THE MENTORING OF OFFICERS COMMANDING IN
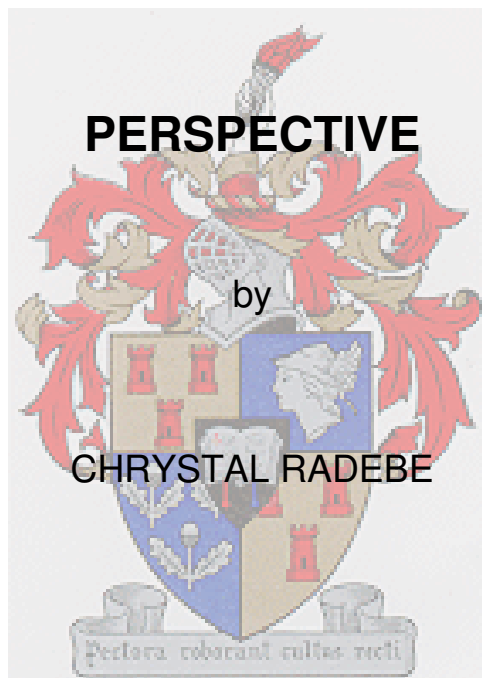
THE SOUTH AFRICAN MILITARY HEALTH SERVICE

(SAMHS): A MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

PERSPECTIVE

by

CHRYSTAL RADEBE

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for the degree of Master of Social Work at the University of Stellenbosch

Promoter: Professor S. Green

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature: _____   Date: _____

SUMMARY

An exploratory research design together with a quantitative research approach were chosen to determine whether military social workers possess the necessary knowledge, skills and values to mentor Officers Commanding (OCs) in the South African Military Health Service (SAMHS). The motivation for this study was based on questions the researcher asked as to whether there was a link between the methods in social work intervention processes, supervision and mentoring processes. During the preliminary investigation, the researcher found that no prior research under this specific subject was undertaken. The researcher also determined from her role as consultant to Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, that whereas military social workers received supervision upon joining the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), OCs, received no formal mentoring. It was also found that although a mentoring policy in the Department of Defence (DOD) existed, no evidence existed that a mentoring programme was implemented in the SAMHS. The goal of the study is therefore to provide military social workers with a framework of a mentoring process for Officers Commanding in the SAMHS.

The literature study firstly focused on describing the military social work environment in which the military social worker is employed, as well as theoretical frameworks that guide the military social worker's task. Although more than one theoretical framework was discussed, the main focus was on the systems theory and ecological perspective. The work environment of the OC was also included, as well as the challenges of their functions, tasks and roles in the SAMHS. Primarily, the literature study explored the knowledge, skills and values of the military social worker and the mentoring process.

The sample that was selected for this study was 46 military social workers that represented all the chief military social workers in specialist posts and those with a higher ranking from Captain to Colonel. A quantitative investigation was undertaken by means of a questionnaire which was completed in groups in the respective provinces.

The results of the investigation largely confirmed the findings of the literature study namely that military social workers do fit the requirements to mentor. These requirements to mentor were evident in the results of the knowledge, skills and values of military social workers and their understanding of the parallels between the

methods in social work, supervision and the mentoring process. The results gave an indication of the knowledge, skills and values of military social workers to mentor Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, and the framework of the mentoring process and how it relates to the casework, group work and supervision processes in social work.

The recommendations demonstrated that a central body should be identified to co-ordinate and plan a mentoring programme in the SAMHS. The recommendations also include that the Directorate Social Work should provide clear guidelines on how military social workers should implement the DOD Mentoring policy, and ensure that military social workers are trained in staff development methods and its processes. The recommendations included further research: both quantitative and qualitative research by means of questionnaires and interviews with OCs, as well as monitoring and evaluation of the mentoring process. This information will benefit military social workers in their training as mentors. In implementing these recommendations, military social workers will be able to contribute significantly to the development of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS and the profession of social work.

OPSOMMING

'n Verkennende navorsingsontwerp sowel as 'n kwantitatiewe benadering was gekies om te bepaal of militêre maatskaplike werkers oor die nodige kennis, vaardighede en waardes beskik om Bevelvoerders (Bevs) in the Suid-Afrikaanse Militêre Gesondheidsdienste (SAMGD) te mentor. Die motivering vir hierdie studie was gebaseer op vrae wat die navorser gevra het of 'n verband tussen die metodes in maatskaplike werk intervensie prosesse, supervisie en die mentor prosesse bestaan. Tydens die voorondersoek, het die navorser bevind dat geen vorige navorsing oor die spesifieke onderwerp onderneem was nie. Die navorser het ook bevind vanuit haar rol as konsultant vir Bevelvoerders in die SAMGD, dat terwyl militêre maatskaplike werkers tydens aansluiting by die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Weermag (SANW) supervisie ontvang het, Bevoelvoerders, geen formele mentorskap ontvang het nie. Dit was ook bevind dat alhoewel 'n mentorskap beleid in die Departement van Verdediging bestaan het, geen bewyse bestaan het dat dit wel geimplementeer was in die SAMGD nie. Die doel van die studie was om militêre maatskaplike werkers van 'n raamwerk te voorsien ten opsigte van 'n mentorskap proses vir Bevelvoerders in die SAMGD.

Die literatuurstudie het eerstens gefokus om die militêre maatskaplike werk omgewing te beskryf waarbinne die militêre maatskaplike werker werksaam is, sowel as the teoretiese perspektief wat die militêre maatskaplike werker se taak rig. Alhoewel meer as een teoretiese perspektief bespreek was, was die hoof fokus op die sisteem teorie en die ekologiese perspektief. Die werksomgewing van die Bevelvoerder was ook ingesluit, sowel as die uitdagings rondom hul funksies, take en rolle in die SAMGD. Die literatuurstudie het hoofsaaklik die kennis, vaardighede en waardes van die militêre maatskaplike werker eksploreer, asook die mentorskap proses.

Die steekproef wat geselekteer was vir die studie, was 46 militêre fsmaatskaplike werkers wat al die hoof maatskaplike werkers in spesialisposte en diegene met 'n hoër rang vanaf Kaptein tot Kolonel, verteenwoordig. 'n Kwantitatiewe ondersoek was onderneem deur middel van 'n vraelys wat in groepsverband in die onderskeie provinsies voltooi is.

Die resultate van die ondersoek het tot 'n groot mate die bevindinge van die literatuurstudie bevestig naamlik dat militêre maatskaplike werkers wel aan die

vereistes voldoen om te kan mentor. Die vereistes was sigbaar in die resultate van die kennis, vaardighede en waardes van die militêre maatskaplike werkers en hoe hul die parallelle tussen die metodes in maatskaplike werk, supervisie en die mentorskap proses, verstaan het. Die resultate het 'n aanduiding gegee van die kennis, vaardighede en waardes van die militêre maatskaplike werkers om Bevelvoerders in die SAMGD te mentor, asook 'n raamwerk van die mentorskap proses en hoe om dit in verband gebring kan word met gevallewerk-, groepwerk- en supervisie prosesse in maatskaplike werk.

Die aanbevelings het gedemonstreer dat 'n sentrale liggaam geïdentifiseer moet word om die mentorskap program in die SAMGD te koördineer en te beplan. Die Direktoraat Maatskaplike Werk moet duidelike riglyne voorsien rakende militêre maatskaplike werkers se implementering van die Departement van Verdediging se Mentorskap beleid, asook verseker dat opleiding in metodes van werknemer ontwikkeling en prosesse, ontvang word. Die aanbevelings het verdere navorsing ingesluit: beide kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe navorsing deur middel van vraelyste en onderhoude met Bevoelvoerders, asook kontrole en evaluering van die mentorskap proses. Hierdie inligting sal tot voordeel strek van die militêre maatskaplike werker se opleiding as mentor. Die implementering van hierdie aanbevelings sal militêre maatskaplike werkers in staat stel om hoofsaaklik tot die ontwikkeling van Bevelvoerders in die SAMGD, maar ook die professie van maatskaplike werk, by te dra.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER TWO

OCCUPATIONAL SOCIAL WORK WITHIN THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

CHAPTER THREE

THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING

CHAPTER FOUR

AN OVERVIEW OF THE FUNCTIONS AND DEMANDS OF
AN OFFICER COMMANDING

CHAPTER FIVE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKER TO EXECUTE MENTORING

CHAPTER SIX

THE MENTORING PROCESS

CHAPTER SEVEN

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS: KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND VALUES OF THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKER TO EXECUTE MENTORING

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   INTRODUCTION

It is generally accepted in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) that when Officers Commanding (Officers in command of a military unit/base) have completed their Joint Senior Command and Staff Course (a promotion course from the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel to the rank of Colonel), and been appointed in a post as Officer Commanding (OC), they would be equipped with the necessary micro skills and interpersonal abilities to execute duties relating to management of personnel that would contribute to the successful functioning of the organisation as a whole. The researcher's consultancy role to Officers Commanding as a production military social worker has proved that, on the contrary, Officers Commanding need additional guidance to equip them to manage intra- and interpersonal relationships effectively.

After 1994 the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) embarked on a transformation process that includes demobilization, integration, rationalization and reorganisation of the SANDF's culture, resources, military personnel recruitment, placement and training, as well as post structures and international deployments. These changes posed a number of considerable challenges. Examples include adapting to a diverse workforce, a new military culture, expanding military services to African territories (Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Sudan) despite a shortage of trained staff in units, ensuring that staff are trained for new posts, ensuring that diversified teams function as a unity to achieve organisational goals, and effective time management despite various command and control tasks and functions. Officers Commanding have to establish new posts and motivate staff to activate services within a short space of time. On the other hand, they have to deal with uncertainties when posts are made redundant and staff is carried as unplaced staff (not staffed). Officers Commanding have to figure out the right thing to do in an environment of change and accept a new way of doing things that demand skills and approaches that most Officers Commanding did not need in the past. These challenges demand more than just technical expertise, administrative ability and traditional management. Operating in a challenging military environment increases

the need for Officers Commanding to equip themselves with micro skills, for example, communication, conflict management, time management, and interpersonal and communication skills.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The researcher has 15 years of experience as a production military social worker, seven years of which were served as a social work supervisor. During this time the researcher observed both the competencies and incompetence of some Officers Commanding. Her experience as a consultant to Officers Commanding confirmed the need for a support programme for Officers Commanding. In this regard the Directorate of Social Work ensures that each newly appointed military social worker undergoes a year of formal needs-based training in conjunction with an educational programme.

Since the start of this research in 2002 up until November 2005 there were no formal structures to deal with post-course support services to Officers Commanding in SAMHS, except for the general Staff Council meetings that Staff-Officers hold with the Surgeon General. During January 2006 a two-week course for new Officers Commanding was in the process of being compiled, which included subjects such as logistics, finances, business plans and communication forums. This type of support to newly appointed Officers Commanding is regarded as technical support, which is linked with both the career function and psycho-social function in mentoring (Russel & Adams, 1997:2). On a career level, this planned two-week course to newly appointed Officers Commanding will provide sponsorship, exposure and challenging assignments. On a psycho-social level, role modelling will take place, as well as enhancing the competence and work-role effectiveness of Officers Commanding (Russel & Adams, 1997:2).

Jooste (1999:19) remarked rightfully that "...mentoring/coaching is recognised as an applicable approach in the SANDF, but very little is done about it". Mentoring is utilised to meet transformational, societal, family and organisational needs. It is used to assist employees of different skill levels, backgrounds and job responsibilities to develop their performance and their abilities to facilitate change processes, and to achieve their goals of promotion in the organisation (Shea, 2003:1). Coaching includes the use of silence, questions and goal setting to assist a coachee (protégé)

toward meeting a defined work-based target, such as deadlines, through the teaching of time management skills. Coaching does not only focus on mental techniques, but also on emotional material that affects executive performance with regard to communication and relationships (McLeod, 2004:9). Coaching is regarded as an activity within the career function of mentoring (Russel & Adams, 1997:2).

Whitely, Dougherty and Dreher (1993:266) highlight the importance of a mentor and career mentoring relationship for protégés. This is because mentors have a significant impact on career patterns, performance and satisfaction of employees. The SANDF is in a transitional phase (for example, restructuring and re-organising military organisational structures and posts) and mentoring programmes can, therefore, be a key strategy for enhancing individual growth and learning among Officers Commanding. Kram (1997:126) supports the benefits of mentoring suggested by Whitely and Dougherty et al. (1993). According to Kram (1997:126), protégés have "… an opportunity to develop skills, gain access to development, build the confidence necessary to tackle challenging tasks, and obtain guidance and counseling". Scherwin and Bourne (2001:28) explored the mentor relationship of officers commissioned in the US Navy Medical Corps. They found that those officers who were mentored had higher ratings of job satisfaction and greater self-report of intent to remain commissioned in the Navy than those who had not been mentored.

Jooste (1999/2000:23) strongly advocates a development programme within Education, Training and Development to contribute towards Army Officer's acceptance of the positive aspects of diversity, mutual trust, understanding, open communication and the acceptance of change. Jooste (1999/2000) is of the opinion that the transformational process in the SANDF makes it essential that diverse workforces from previous different defence forces learn how to trust and respect one another, and accept the changes that the integration process has brought about. These life and emotional intelligence skills can benefit Officers Commanding and the SAMHS.

Officers Commanding and other more senior officers can also perform a mentor role in areas requiring technical and operational skills. It would be appropriate for these mentors to hold either the same rank as the Officer Commanding as protégé or a higher rank than their protégés. It would also be credible if these Officers Commanding are trained in the role of mentor. The researcher is of the opinion that

the majority of Officers Commanding appointed before 1994 did not have the opportunity themselves to be formally mentored. Before 1994 there was not much focus placed on micro skills within the SANDF. Operational skills were superior and training was specifically focused on the area within which candidates were appointed. Life skills training was, and still is, excluded from the nine-month Joint Senior Command and Staff Course. Protégés would benefit from the specialised function capabilities of senior Officers Commanding, for example in logistics, operations and human resources. Officers Commanding manage resources, personnel and ideas within the organisation and their tasks and roles demand that they be multi-skilled. The operations or human resource department is regarded as a specialised field. Officers Commanding are responsible and accountable for the command and control of, for example, the operations and human resource department. Since these are specialised areas, senior Officers Commanding have gained expert knowledge and skills, as well as experience; hence, the deduction that Officers Commanding can benefit from senior Officers Commanding as mentors regarding specialised areas of service delivery. A pool of senior Officers Commanding can be identified to mentor Officers Commanding in these specific areas of specialisation.

The SANDF has already through its Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) indicated its commitment to the application of the mentorship programme in the various service arms (SA Army, SA Navy, SA Air force and SAMHS) by giving this instruction to be executed by the various service arms. In SAMHS, the Command SWP/6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2) does exist, but no evidence could be found to confirm its implementation on ground level.

Mentorship programmes in the SAMHS have therefore been selected as the subject for this study as this type of programme, with reference to knowledge, skills and values, is essential for any organisation to meet the demands of various changes. Douglas and McCauley (1997:7) have found that many organisations such as municipal government, health care, financial, communication and manufacturing companies that do not have a mentorship programme in place, are planning to develop one. The Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) does exist, but to date it has not formally been implemented in the SAMHS.

This research was further stimulated by Bargal (2000:153), who observed that occupational social workers are in an excellent position to effect change because of their proximity to both management and workers. The knowledge and practical experience of professional social workers regarding group dynamics, social systems, cultural differences, minority issues, empowerment and communication places the profession to work on the micro (individual), mezzo (group) and macro (community) levels (Mor Borak & Bargal, 2000:1). Military social workers have an understanding of the psycho-social functioning of individuals in relation to the environment. Their tertiary training makes them specialists in the field of understanding human behaviour. The knowledge, attitudes and resources which military social workers bring into the SANDF enable them to be competent generic social workers. Military social work is based on generic and occupational social work (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998:5). Bargal (2000:153) is of the opinion that occupational social workers may contribute towards shaping the new industrial and organisational reality and lowering the human cost of economic change. Outsourcing of a mentorship programme for Officers Commanding would be costly, and mentorship, like supervision, can be rendered internally without additional costs to the organisation. The difference between supervision and mentoring is defined and discussed extensively in Chapter Six (section 6.2.5) and will thus not be explained further in this introductory chapter.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Although the Department of Defence Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) exists, it appears from the researcher's investigation of the relevant human resource files and registers that the policy is not implemented and reinforced. There could be several reasons for this. For example:

- The policy was possibly not clearly communicated by the human resource department on receipt of the policy from Level Three to Level Four (see Figures 3.2: South African Military Health Service Structure and 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Head Quarters).
- The policy was not interpreted and translated in a standard work procedure.
- Training for those who should implement the policy was not provided.

A policy from Level Three to Level Four is an instruction for execution and provides the framework within which the mentoring should be implemented on Level Four by

means of a standard work procedure. This research therefore acknowledges the DOD Policy on Mentorship and explored the world of work of the OCs, as mentoring can facilitate maximum growth in their micro skills which will benefit the organisation and themselves in their personal lives. Currently, there is no existing empirical research to prove that the knowledge, skills and value training of military social workers cannot be transferred to perform the roles of mentoring. There are also currently no co-ordinated processes in place in the SAMHS that co-ordinate the contributions of different role-players from various multi-professional teams, which can facilitate the training of potential mentors. Hence, no mentoring training or mentoring programmes have been initiated within the framework of this DOD Policy on Mentorship in the SAMHS.

1.4   AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to provide military social workers with a framework of a mentoring process for Officers Commanding in the SAMHS. To achieve this aim, the following objectives will be pursued:

1.4.1   To provide an overview of military social work in the SANDF;

1.4.2   To describe the work environment of the OC and the challenges of their functions, tasks and roles in the SAMHS;

1.4.3   To describe the required knowledge, skills and values of military social workers as mentors;

1.4.4   To determine whether military social workers have the knowledge, skills and values to perform the role of mentors to Officers Commanding within the parameters of the existing DOD Policy on Mentorship within the SAMHS; and

1.4.5   To provide military social workers with a framework of the mentoring process and to relate it to the casework, group work and supervision processes in social work.

The following definitions will be utilised in this study. As some literature refers to the protégé also as "mentee" or "coachee", these terms were utilised interchangeably in this study, where applicable. The same would be applicable when the researcher utilised the term "coach". Since this research deals with mentorship, the major emphasis of the study was to research mentoring, however mentoring and coaching

have more commonalities than differences. Hence, the incorporation of literature pertaining coaching.

1.5   DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS

To prevent confusion and uncertainty, the researcher has clarified terms that are especially unique to the military environment and in alignment with the research study.

