQ or MHC scores, but with regard to the 2 best represented ethnic groups: Caucasian and African, the Caucasian group reported statistically significantly higher Social Dysfunction scores, and practically and statistically significantly lower psychological well-being scores than the African group.

With regards to the GHQ responses for the various conditions at home, a practically significant difference were shown between married respondents or respondents living with their partners, and living with their children at home and divorced and/or single respondents (0.44) with regard to the GHQ-depressive symptoms. The respondents that were married or living with a partner, with their children not living at home, also practically differed from the divorced and/or single respondents (0.47) with regard to the GHQ-depressive symptoms. Also the GHQ-Total score shows a practically significant difference between the respondents that were married or living with a partner, with their children not living at home, and the divorced and/or single respondents (0.52).

After performing t-tests between the mentored and non-mentored groups it was found that the mentored group consistently indicated statistically and practically significant, healthier scores in all the GHQ subscales except Anxiety and Sleeplessness. Anxiety and

Sleeplessness were, however, indicated as practically significant. There were no statistical significant differences in the MHC scales which were expected due to the small group studied, but practically significant differences were observed.

Next, partial correlations were calculated and the GHQ-SS and the GHQ_T were correlated with age. As a result, the final analyses excluded age in order to determine whether the statistically significant difference between the mentored/non-mentored groups could still be observed and it was found that, except for the GHQ_DS subscale, all the other GHQ subscales were still statistically different for the mentored and the non-mentored groups.

5.3 Findings

The findings are outcomes revealed during the analysis phase of the research. The findings documented are thus an interpretation of the statistics in order to determine whether the research question was answered sufficiently or whether further investigation was necessary.

5.3.1 Comment

All findings that will follow are based on the data collected from the responses of the respondents originating from the study population, namely AEL Mining Services. The findings are based on the research aim formulated in Chapter 1.

5.3.2 Findings with regard to the research aim

The research aim was formulated in order to determine to what extent, according to the perception of the employee, mentorship, or the lack thereof, contributes to the well-being of the employee.

Based on the results from the survey, the mentored group has a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than the non-mentored group. See Tables 4.11, 4.16 to 4.18 in the Results section.

The research revealed that the mentored respondents mostly worked in a team-related environment as opposed to the non-mentored group that had a more individual operating environment. Teams tend to interact more frequently and consequently result in the environment becoming a learning ground where, at peer level, mentorship is taking place. See Table 4.8 in the Results section.

The male and female respondents did not differ statistically from one another with regard to either the GHQ or MHC scores, but with regard to the 2 best represented ethnic groups, Caucasian and African, the Caucasian group reported statistically significantly higher Social Dysfunction scores, and practically and statistically significant lower psychological well-being scores than the African group. See Tables 4.12 and 4.13 in the Results section.

The deduction made from the findings above is that with mentorship there is a significant difference in the overall well-being of an employee who perceived themselves mentored. It is also evident that socially the mentored employee has confidence to interact. Based on the results from the survey, the mentored group had a better overall state of health and psychological well-being than the non-mentored group. Except for the GHQ_DS subscale, all the other GHQ subscales were statistically different for the mentored and the non-mentored groups. See Table 4.18 in the Results section.

5.4 Recommendations and motivation

The following recommendations are made based on the findings discussed in the previous section.

Recommendation 1: Mentors must be empowered in order to serve a more supportive role in guiding the mentee towards being independent in the workplace. Constructive criticism, reasons for criticism and looking after the well-being of the mentee are typical areas where the mentor needs to be empowered.

Motivation: Little or no support from the mentor will impact negatively on the development of the mentee within the organisation.

Recommendation 2: Mentors must be empowered via training in soft skill training and encouraged to try different mentorship models in order to build a partnership that will be mutually beneficial to both parties.

Motivation: When mentors are not enabled or even willing to endeavour different models of mentoring, the link or synergy between the two individuals may never be reached and consequently, no learning will take place and eventually, the well-being of both parties may suffer negatively.

Recommendation 3: Mentorship should not be restrictive in nature and mentors should set up the learning environment in such a manner that the mentee is able to fail in a controlled manner.

Motivation: Restrictive mentoring, by being limited to a strict schedule and prescribed methods, will not create independence and the proverbial “umbilical cord” will never be cut; thus preventing the mentor to leave a legacy of themselves.

Recommendation 4: The mentor and/or mentee must be allowed to develop a collegial relationship and they should seek to understand and accept each other’s limitations.

Motivation: Weak relationships/partnerships, such as lacking collegial behaviour, create negative attitudes and will eventually have a negative impact on work performance.

Recommendation 5: There is a certain level of trust that needs to be developed between the mentor and mentee in order for the mentor to let the mentee attempt certain projects on his/her own.