1.5.1   Officer Commanding

An Officer Commanding is an individual with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel or Colonel, who has been appointed as the head of a military unit. He is accountable and responsible for the military command, control and general functioning of that unit, and reports to the Chief of his arm of service (Chief of Army, Chief of SAMHS, Chief of Navy and Chief of Air Force). The Joint Military Dictionary (Directorate Language Services, SANDF, 1983:383) describes the officer commanding as a "Commissioned officer, other than a general officer commanding, an organisation or installation".

1.5.2   Military unit

In official military documents of the Officers formative course, a military unit is described as an organisational structure that holds a specific function and where the employees are under the command and control of one person. Such a unit is normally a sub-system of a formation or another bigger system, for example the headquarters: SAMHS Headquarters (HQ).

1.5.3   Formation

The term formation refers to a specific organisational structure, which is geographically determined and under the command of one person (Organisational structures. File reference: File AMHU WC/R/502/8 dated November 2006).

1.5.4   Military social work

Military social work is applied within the unique setting of the military environment. It "…encompasses a full range of generalist and specialist settings and requires skills from individual therapy to policy practice" (Garber & McNelis, 1995:1726).

1.5.5 Military social work services

This term implies that social work services are an organisational sub-system of the SANDF, with the goal of rendering a comprehensive social work service to employees and their dependants and employers of that specific SANDF (SA Navy, SA Army, SA Airforce or SAMHS).

1.5.6 Workplace interventions

Military social workers are guided by the Directorate Social Work's Practice Model to execute military occupational social work (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998). This military social work practice model identifies four positions in which military social workers deliver their services. These positions are restorative, promotive, work-person and workplace interventions. In the workplace intervention position, the military social worker focuses on the organisation or unit. The military social worker can establish standard practices, structures and policies that will benefit the functioning of the organisation as well as the employee. The organisation is advised regarding the human factors within the workplace. Any intervention that addresses the organisation, falls into position four (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998:21). Workplace interventions in the context of this study thus refer to the organisation that has to implement mentorship programmes.

1.5.7 Mentor

Barcus and Wilkinson (1995:16-20) describe the mentor as being traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégés through their careers by giving advice built on their mentors' knowledge, position and experience. Another version is that mentoring is "…one step removed from the direct line management responsibility and concerned with the longer-term acquisition and application of skills in a developing career by a form of advising and counseling" (Parsloe, 1995:73).

1.5.8 Protégé

Parsloe (1995:15) refers to the protégé as an inexperienced person who is assigned to the mentor. Other literature refers to the protégé as a "mentee". The protégé is thus young and newly appointed in the organisation or their specific jobs.

1.5.9 Coaching

Coaching is "… a process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve. To be successful a coach requires knowledge and understanding of processes as well as the variety of styles, skills and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the coaching takes place" (Parsloe, 1999:8).

1.5.10 Training

Training is described as passing on information, knowledge and skills to help people develop cognitive skills and capabilities. While often directive "do that in this way", it can also be done in a coaching, facilitative style by asking questions. "Training imparts knowledge, whereas coaching draws existing knowledge and understanding out of the person concerned" (Vickers & Bavister, 2005:21).

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.6.1 Literature study

The theoretical context of the profile, role and tasks of a mentor, as well as the dynamics surrounding the internal and external work environment of the Officer Commanding, will demand an extensive literature study. The researcher has consulted textbooks and journals from the organisation and management sciences, as well as social work administration. Most research on this subject has been done overseas, hence the researcher's dependence on American and British literature. Such literature has been obtained from the J.S. Gericke Library at the University of Stellenbosch and the Erika Theron Reading Room at the Department of Social Work, University of Stellenbosch. As most textbooks were localised at the University of Stellenbosch, Bellville Business School and University of Cape Town, the researcher utilised the inter-library facilities at the J.S. Gericke Library. The Naval Staff College Reference Library, Military Academy Library and the SA Army College Library were also used to explore journals pertaining to the military environment.

The researcher also made use of the computer system at the J. S. Gericke Library: Social Work Abstracts, South African Studies, Psych Info and EBSCOHOST. The latter data-base proved to be invaluable in obtaining relevant and updated material on the subject under research. The researcher contacted the NRF and the UCT Graduate School of Business to determine what studies in South Africa have been

undertaken on this subject in order to direct the researcher's own study. Other areas of exploration were Black Business Management Forum: Cape Town, Human Resource Management Standard Work Procedure documents for personnel development in SAMHS, Training Curriculum for military officers on Junior Command and Staff Course at the SAMHS Health Training Formation, as well as Joint Senior Command Staff Course at SA Army College. The respective Staff Officers of the different Formations were contacted telephonically to obtain a list of military social workers in specialist posts and with the rank of Major and higher, who qualify for the research.

1.6.2 Empirical study

According to Grinnell (1993:136), this type of research can be classified as exploratory research because mentorship is a relatively poorly researched area in the SAMHS. The intent is to gain new insights into mentorship and to set further priorities for future research. The implication of an exploratory method of research is that data are gathered in order to provide an objective description before determining what factors and solutions can be applied.

The universe comprises all the individuals who are presently employed as civilian and military social workers in specialist posts and with the post rank equal to that of Major to Colonel. The universe consists of 46 military social workers. Arkava and Lane (1983:27) refer to the universe as "...all potential subjects who possess the attributes in which the researcher is interested". The researcher is of the opinion that the contributions of military social workers will be representative of the overall potential of military social workers to mentor Officers Commanding in the SAMHS. No sample is therefore used, as the universe has the characteristics relevant to the research in question. According to De Vos (2001:198), this is identified as non-probability sampling, and specifically purposive sampling.

Information was obtained by means of closed and open questions. All the questionnaires for the military social workers were administered in a group, and returned by means of the SAMHS's confidential internal mail system. De Vos (2001:155,156) believes that the group administered questionnaire is an advantageous method of gathering information.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Updated South African literature with regards to mentorship has been limited, hence the researcher's dependence on American and British literature. The researcher was, however, fortunate to access valuable information from journals on mentorship. These journals became a resource and prompted the researcher to investigate relevant articles and books. Although finances were restricted, the researcher saw buying books on mentoring and coaching as an investment.

Mentorship has always been one of the methods to develop people. However, it was not a familiar field unique to social work. Hence, the thesis itself is very detailed as the researcher endeavoured to link existing methods in social work and interventions to provide military social workers with a framework of the mentoring process. It should also be taken into consideration that the researcher has submitted a full thesis and not a short (50%) thesis. It was also important to provide a broad and firm platform from which any future research by military social workers in the field of mentoring could be launched. Consequently, the six chapters on the literature study could be regarded as too long by normal standards, but not if the above-mentioned reasons are taken into consideration.

The sources that were utilised for military and occupational social work may be considered old. The researcher found that for the purpose of Chapter Two, providing the overview of military social work, the literature was limited to articles ranging from the 1980s to 1995. Very view articles with relevant information came from more recent publications.

The role of the SANDF in Africa contributed to the delay in the completion of this study, as the social worker was deployed to Burundi in 2004 for four months. The researcher's work demands as a personnel development specialist meant that she had to facilitate basic military occupational social work courses in Pretoria annually, whilst coping with extracurricular demands that required long after-hours preparation. This role further demanded an examining role of assignments. The three and a half month Junior Command and Staff Course in Pretoria (2007) further impacted on time away from home and had its own demands for pre-course assignments.

1.8 CONTENT OF THE STUDY

The research report will be presented in two sections. The first section will focus on the literature study and the second section on the empirical study. A breakdown of the content of the chapters of this study follows below:

Chapter One: Introduction: Chapter Two: An overview of Military Social Work in the SANDF. The emphasis in this chapter will be on the development of occupational social work and the link with social work in the military workplace.

Chapter Three: The internal and external environment of the Officer Commanding. This chapter highlights the internal factors of the organisation in which the Officer Commanding is employed, and the external factors that impact on the functioning of the Officer Commanding.

Chapter Four: An overview of the functions and demands of the Officer Commanding. This chapter will provide information on the functions, tasks and roles that Officers Commanding are performing in the SAMHS. The demands of these functions, tasks and roles are also emphasised.

Chapter Five: The requirements of military social workers as mentors. This chapter provides and discusses the knowledge, skills and values of military social workers as mentors. The methods in social work and the interventions are also discussed to show how this knowledge as well as these skills and values can be transferred to the field of mentoring.

Chapter Six: The mentoring process. This chapter provides a framework of the mentoring process which the military social worker can utilise as a guide in their roles as mentors to Officers Commanding in the SAMHS.

Chapter Seven: Findings of the empirical study. In this chapter the empirical data will be provided under the headings of the theoretical information.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and recommendations. This chapter will interpret and evaluate the research in terms of the aims and objectives of this study. All the theoretical and empirical information will be analysed to draw conclusions. Recommendations based on the results of the empirical study as well as recommendations for future research in this subject will be provided.

CHAPTER TWO

OCCUPATIONAL SOCIAL WORK WITHIN THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The emphasis in Chapter Two will be to explain the development of occupational social work and how it relates to social work in the military environment. The point is made that military social workers are diverse in terms of their knowledge, skills, values and attitude to generic social work, but also in respect of occupational social work. This knowledge, skills and values will be discussed in Chapter Five as part of the requirements of the military social worker to practise effectively as a mentor. Chapter Two clarifies the practice of military social work and provides a clear point of departure and basis to account for the reason why occupational social work and military social work are viewed as ideal backgrounds to enable military social workers to venture into mentoring.

Du Plessis (1999:30) identified evidence in the workplace that occupational social workers are facing challenges and reaching out for creative responses in service delivery. Du Plessis (1999:30) attributed this to the fact that occupational social workers in the workplace firstly, require specialist knowledge and skills obtained through formal education and informal contact with other occupational social workers. Secondly, the problems and needs expressed in the workplace as a result of changes in society and the workplace go beyond the individual's personal and family concerns. This implies a shift from the micro to the macro level of intervention. This contributed to a move from the person-centred approach towards a systems theory (Rodway, 1986:516) and ecological perspective (Germain & Gitterman, 1986:618-643). These two perspectives do not only view the client as an individual, but also in the context of society and the organisation. This shift in understanding the nature of the client is placed at the heart of occupational social work intervention. Occupational social work creates a connection between the social work profession and the world of work. It also focuses the attention on the challenge to generate specialist knowledge in the area of work that will inform occupational social work practice and policy (Mor Barak & Bargal, 2000:4). Against this background, the military social worker can therefore be afforded access to opportunities such as mentoring as part of new

initiatives, legislation and policies that are passed in the workplace. Examples include the Employment Equity Act of 1998, DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (South African National Defence Force Order, 1998) and the DOD Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C).

Chapter Two will firstly focus on the history of military social work and secondly on the vision and mission of military social work. Military social workers have a mandate to practise military social work in the SANDF. However, some practitioners debate whether occupational social work should be practised in a non-traditional setting such as the workplace. It is therefore imperative that this chapter describes, thirdly, the social work profession within military social work. Military social work can be regarded as foreign and non-traditional as far as the responsibilities of social workers are concerned. Googins and Godfrey (1987:12,41) state that those who will venture deeper into the world of work can expect to encounter intensified conflict situations, moral dilemmas being but one such situation. Fourthly, the areas and field of service delivery will be identified to ensure that boundary issues and value conflicts are addressed.

Military social work is based on the principles and frameworks of the social work profession, which legitimises the practise of social work in an occupational and military setting. These challenges refer to the interface between military social work and the social work profession, and will be accounted for in this chapter. Motivating factors illustrating the mandate of military social workers to execute occupational roles, whilst abiding by the ethical guidelines of the profession, will also be addressed. Fifthly, the researcher will refer to the systems theory perspective and the ecological perspective as practice frameworks for the military social worker. Cognitive-behavioural and role theories are also considered to be important in this kind of service delivery and will also be discussed. It is important that the chief military social worker as mentor is equipped with knowledge pertaining to the practice frameworks concerning cognitive-behavioural theory and role theory. Practice frameworks provide knowledge about beliefs and assumptions about how, when and under what conditions people and systems change, and what the social worker can do to facilitate desired and needed change (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:82). They would further assist the military social worker in analysing and understanding the complex and chaotic situations in the life of the Officer Commanding. This will benefit Officers

Commanding in that their strengths will be recognised and built upon. When practice frameworks are applied professionally, they achieve what they set out to do (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:83).

Most social workers' understanding of organisations is primarily obtained from the field of sociology and industrial psychology. These two disciplines do have a particular relevance to social work knowledge and one need to acknowledge that there is a clear overlap between sociology, psychology and social work (Brown, 1996:20). Social work has, however, evolved over time and has responded well to addressing organisational needs. The researcher therefore deems it necessary to include organisational development as an essential approach within contemporary perspectives of organisations to guide chief military social workers to assist Officers Commanding deal with change in the organisation of SAMHS.

Lastly, Chapter Two will reflect upon legislation and policy, which will further provide a mandate for the military social worker to perform the role as mentor to Officers Commanding (OCs). Military social workers cannot just perform the role of mentors without being authorised to do so. Guidelines must exist within which the organisation documents its commitment to education, training and development of their employees. Legislation and policies in this regard not only stipulate how the employee should be treated, but also what the role of the mentor would be in accordance with organisational principles and values. Legislation and policies thus hold the military social worker, but also the Officer Commanding (OC), accountable once a contract for mentoring services has been undertaken between the military social worker and the Officer Commanding.

The next section will outline the history of occupational social work. Garber and McNelis (1995:1726) describe military social work as a model of occupational social work and as a microcosm of the social work profession. They further describe military social work as inclusive of generalist as well as specialist settings, and note that it requires skills that range from individual therapy to policy practice. In this chapter military social work has become a separate focus within the specialist area of occupational social work because of the unique nature of any defence force in terms of its structure, mission and goals, as well as the client (person as employee, employee as person and organisation) to whom a service is rendered. In this regard,

when military social work is described, occupational social work is consistently implied as well.

2.2   HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

It is important to reflect upon the history of occupational social work to highlight how occupational social work evolved. In this way knowledge is obtained about what the type of problems dealt with were, who was the client system, what resources were available for treatment, and who the professionals that dealt with the clients were. Such information enables the military social worker to take the initiative to develop new programmes for new problems not previously addressed, for example, policy or programme development.

Military social work as a form of occupational social work has its origins in the United States of America, as indicated by authors such as Smith (1985), Harris (1993), Applewhite, Brintzenhofeszoc, Hamlin and Timberlake (1995), and Knox and Price (1995). World War II contributed to unique problems in the United States of America, which led to the appointment of trained social workers in 1943 to intervene in addressing the needs of military members and their families (Bagnall, 2002:9). Berta Reynolds was one of the pioneers in these fields. Garber and McNelis (1995:1726) state that military social work "…encompasses a full range of generalist and specialist settings and requires skills that range from individual therapy to policy practice". Luitjies (2000:12) explains that this implies that the military social worker renders services either in general or specific fields of social work and that this demands knowledge and skills that can vary from individual therapy to policy formulation.

De Klerk (1991:1) states that within the South African context, military social work was established for the first time in 1972 under the auspices of the South African Medical Services (now South African Military Health Services (SAMHS). In 1994 the face of the SADF (South African Defence Force) changed with the integration of former non-statutory forces, the former TBVC countries and the former SADF. This integration resulted in military social work in the SANDF having a collective history. The social workers trained in universities throughout South Africa, as well as in other African countries, have now become part of the Directorate Social Work in the SANDF.

Military social work is one of the Directorates of the SAMHS (one of the four arms of service in the SANDF), which renders a comprehensive health service to soldiers, their

families and the organisation. Military social work thus functions under the auspices of the Surgeon General and is functionally controlled by the Director Social Work with the rank of Brigadier-General, who is a qualified social worker (De Klerk & Kruger, 1995:5). Figure 2.1: Structure of the Directorate Social Work, reflects the type of positions which military social workers hold within the Directorate Social Work in the SAMHS.

STRUCTURE OF THE DIRECTORATE SOCIAL WORK
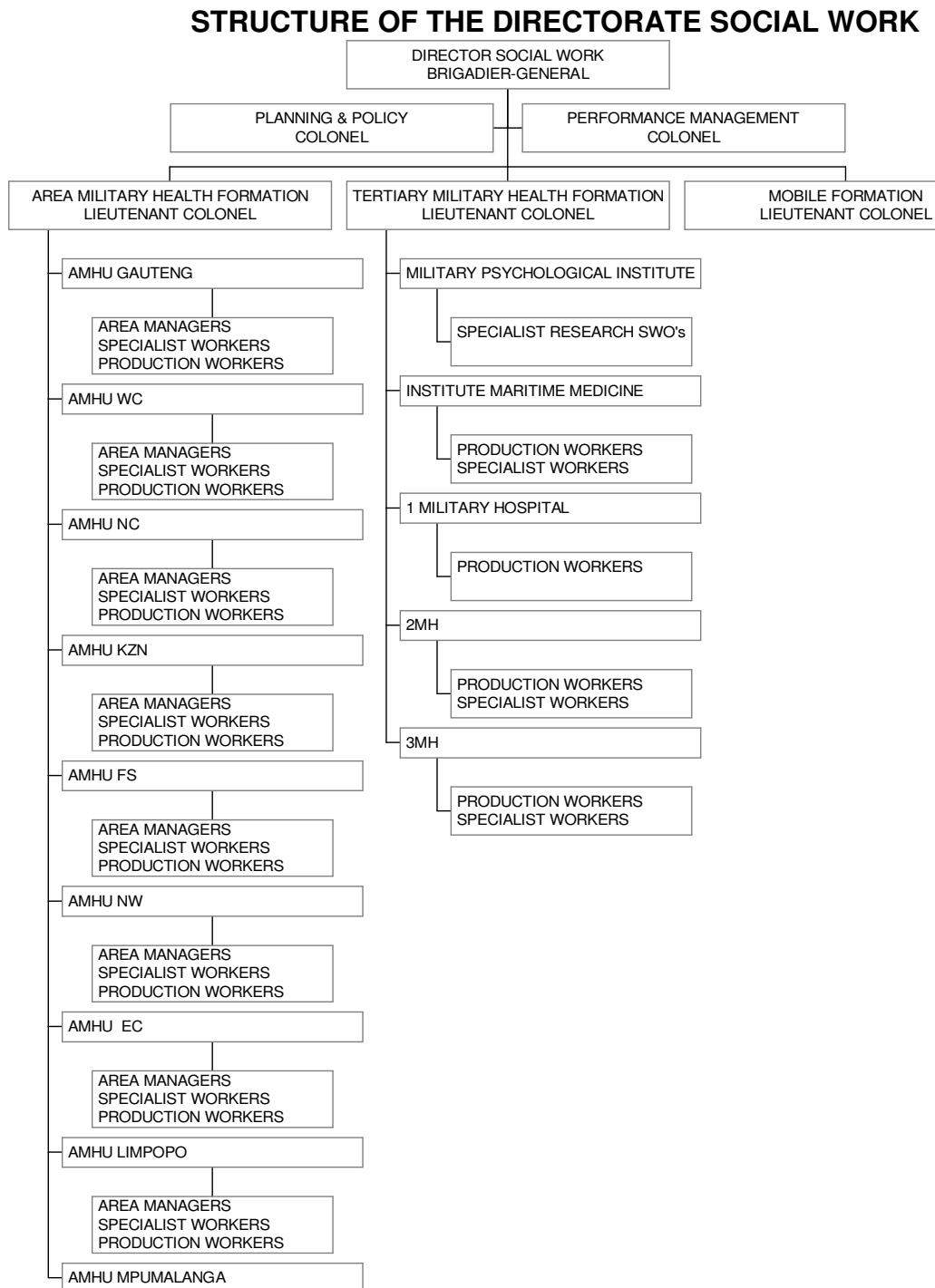
FIGURE 2.1: STRUCTURE OF THE DIRECTORATE SOCIAL WORK. ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURES. (File reference: File AMHU WC/R/502/8 dated November 2006)

Figure 2.1: Structure of Directorate Social Work, shows that the types of positions that military social workers hold, evolved from production workers to specialist posts. This indicates that military social work has expanded the scope of its service delivery towards pro-active and workplace interventions.

The Directorate Social Work can be described as an in-house service of occupational social work. A partnership exists between management and social work in the military within which social work utilises management as an action system and management calls on social work for advice on human and organisational matters (Bagnall, 2002:9).

The next section will elaborate on the vision and mission of military social work in the Directorate Social Work. It is important to be aware of this not only because the vision and mission derive from the business plan of the Directorate Social Work, but also because it provides a clear description of what the purpose of military social work in the Directorate Social Work is. Such information is required to delimit the boundaries of the military social workers' scope of practice.

2.3   THE VISION AND MISSION OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

The vision and mission are emphasised because, apart from their providing the organisation with a purpose, they also provide standardised guidelines as to how the military social workers can proceed in their field of operation. The vision and mission allow for reviews in the organisation when changes either in the internal or external environment of the client system had occurred. Thus, the vision and mission provide opportunities for updating services and evaluating why certain decisions were taken. Accountability is upheld when the vision and mission are consciously implemented. As potential mentors, military social workers will have an awareness what do they need to do to ensure the growth and client satisfaction of the Officers Commanding. They will have knowledge as to what processes they need to follow to excel as mentors.

The Directorate Social Work's (DSW) Business Plan refers to the vision as follows: "…a world-class occupational social work service comprising highly competent, creative and performance-driven personnel. We render an excellent and committed service to the total satisfaction of all stakeholders and contribute to the development of a changing nation" (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1997:9).

The mission of the Directorate Social Work is defined as follows: "The Directorate Social Work strives to market and render an equitable and sustainable needs-based and people-centred social service through a developmental social work approach. We enhance the social well-being of individuals and the organisation by ensuring accessible and appropriate services" (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1997:9).

This vision and mission clearly stipulate the borders within which military social work is rendered and to whom it will be rendered, for example, the four services including the South African Army, South African Air force (stakeholders). It also connects with one of the two schools of thought which influence military social work, that is the Government's White Paper on Social Development (Department of Welfare, 1997) in that it centres its contribution on development. One can thus assume that strategic planning played a role to align the Directorate's vision and mission with current and relevant events on national level and that of SAMHS. The mission can be regarded as consumer friendly and sensitive to clients' needs, and connects with the vision of SAMHS, which is to deliver a comprehensive military health service to all military personnel.

Both the vision and the mission are focused on both the client and the organisation, and they embrace the goals of the SANDF to maintain peace and, in times of war, to execute war. The utilisation of the developmental approach is active and assists the researcher in understanding that this aim and vision of military social work are not stagnant. In the same way that the aim and mission of the SANDF has changed, in the same way the aim and vision of military social work are subjected to change. De Klerk (1991:46) stresses the importance of military social work services as an integral part of the social work profession in that it should primarily focus its aim and mission on social work service delivery. For now, war is not likely in South Africa. The age-old business of war, with which the SANDF has been predominantly associated, is not relevant at present. Changes in a new century have shifted the focus in the SANDF to peace enforcement, peacekeeping and maintaining combat readiness.

In executing the vision and mission of military social work through assuming mentorship roles, military social work is aligning itself with changes that are occurring in the organisation. Within this context, De Klerk (1991:44) cautions military social workers to continue to practise within the social work profession's knowledge and skills base when expanding the parameters of military social work, and to involve

other multi-professional team members as consultants in order to remain ethical and legitimate. It is for these purposes that this study focuses on mentoring Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, but also to respect other professions' expertise in the field of mentorship. Officers Commanding are reassured that they will be mentored by responsible and professional military social workers. In order to explore further the matter as to how ethical military social workers shift to the role of mentor, the following section will focus on the social work profession as a basis for military social work.

2.4 THE SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION WITHIN MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

According to Poppendieck (1992:31), an ethical code regulates the behaviour of members and is a hallmark of any profession. Botha (1993:3) describes a code of ethics as one that translates professional values into behavioural expectations. She adds that it describes the sanctions that will be imposed upon those who are unable or unwilling to comply with the prescription of the code. She concludes that it is not a set of rules that prescribes behaviour for every situation, but rather provides the basis for decision making in ethical dilemmas. The Social Work Code of Ethics in SA (RSA SAC SSP Act 110 of 1978) is based on the fundamental values of the social work profession, which include the worth, dignity and uniqueness of all persons as well as their rights and opportunities.

Military social work is an integral part of the social work profession. It was therefore imperative for the researcher to review the protocols which the SA Council for Social Service Professions (SACCSSP: Newsletter, 2000) have identified as to what constitutes acceptable, professional and ethical conduct. This reflection is important as the generic social work training that social workers receive at university level, the military environment during formalised in-service-training workshops, postgraduate courses and their work experiences equip military social workers to perform roles that border on those of other professions and could result in "turf" conflicts. It is thus easy to anticipate that some occupational psychologists or organisational development specialists might question the ethical, knowledge and skills basis of military social workers to perform the role of mentors. The onus is, however, on military social workers to use recognised knowledge relevant to social work to develop the profession and thereby ensuring its survival.

When military social workers utilise the ecological perspective (Germain & Gitterman, 1986:618-643) or intervene from a systems theory perspective (Rodway, 1986:516-518) to perform their supportive roles as mentors to Officers Commanding, then they remain within the boundaries of the social work profession. Kurzman and Akabas (1981:54) stress that a social functioning perspective is in actual fact central to workplace intervention. The ecological perspective focuses on consequences of interactions among elements of the ecosystem including people, organisations, information and values. The ecological perspective together with the systems theory perspective is ideal to enhance critical areas of work and family life. These theoretical frameworks are thus important as guides to the military social worker to remain ethical in the area in which the intervention is delivered and how it is executed.

Kurzman and Akabas (1981:55) warn against the tensions of practising in a secondary environment. The core function of the SANDF is combative in nature, and the rendering of social work services is secondary in the organisation. Military social workers must therefore remain committed to the ethics and values of the social work profession, as these are the very same guidelines that will protect military social workers in pursuing the needs of their clients, and promoting the credibility of the profession in the SANDF. Once organisational needs are in conflict with client needs, it becomes the responsibility of the military social worker to act assertively to ensure that service delivery principles, such as client self-determination and confidentiality, are protected. The use of the military social worker itself, is important in establishing a working relationship that according to Kurzman and Akabas (1981:56) "…are essential to fulfill objectives of practice relating to both social service and social change in this potentially adversarial situation". Supporters of occupational social work express a strong faith that, for as long as social workers put the interest of their clients first, the impact of their service delivery on their clients' well-being and organisational productivity, as stipulated in the professional code of ethics, will contribute towards the achievement of social work's goal to act as a helping profession (Akabas, 1995:1783-1784).

Military social work was established in the SANDF in 1972, and although EAP programmes were well established, it has only been since 1986 that occupational social work has actively been researched and experimented with in the military setting. The then Social Work Staff Officer in charge of Military Social Work in the

Western Cape region, Lieutenant Colonel M.H. de Klerk, started her research based on occupational social work and completed her thesis in 1991. This was followed by an in-service-training workshop in 1993 on occupational social work with Ms Angela du Plessis as guest speaker, the then senior lecturer at the University of Witwatersrand's Social Work faculty. Occupational social work can be considered to be well established amongst military social workers and well marketed among their stakeholders. Military social workers have worked hard to obtain the respect they deserve from management and are well positioned to answer the questions that Googins (1987) posed in terms of who is our client system and whose agents are we?

Military social workers are well integrated into the organisation, but also consider themselves as "separate" in order to be in a neutral position to serve with conviction and dedication wherever the need may arise. Under no circumstances should there be a misconception that military social workers are obligated to unquestioningly support management's agendas just because military social work is an example of "sponsorship by management" (Bakalinsky, 1980:473). Military social workers should advocate change and utilise Officer Commanding meetings, Employee Assistance Programmes as well as Employee Well-being Forums as platforms to market these service delivery principles to create an understanding among management of how the military social worker conduct their services in accordance with social work ethics and values. The following section will discuss the field of service delivery and will specifically highlight the five key performance areas of the Directorate Social Work's Business Plan and what are referred to as 'positions' in the Directorate Social Work's Practice Model.

2.5   FIELD OF SERVICE DELIVERY

The field of service delivery demarcates the types of services that are appropriate for the type of problem or need. These services can either be remedial, curative, preventative and developmental, and be directed to the individual, group, family or workplace. The specific area could either be child and family care, alcohol and drug abuse or employer/employee support.

Social work is regarded as a remarkable profession and non-social work colleagues are frequently impressed with the knowledge and actions of social workers

(Kurzman, 1988:16). Smith (1988:xiv) confirms this. He also noticed that, although other professionals such as psychologists, counsellors and various human resource consultants have recognised the opportunities for practice in the workplace, social work as a profession is credited as follows: "…no other arena for social work practice accommodates such a broad array of professional knowledge and skill" (Smith, 1988:xiv).

The Directorate Social Work has compiled a Directorate Social Work Business Plan (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1997) and a Directorate Social Work Military Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF: 1998) to guide flexible service delivery in the SANDF. The field of service delivery covers who the client system is, what the aim of intervention is, and the methods that could be utilised. The Business Plan identifies the following five key end results:

- "**Mission readiness and support.** Military social workers enable national and international deploying soldiers and their families who remain behind to cope more effectively during these deployments.

- **Productive organisation.** Social work is directed at assessing, enabling and developing the SANDF as an organisation and a subsystem thereof. Employees are provided with learning opportunities to develop their fullest potential and to function optimally and energetically in the workplace. Transformational change, supervisors training, healthy lifestyle, life skills and stress management programmes are presented.

- **National alignment**. Through forums and meetings in the SANDF, social work is marketed. Networking further ensures that stakeholders value the service in terms of sharing expertise and resources. Positive marketing strategies lead to continual referrals from units and requests for presenting of programmes. Co-operation between social work and other relevant disciplines, manifests in human resource teams with the result of an integrated service delivery to the various stakeholders.

- **Socially healthy military families**. Remedial, preventative and developmental approaches are utilised to ensure that military families are resilient to organisational and societal demands. Family friendly policies and work procedures contribute to the execution of this key end result.

Programmes focus on financial management, alcohol and drug abuse, family disintegration, violence, sexual abuse and prevention of HIV/AIDS.

- **Willing, able and allowed social work workforce**. The Directorate Social Work in itself ensures through personnel meetings, military courses such as military social work and supervisor's courses, in-service-training workshops and peer group supervision, that the military social workers themselves maintain a high standard of continuous professional development."

The above key performance areas in the Directorate Social Work's Business Plan (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1997) specifically inform the military social worker in the areas in which they must be competent to practise as military social workers. Knowledge, skills and values are required generically, but also on a specialist level, for example, specialist skills and knowledge for the field of mission readiness and support, and for a productive organisation. The key performance areas thus demand that the military social worker possess a wide range of knowledge, skills and values, whether it is networking with the macro community or the training and development of military social workers.

The Directorate Social Work's Military Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998) has been compiled because the models of Ozawa (1980) and Googins and Godfrey (1987) were not regarded as appropriate for the military context. Bagnall (2002:18) explains these authors' models shortcomings in the following way:

- "Both focus on the historical development of occupational social work, rather than the development of the individual employee.

- Both refer to phases that result from the linear approach, which is considered mutually exclusive."

Hinshelwood (1991:393) refers to Melanie Klein, who preferred the concept "position" to "phase or stage" when discussing movement between positions. "Stage" implies a necessary progression from an inferior level to a superior level. It also suggests that when one moves on to a next phase, the previous phases become irrelevant or less important. The Directorate Social Work Practice Model specifically chooses to refer to "positions" as this allows greater movement between positions, in any direction. Positions are also less value laden and none of the

following positions are considered to be necessarily more important or merely more appropriate. But military social workers are encouraged, however, to recognise opportunities in their units that will enable them to intervene in the last position. This type of intervention will allow them to practise skills such as advocating, negotiating, persuading management on behalf of employees, and interpreting bureaucratic decision-making.

The Social Work Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998) can be utilised to assess the individual, groups and communities and are categorised in positions.

- "**Position 1**: The restorative intervention focus on individuals and families and intervention is aimed at restoring problem solving and coping capacities through case, group and community work.

- **Position 2**: The promotive intervention focus on individuals, groups and communities and intervention is aimed to promote or enhance social functioning and well being through case, group, community work, psycho-education, lectures.

- **Position 3**: The work-person interventions focus on the interaction between individuals and systems in the workplace and are aimed at addressing work-related problems through group work techniques, problem solving-processes, community development and experiential exercises.

- **Position 4**: The workplace interventions focus on the workplace which is the unit or organisation and is aimed at assisting the organisation to establish processes and structures that would promote optimal productivity, high morale and social well-being of its employees. This is achieved through the military social worker's bargaining, negotiating, and research skills as well as development of policy proposals."

These positions in the above practice model define the social work interventions which can be executed in which position. They are aligned with the key performance areas and cannot be implemented in isolation from each other. These positions allow for various types of services to be rendered and allow role flexibility to the military social worker. For example, a military social worker can work with an individual

employee and work in all the four positions to address the individual's problem or need, and utilise different social work roles ranging from educator to change agent.

Googins (1987:37) asks several questions about whether the occupational social worker in fact can claim that occupational social work is a unique field on its own. Rosenfeld (1983:186) remarks that there is actually no clarity and similarities in the domain of social work because of the different approaches that are used in the descriptions of the field of service delivery in occupational work. The researcher views the service delivery of military social work as a very broad field and leans heavily towards the developmental perspective of Googins (1987:38), Bloom (1990:144,243), Cherin (1990:36) and the generalist systemic perspective of Straussner (1990:14). All of these authors have described the field of social work as generic.

De Klerk (1991:56) has identified the remedial, preventative, developmental and caring services as the most highlighted service delivery areas. The Directorate Social Work Business Plan (1997) and Practice Model (1998) clearly indicate that military social workers are capable of delivering services within the four abovementioned service delivery areas. On a remedial and caring level they are able to address individual personal problems and render support during deployments. Preventatively, programmes are developed for alcohol and substance abuse prevention, and implemented to improve and maintain the optimal social functioning of employees and their dependants. Developmentally, transformational change programmes are presented to eradicate interpersonal work tensions caused by cultural diversity. This holistic manner of service delivery requires great skill and knowledge from military social workers. The Directorate Social Work encourages military social workers to take responsibility for their own professional development and not to depend solely on internal programmes for staff development. Encouragement is evident in that the Directorate budgets annually for military social workers to continue with postgraduate social work programmes that would benefit the client, organisation and the social work profession.

The following section will highlight the different theories and perspectives that impact on military social work.

2.6 THEORIES AND PERSPECTIVES IMPACTING ON MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

Greene (1991a:1) is of the opinion that any social worker who wishes to specialise in any profession's service arena will need to acquire conceptual frameworks that provide the theoretical context for understanding the complexities of contemporary practice. In the context of military social workers mentoring Officers Commanding in the future, it would be appropriate for the researcher to explore conceptual frameworks that would enable military social workers to understand those factors and sub-components that impact on the functioning of the Offer Commanding as person and as employee. The selected frameworks should also provide a structure to analyse information as a whole and to give direction for decision-making, meaningful intervention and outcome measurement. Marais (1993:18) describes the primary aim of occupational social work as being to equip the individual to adapt to his work situation and to promote the functioning of the working community as a whole. The primary aim and purpose of social work is to improve societal conditions, to enhance social functioning among individuals, families and groups, and to promote a mutually beneficial interaction between individuals and society (Greene, 1991a:1,12). Kilburg (2000:63) identified a whole range of goals for executive coaching, from which the researcher selected the following two goals:

- "Increase the client's ability to manage self and others in conditions of environmental and organisational turbulence, crisis and conflict, and

- Improve the client's ability to manage tensions between organisational, family, community, industry, and personal needs and demands".

These two goals should be executed whilst considering the purpose and structure of the organisation in which the Officer Commanding is employed, their functions, roles and the internal and external environment, as discussed in Chapter Three. Simultaneously, the goal and objectives of the DOD Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence (DOD), 1999:3-4) and the functions of mentoring (Russel & Adams, 1997:2) should also be aligned. These goals very much focus on the different systems that impact on the social functioning of Officers Commanding inside and outside the workplace.