Motivation: A lack of trust within the mentoring relationship will prevent the mentee to gain confidence and will not build on established trust. It is important to gain confidence and experience success in order to motivate and positively affect attitude.

Recommendation 6: The attitude of the mentor towards being involved with the mentee by means of creating activities or alternatively, guide the mentee into participating in activities that will positively contribute to growth is important. Regular contact sessions need to be scheduled in order to monitor progress, general well-being and attitude towards learning.

Motivation: A lack of involvement of the mentor into the growth and development of the mentee will create a negative developmental climate where learning will not take place and positive attitudes may deteriorate.

Recommendation 7: Further research needs to be conducted where a mentorship program needs to be tailored for a specific company/organisation within the explosives manufacturing industry.

Motivation: A small amount of literature is available in which actual mentorship programs were implemented within the corporate world. The researcher was unable to trace literature that was specific to mentorship within an explosives manufacturing organisation; therefore it would serve as a positive contribution to the literature should such a program be implemented and the results measured in order to understand what the impact of a mentorship program would be within such an organisation.

5.5 Conclusion

If mentorship is not driven and monitored within an organisation, the initiative tends to fade away in time and essentially, it does not receive the attention it deserves and this directly impacts on the workforce. With this said, such an organisation can expect to have difficulty in ensuring sustainable development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The literature within this study illustrated the contribution of mentorship, not only on the well-being of individuals, but on performance within a work environment as well where emphasis is placed on sustainable development of a learning organisation that bears in mind a future.

The ultimate goal for any mentor is to leave a legacy where a piece of his/her signature is left behind in a successor of sorts, but also to allow the successor to be able to contribute to that environment with new innovative ideas in an endeavour for betterment. This can more easily be achieved if the foundation is built on positivity where confidence, attitude and general well-being are attributes possessed by the successor. Mentorship enables the successor to learn at a faster pace without having to reinvent the proverbial wheel. This will produce a more positive individual that will positively impact the environment he/she operates in.

The research has determined that, according to the perception of the employee, a lack of mentorship will not contribute positively to the well-being of the employee whereas mentorship indeed will.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A	Informed consent form
ANNEXURE B	Welcome Note
ANNEXURE C	Biographical Information
ANNEXURE D	General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28)
ANNEXURE E	Mental Health Continuum-Short Form (MHC-SF)

ANNEXURE A

Informed Consent Form

Mr Hendrik Botha has requested my participation in a research study at the North West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The title of the research project is: ***The contribution of mentorship to the well-being of an employee in a service rendering organisation.***

I have been informed that the purpose of the research is to determine to what extent does mentorship or the lack thereof, contribute to the well-being of the employee.

My participation will involve the completion of a questionnaire regarding my mental health as well as my own perception of my general health, whereafter I may be asked to participate in a personal one-on-one interview. Prior to the interview, I will be provided with the interview protocol.

I understand that the interview will be digitally recorded and later verbatim typed to prevent a compromise in the quality of data. |

There are no foreseeable risks involved.

There are no feasible alternative procedures available for this study.

I understand that the possible benefits of my participation in the research are helping to fill the current void in the literature where the association between mentorship and mental health have not been investigated in the South African population.

I understand that the results of the research study may be published but that my name or identity will not be revealed. In order to maintain confidentiality of my records, Mr Botha will use subject codes. Only Mr Botha and his study leader will have access to the confidential information.

I have been advised that the research in which I will be participating does not involve more than minimal risk.

I have been informed that I will not be compensated for my participation.

I understand that in case of injury, if I have questions about my rights as a participant in this research, or if I feel I have been placed at risk, I can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee.

I have read the above information. The nature, demands, risks and benefits have been explained to me. I knowingly assume the risks involved and understand that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to myself.

Subject's signature _____ Date _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits and possible risks associated with participation in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

Signature of researcher _____ Date _____

ANNEXURE B



Dear Participant

This questionnaire forms part of a Masters degree study under supervision of Dr. John Van der Merwe (North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact that mentorship or the lack thereof have on the wellbeing of employees, as perceived by themselves.

Your contribution to this study is extremely important and its success depends on the number of participants that will complete this questionnaire. By completing this questionnaire, the researchers will be able to evaluate the experiences of employees in the work environment as well as in their private and social lives.

The research is conducted in order to establish methods in the improvement of the employee's general health and wellbeing as well as to increase organisational effectiveness.

We assure you that all the information we receive will remain confidential and anonymous and that it will only be used for research purposes. However, if you would like to know more you can contact the researcher mentioned below.

Your task will be to work carefully through the questionnaire and to answer the questions as accurately and honestly as possible. Detailed instructions are provided on how to complete each section in the questionnaire. By completing this questionnaire anonymously, you give permission for the results of this study to be used for research purposes.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance.