Kilburg (2000:63) has also compiled three foci areas for executive coaching, as presented in Figure 2.2.
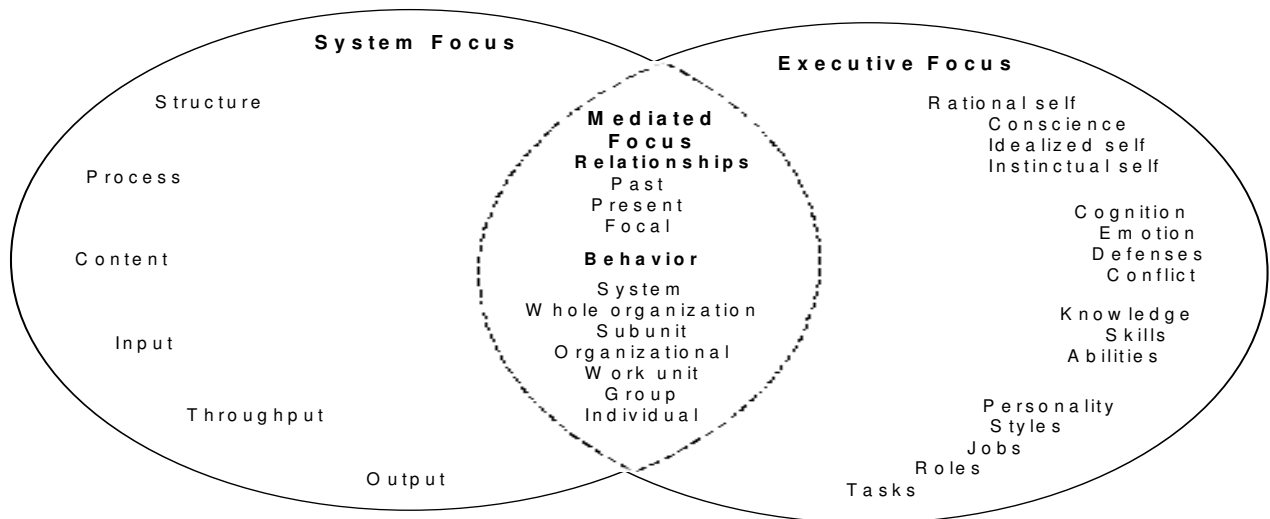
FIGURE 2.2: FOCI FOR COACHING EXECUTIVES (Kilburg, 2000:63)

In Figure 2.2 three foci areas are identified: the executive focus, the system focus and the mediated focus (the relationship and behavioural factors that mediate all interactions and activities between the manager and his or her organisation). A mentor or coach who is providing services to any executive will be able to provide assistance inside or by means of crossing over any of the foci area. The mentor/coach will also be able to choose a specific foci area as the primary target of mentoring/coaching.

It is within the context of these definitions, goals and foci areas that the researcher decided to adopt systems theory and ecological approach. This theory and perspective are not only holistic, but would enable the military social worker to achieve essentially the aim of social work and occupational social work, whilst also addressing the sub-foci areas in Figure 2.2: Foci for coaching executives (Kilburg, 2000:63).

2.6.1 Systems theory

According to Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:86), "One element of a social worker's practice framework is his or her practice perspective". One can thus conclude that a perspective is part of a practice framework, hence systems theory will be explained

as an applicable perspective to direct military social workers to focus on certain factors when mentoring the Officer Commanding.

Rodway (1986:516) describes systems theory as "…a current orientation to practice that focuses attention to the point where it belongs, the transactions that occur between individuals and their environments and the potential of the transactions for enhancing or diminishing the capacity of individuals to gain satisfaction from life and to promote the satisfaction of others". According to this account, systems theory has value for the military social worker as the OC is assessed either as a client or as part of the mentorship program. The problems or needs of the Officer Commanding cannot be assessed in isolation from other primary systems of which he or she is part. The OC must be assessed within the totality of the context of the family, small groups, the community, society or organisation. Authors such as Johnson and Yanca (2007:11), Meyer (1995:19-20) and Sheafor and Horesji (2003:89) confirm this when they state that the person can never be removed from his or her environment, but that the individual needs to be seen in interaction with his or her environment.

Grobbelaar and Louw (1990:17) and Johnson and Yanca (2007:12-13) elaborate further that the relationship among parts and wholes is of primary interest, as the system itself is made up of parts or sub-systems or other parts. All of these systems are more than the sum of their parts and are interactive and interdependent. One can therefore conclude that influence can occur either from within the system or from outside the environment, and that this interconnectedness can bring along change. The military social worker will have to recognise how skills training in the area of verbal or non-verbal communication of the OC will affect his relationship and interaction with his Staff Officers (Head of Departments such as Nursing, Logistics, Operations). Johnson and Yanca (2007:13) emphasise that the larger system can only maintain itself if the subsystems "…make adjustments in their own functioning to meet the needs of the larger systems". Change that occurs within the communication abilities of the OC, must also advance the fulfilment of the needs of his/her Staff Officers, as all the components of the system need to be fulfilled. If not, then the military social worker will have to either intervene directly or refer the client to other members of the multi-professional team to intervene to effect equilibrium among the sub-systems that are themselves in interaction with one another.

2.6.1.1   Type of systems

Systems can be classified as closed or open systems. Open systems' boundaries are permeable and exchange energy with their environment. These exchanges result in growth and lead to the systems' elements becoming differentiated and developing. Closed systems are self-contained and will not thrive, because they do not exchange energy (Meyer, 1995:21). The application of closed systems is hardly acknowledged in the study of organisations; Netting, Kettner and McMurtry (1998:212) are of the opinion that the studies of Katz and Kahn (1966) certainly indicate the most effective way to examine organisations, that is through open systems and hence the researcher will elaborate on open systems.

2.6.1.2   Characteristics of open systems

The exchange between a system and the environment is considered as an important characteristic of an open system and can be explained in terms of an input-throughput-output process. Sources of input, output, throughput and feedback are the different elements that are present within the interaction of an open system with the environment (Netting et al., 1998:212).

Characteristics of an open system have been identified as follows by authors such as Rodway (1986:516-518), Johnson and Yanca (2007:12,13), Meyer (1995:21-23) and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:89-90):

- **Repetition of patterns**: Open systems are characterised by cycles and this is clear when output creates opportunities for new input.

- **Self-regulation**: Systems will die or disintegrate if not exposed to input from the environment. An open system, however, is able to grow and to re-establish itself and maintains its structure.

- **Feedback**: The feedback mechanisms are also referred to as "…cybernetic systems that are able to act on information from their surroundings, interpret data, and adjust their functioning accordingly." This ability of open systems accounts for their self-regulating abilities.

- **Homeostasis**: Although systems seek a certain amount of growth and development, they resist radical change. There is always an attempt to maintain a safe degree of sameness and security. This means that the

possibility is always there that more energy can be fed into the system than what is required for output.

- **Equifinality**: This refers to the capacity of two systems to achieve identical goals when starting from different conditions and methods.

The characteristics above are explained by, for example, the idea that Officers Commanding should command their units in conjunction with the vision and mission of the organisation in mind. One can say that the vision and mission together with the strategic areas provide feedback as to what should be maintained in the business plan. Some legislation in the macro community results in policies and instructions in the Department of Defence. This input can change the homeostasis of the unit of the Officer Commanding, for example, an instruction that each soldier must undergo a Concurrent Health Assessment. Such input impacts on existing budgets. Budgets are planned for a two-year cycle, and such an instruction can change the budget plan of a unit. However, such an instruction can also be self-regulating, as it would create new opportunities for the SAMHS to uphold its core business. The above five characteristics have benefits for any open system as it continuously seek to renew itself. The military social worker can thus utilise these characteristics as motivational factors when assisting Officers Commanding in making decisions in crisis situations. These characteristics allow the military social worker to think about the systems and their functions. The military social worker can conceptualise and evaluate the impact of the systems with which the Officer Commanding is interacting, and implement a plan of action to prevent total disintegration of these systems. The following section will highlight an example to make the application of open systems more practical.

2.6.1.3   *Application of open systems for military social work services*

In human service agencies, for example, the military social work department in the SA Military Health Services, the input as referred in section 2.6.1.2 includes the social work personnel, facilities and services provided by other multi-professional teams in the military environment or individuals and groups of other sub-systems in the SANDF as organisation. Clients are considered important inputs, as well as the severity of the problems for which they seek help or are referred for. The military social work department where the social work services are rendered is regarded as the throughput process or change process. The outputs are the clients who function in a healthier way, showed no change, or deteriorated, whilst the consumer refers to

the client itself, the military system, families and other groups in the broader community.

Through the process of unpacking the input-throughput-output concept as applied to the military social work services, it is clear that both the inputs and the outputs are indeed the same product, that is, the client. A new product is not designed, but change must take place in the same product, which is the client. It is apparent that there is an interdependence and exchange between the various elements of the process, which results in continuous feedback. The next section will elaborate on the ecological perspective.

2.6.2 The ecological perspective

A second perspective in the practice framework is the ecological perspective. The systems theory has been reflected upon as a framework for social work service delivery to the OC, and as already mentioned, the needs and problems of Officers Commanding (OCs) can never be assessed in isolation from the bigger system of which he or she is a part. However, the systems theory is not a service delivery model, but has use in that it is a cognitive framework for the development of a service delivery model. The ecological perspective from which the ecosystems perspective and the "life-model" as social work service delivery model (Germain & Gitterman, 1986:619) derive is thus the ideal service delivery model to be utilised in rendering a mentoring service to Officers Commanding in the future.

Authors such as Balgopal (1989), Rankin (1991) and Du Plessis (1999) are of the opinion that the eco-systems perspective is a relevant framework for occupational social work. The value of this perspective lies in the fact that the military social worker can extend his or her services from a micro to a macro level, and that the ecological perspective allows for flexibility in the choice of social work method. Military social workers will thus be able to apply social work methods in an integrated way by means of the ecological perspective (Lombard, 1991:19).

Germain and Gitterman (1986:618-643) describe the goal of the "life-model" as, firstly, support and increase of the individual's adaptation abilities and, secondly, as influencing the direct environment to be more responsive to the needs of the individual. The authors state further that ecology "…seeks to understand the complex reciprocal relationships between people and environments…". This goal is relevant

and corresponds with the aims and objectives of the profession of social work (Greene, 1991a:1,12), the definition of occupational social work (Marais, 1993:18) and the aim of mentoring/coaching (Kilburg, 2000:63). The bottom line of the definition, goals and objectives is, according to the researcher, to provide the OC, who is the protégé of the mentor in this research, with healthy social functioning skills. Healthy social functioning is what has been referred to by Germain and Gitterman (1986:619) as a "goodness of fit" between the person and the environment. This model will enable the military social worker to rectify the mismatches between the characters of the Officers Commanding and the culture, relationships and psychodynamic patterns of the organisation they are employed in. The military social worker's understanding of the binocular vision, managerial and adult learning, system's thinking, and the essential purpose of the ecological perspective, are positive contributors towards achieving this "goodness of fit".

Morales and Sheafor (1992:184-188) confirm the value of the ecosystems perspective based on its use of assessment and planning, and the emphasis it places on the systemic interaction of the following five elements:

- Characteristics of the individual(s);

- family life-style and dynamics;

- cultural values and beliefs;

- environmental-structural factors such as racism, sexism or ageism; and

- the historical experiences that have contributed to a client's situation.

The five elements have a reciprocal effect on each other, which mean that the Officer Commanding as client cannot be assessed as an entity on just his characteristics or family life-style and dynamics. Each of the five elements must be considered holistically to determine the focus of the intervention. This can guide the military social worker to implement changes in the intervention process. These five elements also correspond with the components, for example, the executive focus, the system focus and the mediated focus mentioned in Figure 2.2: Foci for executive coaching, and provide the military social worker with a comprehensive profile of who the Officer Commanding is and how to make connections between the pieces of information at hand.

The ecological perspective reminds the military social worker that the environment in which the Officer Commanding is functioning is constantly changing and that their families and other sub-systems with whom they interact will also in return be subjected to change. The application of this perspective enables the military social worker to execute interventions as mentors. The military social worker will have a broad array of methods available to assist the Officer Commanding (OC). It is also comforting to know that the military social worker who is identified to perform the role of mentor has the appropriate training and experience to use the ecological perspective wisely and professionally.

The systemic interaction in the work and family life of the Officers Commanding will now be demonstrated by way of an example. Management, leadership, need for power, personal achievement, and being a husband and a father all impact on the work-family life of the Officer Commanding. All of these aspects have a reciprocal effect on one another. This synergetic (terminology borrowed from systems theory) functioning has been demonstrated by Welch (1987:156) in the human eco-system. Marais (1993:6) has adapted the human eco-system by adding the employer as a separate level of functioning on the macro level. The problems and needs for mentoring of the Officers Commanding will thus have to be analysed in relation to each of the sub-systems before change can occur, which implies a broader view and what is referred to as binocular vision (looking at the small details and the bigger picture) in the Military Social Work Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998:16). Figure 2.3 illustrates the human eco-system.
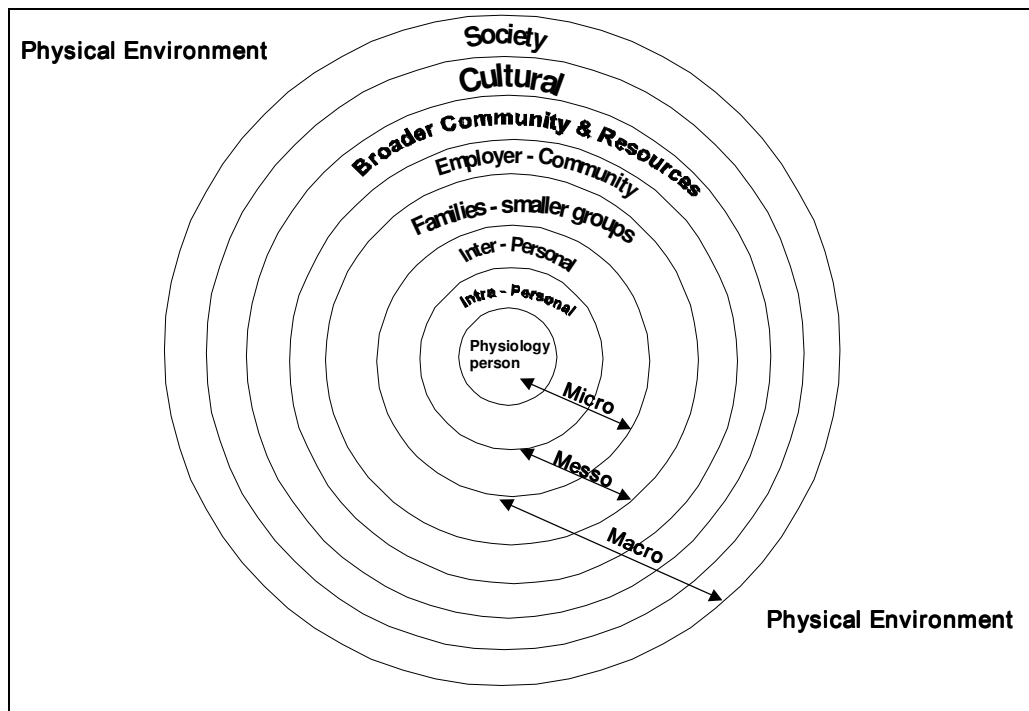
FIGURE 2.3: THE HUMAN ECO SYSTEM (Adapted from Welch, 1987:156)

Exchanges within this ecosystem not only take place between the systems, but also between the ecosystem and the physical environment. Changes that would occur in the Logistical budget of SAMHS for example less money allocation for military vehicles would effect the service delivery of military social workers to their stakeholders negatively, especially concerning home visits and rendering deployment resilience support programs to dependents of members who are deployed internationally. The Officers Commanding budgeting skills can be overseen by other line function Officers Commanding, as budgeting would be regarded as a technical skill that the military social worker as mentor will not be performing. The unit budget manager is in this regard appointed to execute the managing of the business plan and budget. On a human related level, one can however not deny that social workers are well skilled in teaching financial management skills as part of a life skills program to Officers Commanding as client or small group.

The Directorate Social Work Business Plan (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1997) strives to enhance both the functioning of the individual as well as the organisation in the human ecosystem perspective. This is an important environmental focus in the problem or need situation of the OC. Organisation development can be utilised by the military social worker or executed by organisational psychologists to address issues that affect both the employee and the organisation. The ecological perspective is

again an ideal model of intervention as it encompasses the person-in-situation as a whole in its relationship between the person as employee and the organisation. In this way both these sub-systems become the focus of change.

The ecological perspective addresses other important concepts that the military social worker must be familiarised with. These concepts as identified by Germain and Gitterman (1986:619-628), Greene (1991b:271-280) and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:91-92) are indicated below.

- **Process**: A transactional view or what happens over time or across encounters. Interest is centred on the flow of events over time.

- **Stress**: An imbalance between a person's perceived demands and his or her perceived capability to use resources to meet those demands.

- **Relatedness**: The ability to form human relationships or to connect with other people.

- **Competence**: The ability to be effective in one's environment. It is achieved through a history of successful transactions with the environment. Self-esteem and self-identity are closely linked to competence.

- **Efficacy**: The power to be effective.

- **Roles**: Encompasses not only expectations about how a person in a given social position is to act toward others, but also how others are to act toward that person. Roles are further patterns of expected behaviours, but also patterns of reciprocal claims and obligations.

- **Niche and habitat**: Niche refers to individual's immediate environment or statuses occupied by members of the community and habitat refers to the person's physical and social setting within a cultural context.

- **adaptiveness**: The person and environment mutually influence and respond to each other to achieve the best possible match or goodness of fit.

- **Coping skills**: Behaviours carried out by an individual to regulate his or her feelings or emotional distress.

The above concepts provide a framework for the assessment of weaknesses in terms of the potential of Officers Commanding for change and development. The life

experiences of the OC are equally important to determine how he or she responded to past stressors and crises, and what was his or her method of coping to deal with the present lack of stress management, interpersonal or decision-making skills. This information is important to assist the military social worker to view the OC in the context of his/her strengths and not only in terms of his or her weaknesses. In this regard the ecological perspective is valuable for the military social worker as it emphasises a transactional view of coping capacity and power relationships with goodness of fit, as the underlying paradigm.

In addition to the other theoretical frameworks such as the systems theory and ecological perspective, two theories and one approach, that are the cognitive-behavioural theory, role theory and organisational development approach, will also be discussed. These two theories and one approach should guide the intervention of the chief military social worker as mentor.

2.7   OTHER PRACTICE THEORIES AND APPROACHES RELEVANT TO MENTORSHIP

2.7.1 Cognitive-behavioural theory

Officers Commanding as protégés are employed in a working environment that confronts them with decision-making and problem-solving demands that can become overwhelming. Some are pressurised to make decisions without taking time to evaluate the risks and the consequences. The cognitive-behavioural theory has been selected to empower the Officer Commanding to become introspective about their own behavioural responses, for example, when they are placed under pressure, and to examine their thinking patterns when weighing options. Military social workers as mentors should have knowledge and insight into how to apply the cognitive-behavioural theory, as it can assist them in performing the psycho-social mentoring function, specifically in the area of competence, identity and role modelling, as well as the career mentoring function, specifically related to dealing with challenging work assignments. The following information will give further depth to the military social workers' understanding and application of the cognitive-behavioural theory.

Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:99) describe the purpose of this theory as being "to improve social functioning by assisting the client to learn more realistic and positive ways of perceiving, thinking about and interpreting his or her life experiences".

According to these authors, this theory requires the clients to be intellectually capacitated and willing to invest time to monitor and analyse their own behaviour and thinking. The military social worker thus needs to bear in mind that the Officer Commanding needs to be a willing protégé, should this theory be utilised in addressing intra- or interpersonal problems. Voluntary participation should be contracted in writing to ensure commitment and maximum participation.

The other comprehensive factor in this theory is that the theory integrates concepts from behavioural and learning theory and applied behavioural analysis. It further focuses on the interplay amongst thoughts, emotions and behaviour. A wide spectrum of human-related skills can be learned or role modelled for the Officer Commanding. Officers Commanding will be able to recognise the content and consequences of their cognitions and by means of cognitive restructuring, logical analysis, role modelling, behavioural rehearsal, paradoxical instruction, desensitisation and cognitive flooding, constructive change can occur in thinking patterns and behavioural responses (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:99-100).

The researcher cites a vignette of Austin and Martin (1996:1) to describe the behaviour of an executive director of an organisation and the impact on his staff in order to demonstrate the practical applicability of this theory: "He is very bright and effective, which comes through when you meet him in the office but not in the hallway. He seems uptight at staff meetings and at large staff gatherings. Sometimes he appears to be more interested in data or figures than in people or communications. He presents the image of having all the answers and rarely asks for assistance or advice. He seems to be either busy in his office alone or entering the building by the back door. Staff sometimes describes him as unfriendly and cold". This is a typical scenario that chief military social workers may be confronted with in their role as mentors and this vignette might fit the description of some Officers Commanding. This is not an unrealistic anticipation by the researcher, as Kroeger and Theusen (1992) used the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and surveyed 12 000 managers and found that 54% of middle managers, 44% senior managers and 53% of top executives could be characterised as introverts. Introverts' independence and ability to give direction are requisites for managerial position but, on the other hand, introverted managers might not be sufficiently expressive and demonstrative,

especially in stressful situations and may therefore project an image of impatience or disapproval (Austin & Martin, 1996:4-5).

The application of the cognitive-behavioural theory would be ideal to address such anti-social behaviour by the executive director. The military social worker could, if this were her protégé, take this individual through documenting personal and situational factors that impact on his low risk-taking, negative introspection, self-consciousness, management of gender or cultural differences in order to identify inhibiting factors. This process will require that individuals examine faulty assumptions that they might hold towards other cultural groups or their role as an executive in the organisation. The individual's definition of his membership in the organisation can be tuned into and be supported to define norms that would reinforce the individual's acceptance, respect and open communication to ensure productive interpersonal relationships. Both thinking and behavioural patterns can be recorded by means of the single-systems design (Johnson & Yanca, 2007:299-301) to measure change.

Bennet (2000) writes that a proficient coach does not impose ideas of change, but rather draw out ideas from the protégé. Protégés are encouraged to think through their problem situations, create strategies for improvement, prepares plans to achieve their strategies, and review progress and outcomes with the coach to ensure that maximum learning is gained from the process. With reference to the above vignette (Austin & Martin, 1996:1), the military social worker can acknowledge positive behaviour such as communicating with sub-ordinates in the hallway and not just in his office, or for utilising the main entrance of the building, instead of the side door of his office, to motivate other positive changes.

This theory may create confusion as to where to place the emphasis, for example, whether on the cognitive or behavioural side. The researcher is of the opinion that the priority need or problem should provide direction and military social workers should utilise their discretion in how to balance the two in order to put the clients' interests, needs and problems first.

2.7.2 Role theory

In selecting role theory as a practice framework, it is important to reflect upon what type of client the Officer Commanding would be and what type of problems he/she may present with. It is necessary to brainstorm about the position of the Officer

Commanding in their organisation, the SAMHS, and about the focus of a mentoring relationship between the Officer Commanding and military social worker. Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:84) further encourage social workers to evaluate the target system of the practice framework. For example, will it target the individual, the family unit, the peer group, the organisation, or community? Another reason why role theory was selected is based on the functions and activities of mentoring (see section 6.3.5.1 and 6.3.5.2).

Military social workers should take cognisance of role theory, as it will support them in examining the expectations that the protégé's family, society and his workplace will hold of them during different stages of their life, how well they are socialised to perform their expected roles, and what sanctions will be imposed on them should they not perform these roles and tasks adequately. Garvin (1991:153) emphasises the benefit of role theory as it will contribute to the chief military social worker's understanding of how their protégés enter and leave social positions as well as how they learn to perform in a satisfactory manner in their position.

Both Davis (1986:549-557) and Garvin (1991:168-173) have realised the utility of this theory for the intake (engagement), assessment and intervention phases of the casework process. The researcher will summarise the important aspects mentioned by these authors as applicable to these phases and elaborate contextually:

- Helen Perlman (1960) wrote an important paper, "Intake and Some Role Considerations" in which she pointed out that the "applicant" and "client" is two different positions with different expectations. The social worker should be conscious of not demanding behavioural changes when the individual is still at the applicant stage. Only once the applicant has become a client, can the process actively proceed to engage the client. Congruency between client and social worker roles is important, because if this is not clarified, it can lead to early termination of the process. The expectations of client and social worker roles need to be clarified from the engagement stage.

- Another method to ensure congruence between the roles is to perform the method of "role induction procedures". This method allows for starting where the client is and clarifying expectations. Within this context, the chief military social worker will be able to educate clients to adopt more appropriate role

behaviours, essential to achieve their goals and also maintaining respect for basic social work values.

- During assessment, role theory will further assist the chief military social worker to focus on inadequate socialisation that impact on poor performance and to identify the way in which client difficulties stem from insufficient support for roles that are expected from them. The ecological perspective (Germain & Gitterman, 1986:619) is ideal to address this person-in-environment fit configuration.

This role theory highlights further the tensions between position, status, power and access to resources. One needs to bear in mind others who might have these powers in contrast to those who might not have, for example high ranking officers in the SANDF like lieutenant-colonels and colonels, have decision-making powers based on their managerial roles whereas as sub-ordinates do not have these powers but execute these decisions. There is also another category, namely those who might have been denied access to resources in contrast to those who have it in abundance. Here role theory directs the military social worker not just to concentrate on the presented problem, but also on those factors outside the individuals' control that lead to role helplessness. What comes to mind is the way in which affirmative action has unintentionally placed people of colour and other minorities in positions of role helplessness and stigmatised roles. This can be ascribed to the fact that some individuals in organisations still view affirmative action as a measure of reverse discrimination, whilst others perceive it to lead to low job performance (Nkuhlu, 1993:12). It is essential that military social workers should face the realities of the consequences of affirmative action and its effects on especially black employees. Military social workers should help the latter to attain technical and managerial capabilities through their line-function. On the other hand, military social workers, in their capacity as mentors, can apply behavioural modification to change the mind-set of white management in supporting the transitions of black management and helping them to overcome their role deficiencies. Everyone needs to become accountable.

Military social workers can utilise group work to role model and role play cross-cultural people-management skills to both white and black management. On both sides attitudes that transcend the victim mentality and entitlement syndrome should be focused (Nkuhlu, 1993:13). The negative management of affirmative action

appointments can cause role conflict and result in intrapersonal and interpersonal stress. Emotional support and stress relaxation techniques will also become areas for intervention. The Human Resource Department and line-function management should also be aware of the fact that affirmative action appointments will fail, if the focus is simply on filling the quotas, instead of focusing on recruitment and development of the individual. A mentorship programme is just one of many developmental approaches. This is a sensitive issue, but an issue that cannot be denied or ignored.

In the same way that affirmative action has affected role performances in terms of race, it also has affected gender, in particular, women. Sections 6 and 15 of the Employment Equity Act, 1998 have defined women as one of the designated beneficiaries of affirmative action, and stipulate that women should not be unfairly discriminated against, on the basis of their race and gender (Garbers, 2000:270,284). The military social worker needs to be aware of how race and gender discrimination impacts on the role of women in executive positions.

The cognitive-behavioural theory in combination with role theory is an excellent approach to address perceived beliefs and stereotypes of some men, for example, that women are less capable in managerial jobs or that women fall pregnant and leave and become incompetent to perform dual roles as executives and parents. Nathan (1994:144) notes that throughout the world defence forces are bastions of male domination and gender stereotyping, and that the South African armed formations were no exception. Women executives should be supported and empowered to deal with role overload, dual roles, sexual harassment and being treated as tokens. Female Officers Commanding themselves should be educated to guard against attitudes of seeking role preferential treatment that would lead to reinforcement of stereotype thinking, whereas gender-based discriminatory attitudes among male Officers Commanding need to be confronted. The organisation's culture as a whole should be understood in order to evaluate some men's beliefs and thinking about the functioning of the organisation, and whether attitudes have become so entrenched that the view that "this is always how we viewed women's role in our organisation" is an indication that occurrences of discrimination have become the norm.

Garvin (1991:160-163) defines the following concepts that indicate the difficulties employees can experience in the workplace:

- "**Role conflict**: This concept refers to the existence of two contradictory sets of prescriptions for an individual's role performance. The author distinguishes between interposition role conflict and intra-position role conflict. **Inter-position role conflict** refers to conflict that exists because one occupies two positions and the prescriptions for one position conflict with the prescriptions of another. The dual role of both men and women as parents and spouses is an example. **Intra-position role conflict** occurs when some individuals expect a role occupant to behave one way and other individuals an occupant to behave in another way but in which only one position is involved. The author suggests that the occupant either select the option of preferential selection, compromise or avoidance. **Preferential selection** occurs when the individual enacts one set of prescriptions rather than another. **Compromise** occurs when the occupant would meet neither expectation fully but each partially. **Avoidance** occurs when the occupant enacts on neither expectation.

- **Role ambiguity**: This role problem arises in situations when role expectations are unclear. Lack of clarity exists in the "sender" of the expectation, not the receiver.

- **Role discontinuity**: This role problem occurs when an individual is required to perform a role for which he or she was inadequately prepared by previous roles. In order to prevent this from happening, the author suggests anticipatory socialisation. **Anticipatory socialisation** occurs when the individual is given opportunities to practice the new role expectations before assuming the role. A very good example would be Officers Commanding who are placed in a mentorship program, and mentored by their line-function mentors and thus 'shadowing' in the position of an Officer Commanding as if they are already permanently appointed. Another example could be a six-month rotating system and at the same time being exposed to Officers Commanding in different provinces in either logistical, operational or technical units within SAMHS.

- **Role overload**: This concept refers to occasions when a person must perform a series of roles that are more demanding than they can handle.

The above concepts will be helpful to the military social worker, especially when dealing with the stressors of the Officer Commanding in the workplace. The above concepts, for example, role conflict, role ambiguity or role overload, can identify specifically to what contributes to the stressors of Officers Commanding in the workplace. These concepts can direct the path of decision-making to ensure that a clear post profile and job description are obtained to prevent role conflict. Communication skills can also be integrated to allow the Officer Commanding to solve role ambiguity problems. Direct communication with the sender can resolve any distorted messages received by the Officer Commanding that are contributing to role ambiguity. These concepts give insight into the changes in the role of the Officer Commanding and what decisions need to be considered to allow for effective adaptation.

In conclusion, role theory will indeed assist and guide military social workers to understand their protégés in their positions as Officers Commanding. Various role problems that they are confronted with can now be identified and assessed. Possible solutions can be devised within this practice framework to enhance their work performance and the task requirements related to a specific life cycle or career stage of the Officer Commanding.

2.7.3 Organisational development

Organisational development is not a method in social work, yet it is an applicable approach to manage change within an organisation. Gould, Knoepler and Smith (1988:248,249) recognised that organisational development and social work share a number of important characteristics and that an overlap exists between knowledge, skills and roles. These similarities are evident, firstly, in that both social workers and organisation developers focus on interactions amongst and between people. Secondly, the procedures used for communication, decision-making, planning action and goal setting are the same, as well as the way that they assess any systems' values, norms, attitude towards work, and how rewards and efforts are distributed in the organisation.

The authors French and Bell (1990:17) describe organisational development as a top-management-supported effort to improve an organisation's problem-solving and renewal processes through a more effective and collaborative diagnosis and

management of organisation culture. Special emphasis is placed on formal work teams, temporary teams and inter-group culture. The assistance of a consultant-facilitator will head such a process. The following indicate the phases within the organisational development process by Rothwell, Sullivan and McLean (1995):

- **Entry**: The problem is identified and the need for change becomes apparent in the organisation. The organisation will select an individual capable of examining the problem and facilitating the change.

- **Start-up**: The change agent will work with organisational staff to identify issues surrounding the problem and to gain commitment from staff for participating in the change effort.

- **Assessment and feedback**: The change agent gathers information about the problem and provides feedback about the information to those who will benefit from the change process.

- **Action planning**: The change agent works with the decision-makers and stakeholders to develop an action plan to correct the problem.

- **Intervention**: The action plan is implemented and the change process is carried out.

- **Evaluation**: The change agent will, together with decision-makers and stakeholders, assess the progress of the change effort.

- **Adoption**: Members in the organisation take ownership of the change, which is then implemented throughout the organisation.

- **Separation**: The change agent's service is no longer required for the change project as the result has been incorporated into the organisation. Staff assumes responsibility for sustaining the change project.

When comparing the organisation development process with Figure 5.1: Phases of the social work intervention process (Greene, 1991a:13), the military social worker will find more similarities than differences. Such similarities place the military social worker in an empowered position to render services on request from the Officers Commanding that require an organisation development-type of intervention. Alternatively, the organisation development process can be executed in collaboration with key multi-professional team members. For example, organisational development

consultants or industrial psychologists. Consequently, the focus will be on how the organisation development approach can be utilised to address diversity issues in the workplace.

Although the SANDF has become an integrated force, as discussed in Chapter One, the reality is that Officers Commanding are still confronted either on a vertical or horizontal relationship level with issues of racial tension. Hyde (1998:23) suggests that the organisation development consultant utilises the diversity training model as displayed in Table 2.1, to advise Officers Commanding to deal with racial tensions. In their roles as community and organisation developers, military social workers can utilise this model to execute the processes themselves as follows:

TABLE 2.1: DIVERSITY TRAINING MODEL

CORE VALUES	⟹ GOALS	⟹ INTERVENTIONS	
		Processes	Activities
Inclusivity	Create a welcoming place	Integration into organisation	Training in cultural awareness
Challenging	Develop culturally competent staff	Relationship building	Outreach and retention
Challenging	Formulate critically and take action	Consciousness raising	Power shifts

Source: Hyde (1998:22-30)

Hyde has also indicated key considerations for the execution of this model as presented in Table 2.1 and which the researcher has summarised as follows (Hyde, 1998:22-30):

- **Core values:** These core values are described as the guiding principles that an organisation should adopt to achieve diversity. Diversity means inclusivity, and oppression needs to be challenged and ultimately eliminated. Power and privileges need to be confronted and any training should focus on undermining the foundations of oppression to have an impact on change.

- **Goals:** A sense of belonging must be instilled in the workplace for every one to feel welcome, and relationships should improve through open communication, respect for diversity and conflict management skills. Staff will be competent in engaging in cross-cultural practices once they have incorporated their diversity efforts into everyday organisational life. The action will be visible in staff

members' commitment to the struggle for change, and individuals will not shy away from mature critical dialogue about race, class and gender. People's actions will make them think about their own contribution to oppression.

- **Interventions**: How often diversity programmes are integrated appropriately will determine whether diversity efforts will become normalised. Individuals must be aware of their own and other's cultural identity, and understand that it is not what one sees, but how one sees cultural differences that are important. Various activities can be executed in generating trust and promoting knowledge sharing amongst staff members. Generic skill development in terms of conflict resolution, communication and organisational planning are important areas of intervention. Interventions must be planned systematically. Mentoring programmes for new staff are important and will contribute that they are retained. In discussing the power base of Officers Commanding, the focus should be on reflection, action and behaviour, not on personalising scenarios.

Given that the South African National Defence Force is inherently a bureaucratic institution, organisational development will be a big challenge. In a mentor-protégé relationship the chief military social worker will be able to utilise the process of organisation development to advise the Officer Commanding in dealing with morale and motivation, inter-department conflict, racial tensions or tensions deriving from organisational restructuring. Military social workers' consultation, research, planning, needs assessment, contracting and process intervention skills are critical assets which will enable them to separate problems from symptoms. These are skills that make for good service delivery in this area of organisation development. Should the Officer Commanding require such organisation development intervention from the chief military social workers, then it should be kept in mind that organisation development is not a "quick fix" strategy for solving short-term performance problems. This process requires the participation of all the employees in the entire process, from identifying problems to selecting a solution to planning for change and evaluating results. Military social workers are well skilled in cross-cultural training, and the diversity model is a tool to engage in more extensive change whilst using the organisation development approach. This approach can be executed with the support of workplace development specialists or industrial psychologists.

Social workers perform certain functions that can only be carried out within the boundaries of legislation. In the same way that legislation directs the roles and tasks of the social worker pertaining to children and protects the rights of children in society, similarly military social workers must recognise that there is legislation that will give them a mandate to execute mentoring programmes in the SAMHS (South African Military Health Services). Military social workers need to act through legislation, policies and procedures in the SANDF that would support mentoring programmes that are authorised through legislation. Consequently, legislation, policies and procedures that exist in the Department of Defence and which are available on the DOD Intranet policy section or at the various unit's Human Resource Departments.

2.8   RELEVANT POLICIES, PROCEDURES AND LEGISLATION

It is important that military social workers acquire the necessary knowledge pertaining to policy, procedures and legislation as related to their potential roles as mentors. This section provides information on such policy, procedures and legislation that would support change and the mentoring roles of military social workers. In this way the requirements of transformation in the SANDF are also addressed.

One facet of the transformation process is the implementation of affirmative action programmes, in which formal mentorship is regarded as a mechanism in the affirmative action programmes of the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1). The SANDF has policies and procedures to implement formal mentorship in the respective services, yet to date not all service arms have implemented it. This could be an indication of possible resistance or a struggle to put the necessary human resource expertise in place to manage the implementation. It is therefore imperative that chief military social workers put themselves in the best position by equipping themselves with knowledge relating to such legislation, policies and procedures. This position of empowerment will strengthen military social workers' partnership with other mentoring multi-professionals or technical staff members in the SANDF.