Yours faithfully

Mr. H.J. (Hendrik) Botha
079 501 5753

hendrik.botha@aelms.com

ANNEXURE C

		BIOGRAPHICAL			
		INFORMATION			
This section contains questions on your biographical background. Please write your answers in the appropriate space or mark your answer with an "x" (where applicable).					
Background Information					
Today's date:				(year/month/day)	
1. Gender		Male	1	Female	2
2. Year of birth					
3. Ethnicity		1 White	2 African	3 Coloured	4 Indian
		5 Other, please specify:			
4. Language		1 Afrikaans	2 English	3 Sepedi	
		4 Sesotho	5 Setswana	6 isiSwati	
		7 Tshivenda	8 isiNdebele	9 isiXhosa	
		10 isiZulu	11 Xitsonga		
		12 Other, please specify:			
5. Have you been part of a mentorship program?		Yes		No	

6. Highest qualifications obtained					
1	Lower than grade 10 (Std 8)	☐	6	Technical College diploma	☐
2	Grade 10 (Std 8)	☐	7	University degree	☐
3	Grade 11 (Std 9)	☐	8	Post-graduate degree	☐
4	Grade 12 (Std 10)	☐	9	Other, please specify:	☐
5	Technicon diploma	☐			
7. Level of position at work					
1	Secretary	☐	6	Regional Manager	☐
2	Administrative assistant	☐	7	Managing Director	☐
3	Administrative officer	☐	8	Director	☐
4	Sales Representative	☐	9	Other, please specify:	☐
5	Manager in training (MIT)	☐			

8. In which area of expertise do you work?					
1 Research and Technology		☐	6 Legal Services		☐
2 Finance		☐	7 Human Resources		☐
3 Education, training and development		☐	8 Sales and marketing		☐
4 Engineering		☐	9 Other, please specify:		☐
5 Safety, health and environmental		☐			
9. What is your household situation?					
1 Married/living with a partner, with children still living at home				☐	
2 Married/living with a partner, with children not living at home				☐	
3 Other, please specify:					
10. How many children do you have?				☐	
11. What is/are the age(s) of your child(ren)?					
Child 1					
Child 2					
Child 3					
Child 4					
Child 5					
Child 6					

ANNEXURE D

Name: _____ Date: _____
Please consider the last four weeks and answer the following questions by selecting one of the four answer options with an "x".

No	Question	1	2	3	4
	Have you recently				
A1	Been feeling perfectly well and in good health?	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
A2	Been feeling in need of a good tonic?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
A3	Been feeling run down and out of sorts?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
A4	Felt that you are ill?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
A5	Been getting any pains in your head?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
A6	Been getting a feeling of tightness or pressure in your head?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
A7	Been having hot or cold spells?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
B1	Lost much sleep over worry?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
B2	Had difficulty in staying asleep once you are off?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
B3	Felt constantly under strain?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
B4	Been getting edgy and bad tempered?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
B5	Been getting scared or panicky for no good reason?	More so than usual	About the same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
B6	Found everything getting on top of you?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
B7	Been feeling nervous and strung up all the time?	More so than usual	About the same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
C1	Been managing to keep yourself busy and occupied?	More so than usual	About the same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
C2	Been taking longer over the things you do?	Quicker than usual	Same as usual	Longer than usual	Much longer than usual
C3	Felt on the whole you were doing things well?	Better than usual	About the same	Less well than usual	Much less well
C4	Been satisfied with the way you've carried out your task?	More satisfied	About same as usual	Less well than usual	Much less satisfied
C5	Felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
C6	Felt capable of making decisions about things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
C7	Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
D1	Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
D2	Felt that life is entirely worthless?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
D3	Felt that life isn't worth living?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
D4	Thought of the possibility that you might make away with yourself?	Definitely not	I don't think so	Has crossed my mind	Definitely have
D5	Found at times you couldn't do anything because your nerves	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
D6	Found yourself wishing you were dead and away from it all?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
D7	Found that the idea of taking your own life kept coming into your mind?	Definitely not	I don't think so	Has crossed my mind	Definitely have

ANNEXURE E

Name: _____

Date: _____

Please answer the following questions about how you have been feeling during the past month. Place an "x" in the box that best represents how often you have experienced or felt the following:

No	During the past month, how often did you feel ...	Never	Once or Twice	About once a week	About 2 or 3 times a week	Almost every day	Every day
1	happy						
2	interested in life						
3	satisfied						
4	that you had something important to contribute to society						
5	that you belonged to a community (like a social group, or your neighborhood)						
6	that our society is becoming a better place for people like you						
7	that people are basically good						
8	that the way our society works makes sense to you						
9	that you liked most parts of your personality						
10	good at managing the responsibilities of your daily life						
11	that you had warm and trusting relationships with others						
12	that you had experiences that challenged you to grow and become a better person						
13	confident to think or express your own ideas and opinions						
14	that your life has a sense of direction or meaning to it						