The roles and responsibilities of military social workers and others are defined primarily through legislation and related policies and procedures. One would not expect chief military social workers to be lawyers, but to have a basic working knowledge with regards to Acts of Parliament or statutory rules in order to perform

their roles competently and professionally. Although all social workers should have internalised practice knowledge about the Social Service Professions Act (Act 110 of 1978) and other specialised Acts related to the different service fields, they should also familiarise themselves with the ethical and other codes applicable to their respective organisations. Military social workers are also subjected, in their dual capacity, to the South African National Defence Force Act and the Military Code of Conduct (Hlubi, 2000:20-21) that at times can lead to a conflict of interests. However, supervision of military social workers and their professional value base equip them to balance these demands in the best interest of the client.

Military social workers are familiar with Social Service Professions Act (Act 110 of 1978) and the South African National Defence Force Act and the Military Code of Conduct (Hlubi, 2000:20-21). Social work does not function in a vacuum, but is part of the broader South African society and therefore military social workers should be informed and guided by relevant policies, legislation and procedures inside or outside their workplace, which affect and define their roles and responsibilities as mentors. The following policies and Acts are what the researcher has found to be relevant for the context in which mentors will perform their roles.

2.8.1 Department of Defence (DOD) policy on mentorship

The DOD Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) was confirmed for implementation on 12 November 1999 by Gen Nyanda, then Chief of the SANDF. This document was compiled to ensure that the requirements of transformation are met in the SANDF. One facet of the transformation process is the implementation of affirmative action programmes in the organisation with the objective of achieving representivity at all levels. Formal mentorship was selected as one of the mechanisms in the DOD affirmative action programme. In order to strengthen these affirmative action programmes, mentorship guidelines were formulated. Military social workers cannot enact the roles of mentors without receiving the support of the organisation. They cannot perform these roles outside the scope of policy. The abovementioned policy provides clear guidelines within which military social workers can motivate their role as mentors.

The outline of the content of this DOD Policy on Mentorship (1999) will be referred to briefly here, as this policy is available at the Human Resource Department of each

Officer Commanding and the military social workers' unit. Access and availability of this policy for in-depth studying are thus not beyond reach. The content of this policy is also referred to in this chapter under various sections. This mentorship policy addresses the following aspects:

- The aim;

- Definitions such as fast tracking, mentoring, mentor, protégé, formal and informal mentorship;

- Applicability;

- Strategic approach;

- Objectives of mentorship;

- Principles. For example, the protégé must enrol for three years in the mentor-protégé relationship;

- Selection of mentors. For example, the mentor must have a genuine interest in the needs and development of sub-ordinates and should already have a good record of developing people;

- Mentoring activities: transmission of skills, personal support and organisational intervention;

- Termination of mentorship;

- The benefits of mentorship in the organisation. For example, decrease in personnel turnover, organisational communication, productivity, leadership and managerial development, integration of the individual, command succession;

- Responsibilities;

- Administrative arrangements;

- Alignment with other policies, for example, the DOD Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action Policy;

- Conclusion.

The next section will briefly introduce an order on mentorship in the SAMHS.

2.8.2 Command Standing Work Procedure (SWP): Mentoring on-the-job training

The **Command SWP No 6/97: Mentoring on-the-job training in the Western Province Medical Command** (currently known as Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (AMHU WC)) was signed by Brigadier L du Preez on 30 July 1997 to ensure that the command has quality resources.

Although the SAMHS in the SANDF has not formally introduced a mentorship programme, the **SWP (Standing Work Procedure) No 6/97: Mentoring on-the-job training in the Western Province Medical Command** (currently known as Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (AMHU WC)), was the first document in the SAMHS that the researcher utilised as a reference. The DOD Policy on Mentorship was promulgated in 1999 and the Director Naval Personnel Order on Mentorship in 2001. Although the SAMHS was in the forefront by having the document in writing since 1997, the researcher could find no evidence that a formal mentorship programme existed. One can, however, not exclude the practice of informal mentorship. Based on the researchers' military practice experience since 1993, one can conclude that amongst a service arm consisting mostly of professionals, for example, military social workers, dieticians, chaplains, psychologists, doctors, dentists, informal mentorship will be less threatening.

This Command Standing Work Procedure No 6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2) focuses on the aim, objectives, steps to launch a mentorship programme, characteristics of the mentor and the role of the mentor. Since most of the content of this Command SWP (1997) is provided in this chapter, only the role of the mentor will be discussed. The mentor will have to:

- "enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of the training for those on new roles or those being prepared for promotion.

- improve motivation and commitment and thus reduce the rate of turnover of personnel that SAMHS require for the future.

- enable members to acquire more rapidly the skills and understanding they need, and

- improve members' self-confidence and to create an environment in which members will discuss their fears and hope. In this way hope will increase and fears decrease."

According to the above content of this Command SWP/6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2), it appears that military social workers already have most of the qualities required to be a mentor in SAMHS. Although most Staff Officers have handed in their On-the-Job-training schedules for their members, up to 19 October 2003 the researcher was unable to trace any indication that mentoring programmes had been compiled and implemented by Staff Officers for their members in their respective Departments. This statement is open to correction; however, File MED WP or AMHU WC/R/103/1/8/18 has provided the researcher with no documentation of registers completed or mentoring schedules. One can thus conclude that in the Western Cape Province at Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (previously known as Western Province Medical Command), this Command Standing Work Procedure No 6/97 was only executed on the level of On-the-Job-Training, whereas mentoring programmes were neglected. One can possibly assume that, because this is a new field, proper guidance in the execution by the human resource department in interpreting the policy and SWP or supporting the implementation thereof, was lacking.

The next section will provide further context for the establishment of the DOD Policy on Mentorship (1999) in the SANDF.

2.8.3 Employment Equity Act of 1998 and the policy on equal opportunities and affirmative action

Apart from the fact that the Department of Defence introduced the DOD Policy on Mentorship (1999) based on restructuring and transformation processes in the SANDF, the SANDF is also subjected to legislation promulgated by the South African government. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 is one such piece of legislation that laid the foundation for the implementation of the DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action of 1998. Such legislation thus first prompted the Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (1998), and then led to the promulgation of the DOD Policy on Mentorship in 1999. The Department of Defence does not operate in isolation from the Acts that were initiated by the government. There was a great impact on the human resources. The government's Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 motivated the Department of Defence (DOD) to promulgate an SANDF order stipulating a DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (SANDF Order, 1998) to be executed by all services in the SANDF. This policy contains information that supports the eradication of all forms of discrimination,

embracing diversity and the implementation of special programmes to address development of the skills and potential of previously disadvantaged groups. This policy further laid the foundation for the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999). Military social workers should therefore have a sound background knowledge of this policy to increase their insight into what necessitated the DOD to enforce this policy and how they can position themselves in its implementation. Military social workers are also able to justify why mentoring in the workplace is valid and can assist the organisation in facing transformational challenges.

Mentoring can be considered by some employees in the SANDF as a mechanism to label employees appointed to the SANDF after 1994 by way of affirmative action as incompetent and inexperienced. Those who already were a part of the SANDF before 1994 may, on the other hand, view mentoring as a prejudicial tool to advance the careers of members who joined the SANDF after 1994. Either way, mentoring can be stigmatised and viewed judgmentally and completely avoided by some members. Military social workers need to be aware of such attitudes among Officers Commanding regarding enrolling in a formal mentorship programme. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (1998), however, can be utilised by military social workers to educate Officers Commanding and to address possible stereotypes about mentorship programmes.

Grogan (2001:11) describes the objective of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 as being to eliminate discrimination in the workplace and to promote affirmative action. This Act further stipulates in item 1: "No person may unfairly discriminate, either directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language or birth".

The Department of Defence's (DOD) Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (South African National Defence Force (SANDF) Order 1998:1) supports the execution of the objective of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (Grogan, 2001:11). This policy focus specifically on the development of the skills and potential in leadership positions of previously disadvantaged groups, the prevention of all forms of sexual harassment, unfair discrimination, acknowledging the right of women to serve

in all ranks and positions, and the development of special programmes to suit specific needs of disadvantaged groups. This DOD Policy further focuses (SANDF Order, 1998:2-3) on issues of racial discrimination, employment equity for women, pregnancy, gender, harassment, sexual harassment, sexual orientation, disability, training and development, management of diversity and development of full potential. The paragraph dealing with training and development, for example paragraph 57 (SANDF Order, 1998:14), specifically refers to the need for implementing a policy catering for career development programmes that would include mentoring. The key role of the mentor is seen as being a coach, a facilitator, counsellor, networker and manager of the mentor relationship. These roles are highly compatible with those of therapist, liaison official, mediator, facilitator, manager and supervisor roles performed by military social workers. Military social workers would, in the opinion of the researcher, under most circumstances therefore not experience problems in meeting these requirements as stipulated.

In order for workplaces to prevent discrimination against the designated groups (people of colour, challenged individuals and women) and groups identified above by Grogan (2001:11), affirmative action measures have to be implemented. This requires each workplace taking the responsibility to identify "employment barriers", drawing up an employment equity plan and providing feedback to the Department of Labour. Affirmative action measures further focus the workplace responsibility to ensure equal opportunities and equal representation of designated groups and that measure plans for retaining and developing them (Grogan, 2001:250, 251).

The discussion of the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 will deal with the relevant policies, procedures and legislation that military social workers should be knowledgeable about.

2.8.4 Skills Development Act 97 of 1998

The Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 is a direct consequence of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act, No. 58 of 1995. The SAQA Act, No. 58 of 1995 was established by the South African Government to rectify the shortage of skilled manpower with the limited budgets that were available (Carrell, Grobler, Elbert & Marx, 1998:340). The intention of the SAQA Act was to improve the quality of education and training at all levels in South Africa to promote economic growth and national

development, especially in the light of mergers amongst different education departments. Presently, the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 requires that all companies and institutions adopt a holistic skills-development strategy and comply with the work skills plans of the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) and provide SETAs with feedback on their agreements and implementation of education and training courses (Grogan, 2001:8).

Mentoring is definitely a tool that can be utilised in the execution of the demands made by the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (SANDF Order, 1998) and the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 and the SAQA Act, No. 58 of 1995. The role of the military social worker as mentor is not applicable to mentoring in areas of strategic competencies or vocational competencies, as this would be the role of mentors in their specific line-functions. According to the above Acts and Policy, individual generic competencies are very much an appropriate area for military social workers to perform their roles as mentors. Although certain restricted areas of career planning and development are categorised under vocational competencies, the military social worker as mentor will most certainly be in a position to assist the Officer Commanding to develop skills to deal with the possible frustrations of one of his Staff Officers, who have become what Carrell et al. (1998:353) refer to as "plateaued employees". A plateaued employee is one whose promotional opportunities in an organisation are restricted and who is confronted with feelings of failure, depression and hypersensitivity to criticism. Although such a person would be managed by the Human Resource Management Personnel, the Officer Commanding will participate in the managing of the Staff Officer's career dissatisfaction, as he or she is the direct sub-ordinate of the OC. Individualised generic competencies will include the military social worker mentoring an OC in managing and communicating issues contextualised within the scope of the DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (SANDF Order, 1998).

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter had as its goals: clarifying the history and development of occupational social work through different stages and demonstrating how the values and ethical principles of the social work profession provided the opportunity for social workers to

occupy positions in corporate and military environments. This focus addressed over-simplifications and generalisations about the role of the military social worker as being competent to fulfil and execute the role as mentor. The aim and vision of the Directorate Social Work indeed supports and mandates workplace interventions by the military social worker.

The need to balance client and organisational interests were addressed. This was emphasised as a risk worth taking by the military social worker. The reason is that what will be critical and essential in the long term, will be the military social worker's willingness to commit themselves to the normative discipline of a morality that underscores the notions of advocacy and equity. The researcher has concluded that professional ethics, professional boundaries, professional identity and inter-disciplinary relationships will always remain issues to be addressed. What is important is that military social workers have a readiness to discuss these issues and to honour them in practice.

An expanded perspective has been presented of the military social worker going beyond just individual counselling towards a workplace intervention approach through which both the employee and organisation can facilitate human growth and potential. In this regard, systems theory, ecological perspective, cognitive-behavioural theory, role theory and the organisation development approach have been discussed broadly. Their application in the context of the military social worker exercising his or her mentor role in future was also emphasised. These practice frameworks proved to be valuable in assessing the OCs in relation to their family, community and workplace. They will also enable military social workers to get a better understanding of the behaviour of Officers Commanding in their environment and how intervention can benefit the OC and their systems and other sub-systems.

It is clear that, although a DOD Policy for mentorship exists, it became apparent that it was not implemented. For this reason, the researcher highlighted the policies and Acts which relate specifically to mentoring in the DOD. These policies within the Department of Defence indicated the manner in which the SANDF can utilise mentoring as part of the military organisation's strategic development or an

employee's personal development. In this way the researcher could substantiate the view that that mentoring is recognised as part of the human resource development culture of the military organisation.

The focus of Chapter Three will be on the internal and external environment of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS. The chapter will provide a comprehensive understanding of the world of work of the Officer Commanding.

CHAPTER THREE

THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two focused on the place as well as process components of occupational social work and its application by military social workers in the military environment. The chapter thus laid the foundation for understanding how the field of military occupational social work could prepare the military social worker to execute a mentoring role. This foundational knowledge would assist the military social worker to mentor Officers Commanding (OCs) to obtain intra- and inter-personal skills to manage their own performance and the performance of others in situations of organisational turbulence, conflict and tension between organisational, family and personal needs. Based on the discussion of systems theory, the ecological perspective and Kilburg's three foci areas for executive coaching (Kilburg, 2000:63) in Chapter Two, this information will be applied in this chapter to the world of work of the Officer Commanding (OC) in the SAMHS.

Chief military social workers who will mentor OCs in the future should have an understanding of the experiences, knowledge, skills, attitude and the world of work of OCs and the SANDF as a whole. This chapter will focus on the internal environment of the Officers Commanding that affects employee performance in comparison to the external environment, which affects the performance from outside, for example, suppliers of logistical resources (uniforms, computers), stakeholders, labour unions, governments and the economy (Lussier, 1997:40,44).

The external environment cannot be ignored, because although the Officer Commanding can mostly control what is happen internally, he has limited control over what happens outside in the external environment. The emphasis of this chapter can therefore not only be on the internal environment, but must include the external environment. The interface of the internal and external environment will be highlighted as part of the application of systems theory in order to view the SAMHS as a whole.

The study of the environment and behaviour that occur in the workplace of the Officer Commanding is identified as investigating organisational behaviour. Moorhead and Griffen (1998:4) define organisational behaviour "…as the study of human behaviour in organisational settings, of the interface between human behaviour and the organisation, and of the organisation itself". Likewise, McShane and Travaglione (2003:4) define organisational behaviour as "…the study of what people think, feel and do in and around organisations". Organisational behaviour attempts to make sense of the workplace and to some extent predict what people will do under certain conditions. It includes organisational mission, goals, values, structure, culture, rewards and leadership (McShane & Travaglione, 2003:4,7). Within this context of organisational behaviour, the following paragraphs will look at the internal and external environment of the OC. The following section will address the internal environment of the Officer Commanding, which will include, for example, the vision and mission of the SAMHS, the military structure of the SAMHS and the budget process in the SAMHS.

3.2 INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING (OC)

This section will address the factors that are unique to the internal environment of the SAMHS. The internal working environment is explored to provide the reader with insight into the factors that impact on the tasks and roles of the Officer Commanding. The internal environment can directly be linked to two of the three foci areas as reflected in Figure 2.2: Foci for coaching executives (Kilburg, 2000:63), namely the system focus and the mediated focus. These two focus points explain the relationship and behavioural factors that mediate all the interactions and activities between the manager and the organisation, for example, in terms of structure, process, content, input, whole organisation, sub-unit and work unit.

3.2.1 Vision and mission of the SAMHS

Each organisation has a strategic intent as to how that organisation is going to achieve certain activities. The DOD provides clear direction by means of a vision and mission statement. This vision and mission statement is an umbrella guide to all services in the SANDF and each service utilises the DOD's vision and mission

statement to align and customise their service's strategic intent. A vision and mission statement can be defined as follows:

"A **vision** is what is inspiring organisation. It deals with the future and describes what the organisation needs to become. A **mission** is the basic function or task of the organisation, division or any unit of it. It describes the purpose of the organisation or organisational unit stating in clear terms the product or service it produces…" (Directorate Finance Division, 2003:12,13).

The SAMHS's **vision** is a healthy military community whilst its **mission** is to provide a comprehensive, excellent self -supporting, multi-disciplinary military health service to ensure a healthy military community (Directorate Finance Division, 2003:6,7).

This vision and mission statement guides Officers Commanding to render a military health service to military members and their dependants within a specific region; for example, Area Military Health Unit Western Cape will deliver a military health service to the military community in the Western Cape region. Where necessary, the military health service may be outsourced, should the specialised service not be rendered internally. The nature of the services should be rendered by competent and committed health professionals. These services should uphold professional ethics and standards coupled to prescribed legislation.

The SAMHS's mission is to:

- "ensure combat readiness of the members in the SANDF;

- promote optimal clientele well-being;

- be an established national and international asset;

- ensure an affordable, accessible and appropriate military health service" (Directorate Finance Division, 2003:7).

Officers Commanding (OCs), thus need to apply the SAMHS's principles (synchronisation of activities, utilisation of a common language and standard procedures) and values (Batho Pele principles, medical confidentiality, cultural sensitivity) to foster excellence in the execution of the SAMHS's vision and mission.

3.2.2 The military structure in the SAMHS

The Surgeon General, overall head of the SAMHS (Refer to Level 2 of Figure 3.1: Department of Defence (DOD) structure and Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service (SAMHS) structure), depends on OCs and their sub-ordinates to keep the units in which they lead, command and manage functional to ensure that the SAMHS as a whole can remain operational and credible. OCs (situated on Level 4 in Figure 3.3: SA Military Health Service structure), on the other hand, depend on their sub-ordinates and their respective formations, for example, Area Military Health Formation (refer to Level 3 of Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure) and then Level 2 (refer to Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure), to support them to provide an effective and efficient service to their stakeholders.

The next figure will present the Department of Defence (DOD) structure. In the Figure 3.1: Department of Defence (DOD) structure, Level 0 is the link between the government processes and the departmental executive processes of providing and employing defence capabilities. The Secretariat on Level 1 manages the DOD, whereas the Chief of the SANDF commands the SANDF. The Surgeon General of the SAMHS would provide expert advice to the Chief of the SANDF on Level 1, who in return would advise the Ministry of Defence. The Ministry of Defence will then relay expert advice to the Minister of Defence on Level 0. Level 2 is where the SAMHS's Surgeon General is situated with all the associated Chief of Staffs. On Level 2 SAMHS's vision, mission and strategic goals are designed. On Level 3 the strategic plans that have been designed on Level 2 are put into action to achieve operational effectiveness.

Figure 3.1 reflect the hierarchy in which the SAMHS are positioned in the DOD as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE (DOD) STRUCTURE
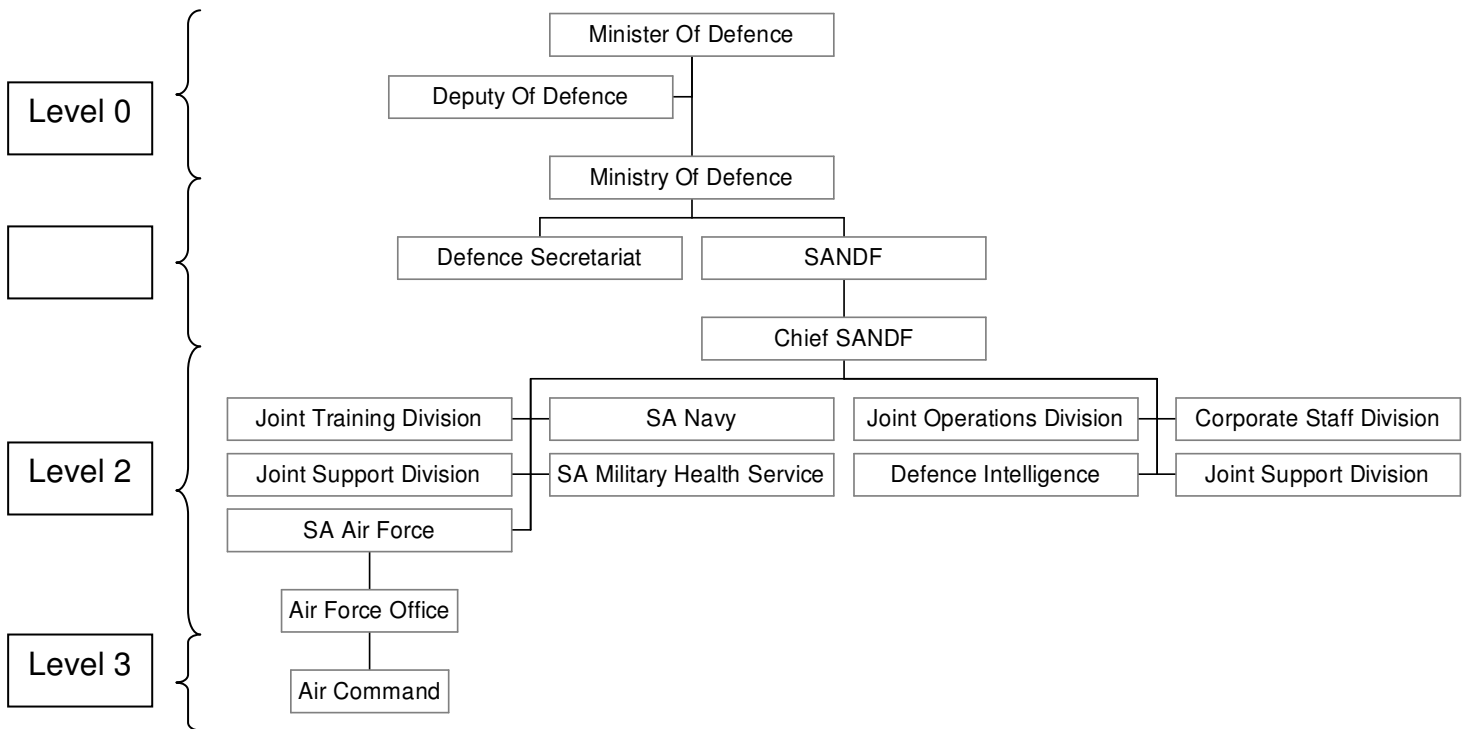
FIGURE 3.1: DOD STRUCTURE (File AMHU WC/R/502/8 dd Oct 2004)

Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure, reflects the hierarchy of Level 2 and

Level 3 in the top structure of the SAMHS as follows:

SA MILITARY HEALTH SERVICE STRUCTURE
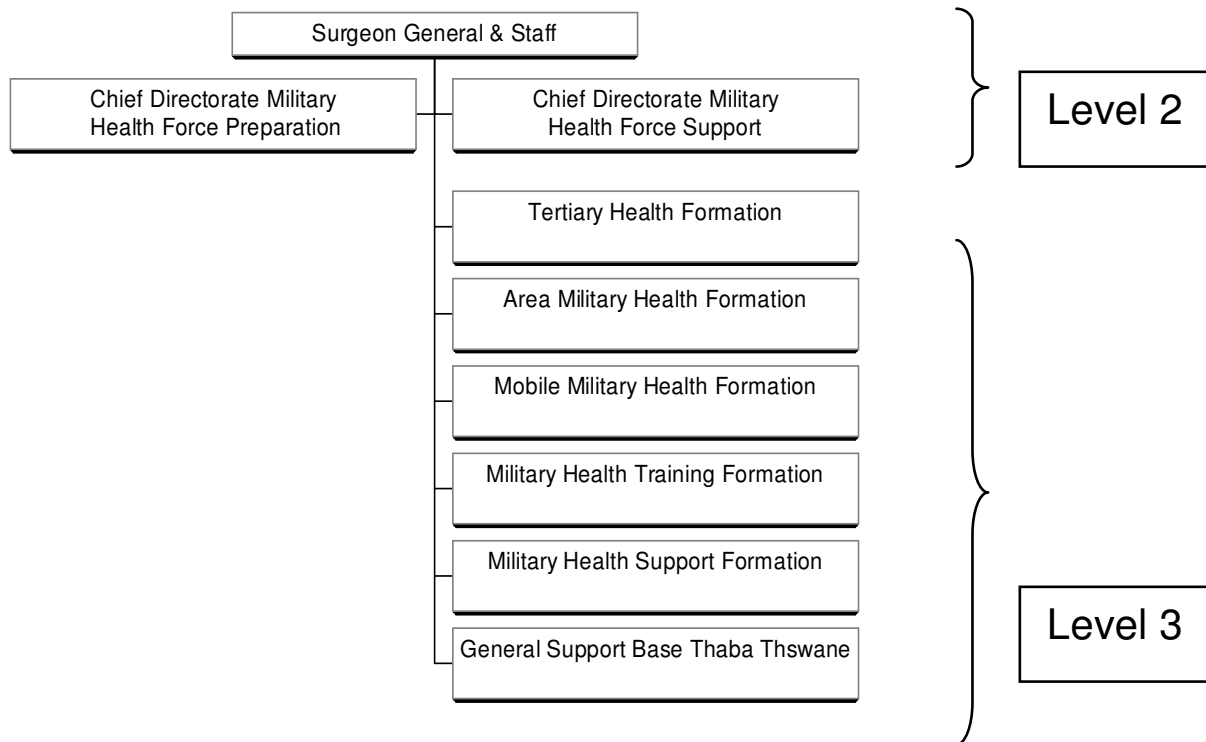
FIGURE 3.2: SOUTH AFRICAN MILITARY HEALTH SERVICE (SAMHS) STRUCTURE (File AMHU WC/R/502/8)

In Figure 3.2, Levels 2 and 3 are referred to by Hellriegel and Jackson et al. (2001:12) as the top managers. The Surgeon General on Level 2 ensures that all governmental policies, statutory prescriptions and constitutional injunctions are relayed by the respective Chief of Staffs through their Senior Staff Officers (SSOs) to Level 3 for implementation. Level 3 is where the Staff Officers one (SO1) are situated, who ensures that policies and general guidelines are operationalised for execution by Level 4.

Figure 3.3 will now be presented. Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (AMHU WC) Head Quarters (HQ) is representative of Level 4. Level 4 falls directly under Level 3 (see Figure 3.2: South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Structure) of Area Military Health Formation. The Officer Commanding of AMHU WC HQ reports directly to the General Officer Commanding of Area Military Health Formation.

AREA MILITARY HEALTH UNIT WESTERN CAPE HEADQUARTERS STRUCTURE
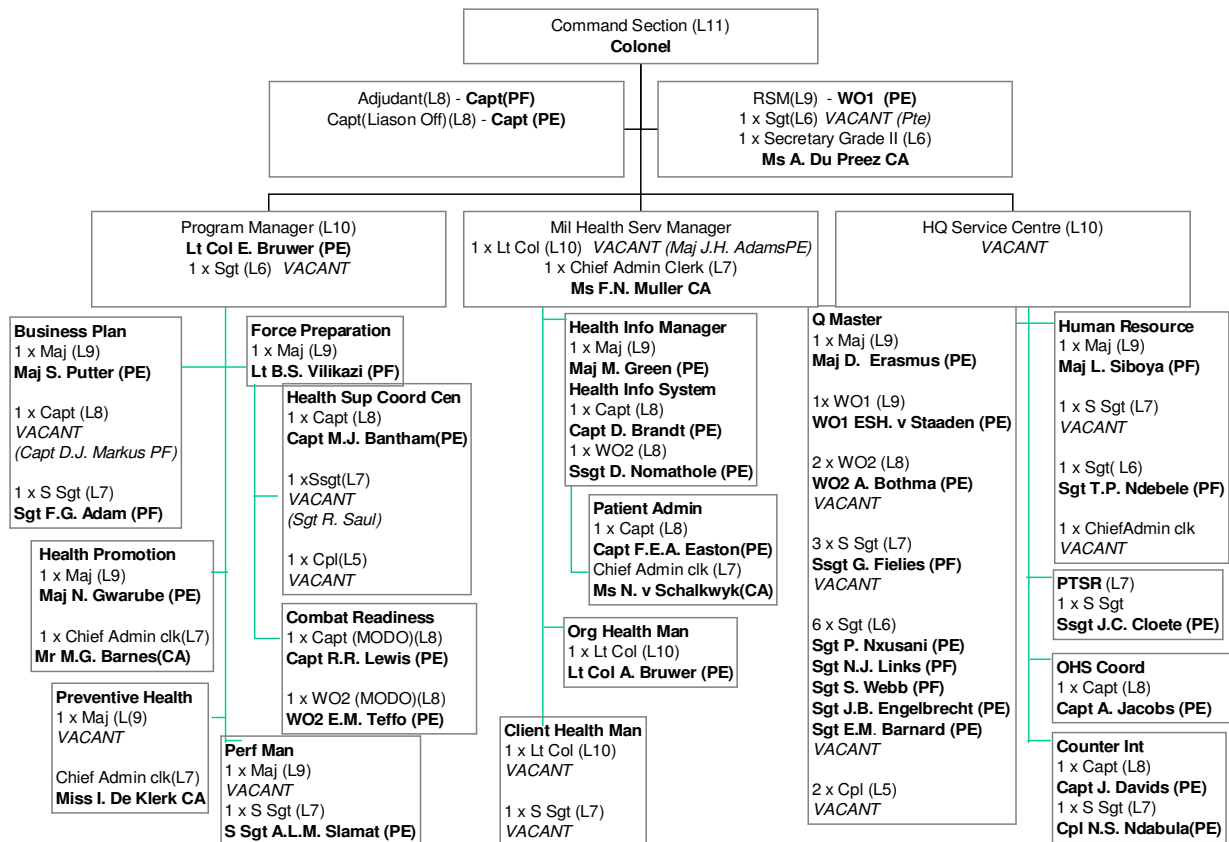
FIGURE 3.3: AREA MILITARY HEALTH UNIT WESTERN CAPE HEADQUARTERS (AMHU WC HQ) (File AMHU WC/R/502/8 dd 6 April 2006)

Level 4 (refer to Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters), which represents the **middle managers** level, will be responsible for converting general strategies and policies into more specific goals and plans (Hellriegel et al., 2001:12). SAMHS is a health service provider. An example of such a SAMHS unit that delivers a comprehensive health service is Area Military Health Unit Western Cape in Cape Town (refer to Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters). The Officer Commanding (Colonel) is responsible for effective leadership, implementation of policy and strategy, and the management of all the people displayed in Figure 3.3. The Officer Commanding is supported by the programme manager and all the other Staff Officers, for example, budget manager, performance manager and counter-intelligence, to ensure effective management of all processes. Such service for which OCs are accountable and responsible is

rendered to internal and external stakeholders, hence customer care is an important objective of the OC.

In times of budgetary and manpower constraints as well as shifting of priorities to international peace support, the work of OCs has become extremely demanding. The concern in the organisation is about cost benefits and financial data to justify expenditure, meeting the objectives of the organisation and complying with stakeholder needs. However, at times the structure and processes of the organisation lose focus on how the demands of being an OC can turn a carefully recruited and qualified employee such as an OC into a low-morale and frustrated employee in the military organisation.

Coping with increasing pressures such as accountability, efficiency and quality assurance can result into OCs starting off their work with high expectations and inspiration, but soon finding themselves disillusioned, confused and burnt out. Officers Commanding (OCs) can, firstly, become disillusioned about the budgetary and logistical support from local General Support Bases (SA Army), Levels 2 and 3 (refer to Figure 3.1: DOD structure and Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure). Secondly, Officers Commanding can become confused with the assessment of how Levels 2 and 3 view the needs and problems on the ground (Level 4 of Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters). It is a tiresome and high-energy intensive process for Officers Commanding to motivate their staff, whilst having to execute services with restricted or unserviceable resources and shortages in manpower. The organisation demands the best output and successful impact from OCs. One can therefore expect that the organisation will create a work environment that ensures that OCs are equipped with basic micro-skills, simplified and effective procedures and processes to manage human resources, logistics and finances. The SANDF is a government organisation and the very nature of its functioning is based on public administration legislation, for example, the Department of Public Service and Administration (1999), RSA Ministry of Finance: Public Finance Management Amendment Act 29 of 1999 and the DOD instruction, Finance No. 2/99:1999.

All of these documents lay down legislation that falls into the category of best practices in terms of the Constitution. Basic values and principles need therefore to be followed by the Department of Defence (DOD). Officers Commanding therefore

need to comply with professional ethics and be administratively accountable. OCs thus need the skills to empower and to motivate their workforce, to be effective communicators, visionaries and decision-makers, and to respond proactively to the challenges of managing government resources. Mentorship thus plays an important role to support the Officer Commanding through communication, problem-solving, decision-making, time management, stress management and work-family balance skills. These human skills will assist the Officer Commanding to deliver a comprehensive health service, and to ensure satisfied stakeholders, a productive workforce and ultimately an excellent world-class organisation.

Officers Commanding do not function within their units in isolation, but as part of the military structure within the SAMHS and the broader Department of Defence. The military structure is a typical hierarchy consisting of formalised interrelations because of the size of the organisation. An example of such a hierarchy is reflected in the structure of a SAMHS unit in Cape Town (refer to Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters) and its interrelations with other top management structures in the Gauteng area (refer to Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure). Those on Levels 2 and 3 (see Figure 3.1: DOD structure) cannot achieve the goals of the SAMHS on their own and therefore require support from Level 4 (Figure 3.3). Each level has a structure to achieve the overall goal of the SAMHS, which is to deliver a comprehensive health service to all its stakeholders. Figure 3.4 will now be presented.

According to Hellriegel et al. (2001:12), **Level 4** (refer to Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters) refers to the **middle managers level,** whereas Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure, represents the **first line managers level**. Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure is a visual reflection of the **first line managers**, as well as **sub-ordinates** who are the **non-managers**.

HEALTH CENTRE YOUNGSFIELD STRUCTURE

1 x Lt Col (L10)
Lt Col H. van Heerden(PE)
1 x Chief Admin clk(L7)
Ms D. Petersen (CA)

CHA CENTRE | **Polyclinic** | **Pharmacy** | **Psychology** | **Social Work** | **Health Info** | **Enviromental Health** | **Medical Platoon** | **Anc Health** | **Oral Health**

Nursing
1xLt Col (Asst Dir 2L) (L10)
Lt Col P.H. Ras (PE)

1 x Maj (Asst Dir)(L9)
VACANT

5 x Capt (CPN)(L8)
Capt B.H.J. Mahood (PE)
Capt J. October (PF)
Ms M.J. Lourens(CA)
VACANT

1 x WO2 (SEN)(L6)
VACANT

2 x SSgt (SEN)(L6)
Sgt R. Swanson(PE)
VACANT

3 x SSgt (H ord)(L7)
SSgt S.M.C. Goodhew(PE)
Sgt E.N. Tshali (PF)
Sgt Z.L. Tiyani(PF)

Medical
1 x Lt Col (CMO)(L12)
Dr C. Arnold(PF)

1 x Maj (PMO)(L11)
VACANT

1 x Capt (PMO)(L11)
Community Service

Pharmacy
1 x Lt Col (Chief)(L10)
Lt Col C.J. Burger(PE)

1 x Capt (Princ)(9)
R. Schmidt (CA)

2 x S Sgt (Pharm Asst)(L7)
Sgt S. Hendricks(PE)
Ssgt J. Kotzee(PE)

Psychology
1 x Lt Col (Chief L2)L10

1 x Maj (Chief) L9
Maj H.C. van Zyl(PE)

3 x Capt (Princ)L8
Capt M. Pietersen(PF)

Social Work
1 x Lt Col (Asst Dir)L10
Lt Col R. Pillay(PE)

2 x Maj (Control)L9
Maj C. Radebe(PE)
Maj C.V.May(PF)

2 x Capt (Control)L 9
Capt C. Gordon(PF)

3 x Capt (Chief)L8
Capt N.M.Ntshota(PF)
Capt B.A. Boois(PF)
Lt N. Mahlati-Volo(PF)

Patient Admin
1 x WO2(L8)
WO2 A.Samsodien(PE)

1 x S Sgt (L7)
Sgt S. Mbeta(PE)

2 x Sgt(L6)
Sgt M. Mngupane(PE)
Sgt T. Mukumela(PE)

2 x Chief Admin clk(L7)
C. Billington(CA)
C.A. Joachims(CA)

Health info system
1 x S Sgt(L7)
VACANT

1 x Lt Col (Control 2 L)L10
Lt Col R.J. v Dyk(PE)

2 x Capt (Chief)L8
Capt F.J. Hare (PF)
VACANT

2 x Ssgt (Pest Con)L7
SSgt H.Brummelkamp(PE)
Sgt Q. v Niekerk(PF)

1 x Genl worker L2
VACANT

1 x Capt(L8)
Sgt S. Diergaardt(PF)

Reaction Force
1 x WO2(L8)
WO2 B. Ryk(PE)

3 x S Sgt(L7)
SSgt M.B. Cloete(PE)
SSgt Bokisi(PF)

6 x Sgt(L6)
Sgt S.J. Boyce(PF)
Sgt F.J.W. Boltney(PF)

Ambulance Services
5 x Ssgt Ops Emer Ord (L7)
VACANT

10 x Sgt Ops Emer Ord (L6)
VACANT

1 x Lt Col (Comm)L10
VACANT

1 x Maj (Princ Diet)L8
VACANT

Oral Health 2 Mil Hosp
1 x Lt Col (Chief)(L12)
Dr M.E. Kotze(CA)

5 x Maj (Chief)(L12)
Lt J. Lourens(PE)
VACANT

Oral Health IMM
1 x Lt Col (Chief)L12
Lt Col J.C. v Tonder(PE)

4 x Maj (Chief)L12
Maj J. de Beer(PE)
Maj CR JvRensburg(PE)
Capt M. Ellick-Ensil(PF)
VACANT

1 x Maj (Chief Oral Hyg)L8
Lt A.G. Adams(PF)

6 x S Sgt (Dent Asst)L7
Cpl F. Hendricks (PF)
LCpl L.C Engelbrecht(PF)
LCpl C.C. Bowkers(PF)
Pte J.E. Clapp (PF)
A.R. Jarvis (CA)

1 x Maj (Chief Oral Hyg)(L8)
Maj L.D. Adams-Porter(PE)

1 x Capt (Chief Oral Hyg)(L8)
VACANT

10 x SSgt (Dent Asst)(L7)
SSgt A. Malan (PF)
LCpl S. Smith (PF)
LCpl A.K. Schalkwyk (PF)
LCpl J.E. Kastoor (PF)
Pte I. Le Roux (PF)
Pte S. Salie (PF)
C. April (CA)
D.H. Botha (CA)
G.D. Elrick (CA)
S. Walton (CA)

Oral Health Yfield
1 x Lt Col Chief)(L12)
VACANT

1 x Maj (Chief)(L12)
Capt N.L. Mackerdhuj (PF)

1 x Maj (Asst Dir Oral Hyg) (L10)
Maj L. Aves (PE)

4 xSSgt (Dent Asst) (L7)
Ssgt A.L.M. Buys (PE)
F.J. Benny (CA)
L. Nel (CA)
VACANT

Oral Health Lab
2 x Maj (Chief D Tech)L8
Maj C. Polinski(PE)
Capt R. Brand(PE)

5 x Capt (Chief D Tech)L8
Lt A. Mbalo(PF)
Lt N. Samsodien(PF)
J. Kearsey(CA)
M. Jones(CA)

1 x S Sgt D Tech asst)L7
SSgt G. Mvinjelwa(PF)

2 x Aux Serv (Lab asst)L5
M. Maaka (CA)
R. Sigaqa (CA)

FIGURE 3.4: HEALTH CENTRE YOUNGSFIELD STRUCTURE (File AMHU WC/R/502/8 dd 6 April 2006)

In Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure, the first line manager's level includes the **Officer in Charge and Staff Officers** with their sub-ordinates. The **sub-ordinates** mostly represent the **non-managers levels** (Hellriegel et al. 2001:12). **The first line managers** in Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure will supervise and direct the actions of **non-managers** who execute production work. The OC receives orders, instructions, strategies and policies from top management for implementation. It is these orders, instructions, strategies and policies that determine the processes and procedures by which Officers Commanding should lead, command and manage their unit activities. Officers Commanding are further responsible to direct and co-ordinate the activities of their sub-ordinates (refer to Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters and Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure). These planning, organising, leading and controlling functions of the Officer Commanding imply that they should have a wide range of well-developed managerial competencies to perform their jobs well (Smith & Cronjé, 1997:9; Hellriegel et al., 2001:10-11).

Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters represents a centralised unit, whereas Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure represents a decentralised unit to ensure accessibility and availability to surrounding units. Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters is divided into different sub-units (for example, Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure), which makes effective co-ordination vital. Military staff on the structure of Health Centre Youngsfield in Figure 3.4 is under the chain of command of the Officer Commanding (OC) of Area Military Health Unit Headquarters (AMHU WC HQ) and their reporting lines will be to AMHU WC HQ. The Officer in Charge of the Health Centre Youngsfield will report to the Officer Commanding of AMHU WC HQ (see Figures 3.3 and 3.4), whilst the OC in turn will report to the General Officer Commanding (GOC) on Level 3: Area Military Health Formation (see Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure). Such a chain of command means, for example, that if an Officer in Charge of HC Youngsfield and the Staff Officer for pharmacy budgeted for medication, but underestimated the amount of medication they should have budgeted for, the Officer Commanding at AMHU WC HQ will be kept accountable for non-service delivery to patients. Thus, even through the miscalculation of a sub-ordinate, the Officer Commanding will face the criticism of the stakeholders. It is thus important that Officers Commanding understand the risk that they run through this line-function delegation and therefore delegate and monitor

effectively. Staff Officers and other sub-ordinates should also prove to be trustworthy in the tasks delegated to them, as well as maintain their ethical and professional responsibility according to their job description.

These formalised channels and methods of communication indicate definite mechanisms and methods of decision-making. Weinbach (1998:57) refers to such a constellation as in Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure as a **vertical organisational hierarchy** because the power is situated at the top of the structure and power decreases at each respective lower level of the hierarchy. Figures 3.3 and 3.4 explain the **horizontal structure**. The horizontal structure represents the span of control because of the number of sub-ordinates under management of the Officer Commanding of AMHU WC HQ and the Officer in Charge of the Health Centre Youngsfield (Smith & Cronjé, 1997:230-231). Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters and Figure 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure, are divided into departments such as personnel, logistics, medical and social work, and each of these departments affects the service rendering of the Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters and the SANDF as a whole. They are thus interdependent. The fact that the units mentioned in Figures 3.3 and 3.4 are situated in close proximity of one another facilitates the monitoring of the way that resources are structured and how effectively they are utilised. However, the distance between Area Military Health Formation, Level 3 (see Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure) and Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters, Level 4 (see Figure 3.3) complicates the delivery time of resources to employees and contributes to delays in service delivery to stakeholders.

This vertical hierarchy type of organisational structure has as an outcome a reasonably successful bureaucratic organisation (Jooste, 1998:7-2). An organisation that emphasises rules, policies, chain of command and centralised decision-making is identified by Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2003:36) as an organisation with a bureaucratic culture.

3.2.3   The business plan and budget in the SAMHS

Lussier (1997:179) refers to a budget as the funds that are allocated to operate a department for a fixed period of time. Whilst the budget is being developed, it is a planning tool. Once the budget is implemented, Lussier (1997) refers to it as a control

tool. The success of this military bureaucratic organisation is very much evident in the way that the resources are managed. The business plan, according to official documents, is the unit's plan of action that directs the programme and the budget manager as to what are the key strategic and operational areas and objectives around which the resources should be prioritised to obtain key outputs. These key strategic and operational areas and objectives in the business plan determine on what services the money will be spent in the budget. The budget is directly linked to the unit's business plan. The Officer Commanding must utilise his management functions to ensure proficiency in managing the unit budget, and specifically the SAMHS budget in the SANDF.

The General Officer Commanding at Area Military Health Formation (AMHF) (see Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure) is the line manager responsible for planning activities compiled in the business plan of the AMHF. The budget manager on Level 4 (see Figure 3.3: AMHU WC Headquarters) is in fact responsible for managing the costing, compilation of schedules and capturing financial data on the Financial Management System. The Officer Commanding on Level 4, however, still remains accountable for how state funds have been spent. Close collaboration and consultation are thus continuously required not only between the Officer Commanding and the budget manager, but between the programme manager and other staff officers as well.

The South African National Defence Force (SANDF) is a non-profit organisation. Unlike profit-driven organisations that generate their own income from a product they sell to the public, the SANDF is dependent on the taxpayer for its income. In the public service and SANDF the bureaucratic organisation is justified through its accountability to the public. State funds that are allocated to the SANDF result from a national budgeting system. State funds can only be spent in line with stringent audit and expenditure controls in the interest of the taxpayer (Public Finance Management Amendment Act: Act 29 of 1999).

Planning with regard to operational, preventative, emergency and support plans, logistics, salaries and other requirements for the day-to-day functioning of the organisation is formalised according to the SAMHS's business plan and other Department of Defence strategies, in accordance with the budgetary cycle. The budget is compiled in alignment with objectives in the business plan, which is in turn coupled to target dates. Unit budgets are forwarded to Level 3 and then Level 2

(Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure). Level 2 (refer to Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure) has the responsibility to compile a collated financial report that is presented at parliamentary level. Once the budget is accepted, it has to be monitored regularly by comparing planned financial performance against the actual performance. When finances that were budgeted for within a certain budgetary cycle have not been used on Level 4 (OCs unit Level 4, see Figure 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters), then this money can be taken back by Level 2 and be re-distributed by the national budgeting system. A strict overall monitoring of objectives is executed at all levels and planning is guided by approved defence strategy (Department of Defence Instruction, Finance No 2/99:4-8, 5-1 to 5-4).

The next sub-section, organisational culture, will focus on the culture of the military in which the Officer Commanding is employed. The military culture makes certain demands on its employees and the reader will be acquainted with the military customs, practices, values, symbols, ceremonies and traditions that are shared by everyone in the SANDF. A strong military culture exists in the SANDF that leads to most followers conforming to what is expected from their superiors. This culture is bred through the prominent values and norms that are set and by means of institutionalising certain communication procedures, rituals, customs and ceremonies.

3.2.4 The organisational culture in the SANDF

Flanagan and Finger (2003:546) refer to the culture of an organisation as a "…set of beliefs that are shared, often subconsciously, by people in your organisation. It is a powerful influence that shapes behaviour, influence morale, and creates your organisation's identity". Albertyn (1999:91) concurs with this definition of organisational culture and describes organisational culture as "… a system of shared values that is present in any organisation in the form of values, religion, symbols, rituals, myths and practices that has been established over time". Both Flanagan and Finger's (2003), as well as Albertyn's (1999) definitions of organisational culture thus highlight the uniqueness and image of the SANDF as an organisation that is able to influence its employees' behaviour to accept core values. This influential ability of the organisation is evident in the uniformity of the uniforms, the way that officers and non-commissioned officers greet one another by means of a salute, and how lawful commands are executed.

The SANDF of today (2006) is subjected to international military standards. This is essentially visible in the Concurrent Health Assessment criteria that are upheld in the SANDF in order to comply with United Nation standards for joint international military operations, as well as joint training amongst the various services (South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Order: Policy on Health Assessments, 2003:1-4). These military standards for health and combat readiness and international visibility coupled to good discipline, enhances the image of the SANDF as a combat-ready force.

Albertyn (1999:92-94) is of the opinion that the military organisation should be sensitive to the symbols of the former South African Defence Force (SADF) members as well as those of the integrated forces such as those from the former TBVC countries and former APLA and former MK members. These forces' heroes and symbols should not be denied, meaning that the SANDF should be sensitive about removing former SADF symbols and substituting them with new symbols from the former APLA/MK. Albertyn (1999) requests that both ex-SADF and ex-APLA/MK symbols be selected to avoid conflict and that new ones be created that embrace the new SANDF. This reflects the history on both sides and also present symbols to bond the integrated forces. This is an area that should be addressed to ensure an organisation characterised by cohesion, patriotism and a rich diversity.

The hierarchical and rank structure in the military creates a closed structure. Unwritten rules ascribe the relationships that should exist amongst officers and non-commissioned officers. It is thus important that Officers Commanding understand that the rank structure can create distance when lower rank members contribute to new organisational stories, symbols or rituals. They can experience that middle management or top management level members do not value these contributions. It is important that everyone is able to contribute to dispelling the myth that only some rank groups' contributions can lead to military policies, directives and instructions.

Military conduct is standardised in all the services, for example, SAMHS, SA Navy. Irrespective of the service in which you are employed, an umbrella code of conduct directs military conduct (Hlubi, 2000:20-21). This military code of conduct reflects upon the beliefs, values and business principles of the military organisation. These shared values are identified as military professionalism, human dignity, integrity, leadership, loyalty, accountability and patriotism (Chief Directorate Army Force

Preparation, 2000:1-2-1 to 1-2-3). Behaviour in the military is thus guided by a homogeneous approach of fraternity that is focused and committed. This behaviour is characterised by discipline, stamina, skill, loyalty, duty, courage, selfless service, integrity and commitment (Jooste, 1998:7-3) and coincides with the identified shared values.

Jooste (1998:7-3) notes, however, that the above positive picture is undermined by careerism amongst some individuals in the SANDF. In their quest to be the best and to reach the top, egocentric behaviour surfaces. Instead of executing the goals of the organisation, individual goals are pursued. This also creates a climate where team efforts are forgotten and, because of the power bestowed on superiors, most team members hardly question the leaders directly. Smith and Cronje (1997:211) have also observed that in line/staff functions specialists in staff and commanders posts serve their own agendas and often fail to work as a team towards the common goal of the organisation.

Jooste (1998:7-3, 7-4) elaborates at length on the power politics and personalities that at times play a too significant role in conflicts. The author remarks on the lack of negotiation and facilitation skills. Professional jealousy is also evident and leads to preoccupation with own promotions and performance appraisals and conflict directed towards elected leaders. Jooste (1998:7-4) further notes that there appears to be a lack of synergy amongst multi-professional team members and that this impacts on problem-solving processes and opportunities. Respect and sound interaction is vital for the very existence of military professionalism and harmonious interactions within a multi-cultural SANDF. It is therefore important that military leaders develop constructive conflict management, negotiation and communication skills that would uphold professional maturity and respect for cross-cultural contributions. These skills are highlighted by Flanagan and Finger (2003:108,144,436), Hellriegel et al. (2001:15) as well as Lussier (1997:320,463,484).

In a cross-cultural organisation the Officers Commanding needs all their employees to buy into the organisational goals and values. Communication skills are important to explain the value of the organisation's vision and the areas in which employees can play a role to take ownership of the shared vision and values. Officers Commanding should avoid behaviour that would intentionally or unintentionally involve them in showing preference to one staff member over another.

Misunderstandings are bound to occur in any organisation and so to prevent accusations, blame and personal attacks, effective conflict management skills are an important asset to any Officer Commanding. Instead of becoming part of threats, making demoralising demands or denigrating the conflicting parties, it is important that OCs remain objective, avoid overreacting and communicate rationally within the conflict situation (Flanagan & Finger, 2003:436-437). The extended roles of the SANDF in Southern Africa during peace support or peace-enforcement deployments further requires that Officers Commanding in SAMHS who lead, command and manage medical contingencies on international soil communicate instructions and orders effectively to their soldiers and listen attentively to feedback from sub-ordinates. Such deployments also demand that Officers Commanding, with the support of SA Army operational teams, lead, command and manage their sub-ordinates safely within a hostile situation (Harbottle, 1995:3; Bennet, 1995:155). The SANDF needs involved, proactive and creative team leaders with insight, who can manage critical issues effectively and lead their teams to the best solutions.

Albertyn (1999:92,93) has determined that for organisational culture to develop and to maintain itself, the experience of trauma and positive reinforcement must be addressed. This trauma and positive reinforcement are evident in the mission of the SANDF in terms of its operations. Harbottle (1995:3) anticipated that the military will not only be involved in the conflict phase of disputes, but also in the preventative, rehabilitative and reconstructive phase of the conflict process. Both trauma and positive reinforcement can be expected within these phases during national and international deployments involving peace support deployments as well as peace enforcement deployments.

Bennet (1995:155) distinguishes between peace support and peace enforcement. Peace support is described as an action to prevent armed conflict, whereas peace enforcement or collective security can lead to armed forces applying warfare to destroy the aggressors. Bennet (1995) adds, that depending on the circumstances during peace support operations, activities can range from observation, patrols, creating buffers between conflicting parties, the recovery and maintenance of peace and negotiations.

Officers Commanding in SAMHS who completed the Joint Senior Command and Staff Course can be utilised as operational commanders. These operational

commanders apply their knowledge of conventional warfare and their skills to peace support operations of the African Union and of the United Nations. Those in the SAMHS who only completed the Junior Command and Staff Course can be utilised as Officers Commanding for clinical wings or medical task teams. These OCs are referred to as tactical commanders, who are in command and control of the multi-professional team that delivers a comprehensive health service to all services. These tactical commanders execute the plans, instructions and orders of the operational commanders. Both operational and tactical commanders should be equipped with effective verbal and non-verbal communication skills. The tactical commanders are the direct link between the operational commanders and the sub-ordinates who execute the instructions. Effective communication and listening skills are therefore imperative to ensure that instructions are correctly received and understood for execution. Officers Commanding should therefore be trained in both communication and conceptualisation skills.

Conflict and negotiation skills are also required because international deployments have brought the SANDF into contact with diverse cultures in Africa. Demands are placed on the leading, commanding and managing abilities of Officers Commanding in places such as Sudan, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. These conflict and negotiation skills can be use to ease the SANDF into engaging with the cross-cultural attitudes, philosophies and behaviours unique to Africa. Instead of the SANDF taking a superior approach in Africa, it is appropriate that senior officers rather blend their expertise with what defence forces in Africa can offer. It is therefore crucial that concepts such as leadership, command and management be re-visited and that Officers Commanding be educated, trained and developed concerning an "African way" of commanding, leading and managing which will benefit all the armed forces in Africa (De Vries, 1996:20).

Albertyn (1999:92-93) adds that the SANDF's present international peace support operations are ideal to create this learning process for a unified organisational culture. As already mentioned, before 1994 the SADF and other armed forces such as the former MK and former Apla members fought against one another and were divided. After 1994 a unified SANDF was established through the integration of these forces (SADF, MK and Apla and the TBVC countries). One needs to be realistic that this post-1994 integration process did not simultaneously contribute to a unified

military organisation where a single military culture was embraced. However, according to Albertyn (1999), the crises experienced in the South African military Operation Boleas in Lesotho worked well to contribute to the establishment of a cohesive support and fighting military force.

For ideal types of organisational culture to develop in the SANDF, Albertyn (1999) identified the importance of finding a balance between role, people, process and task culture. A power and macho culture are definitely not preferred organisational culture types. A power and macho culture is typical of an organisation that still favours an autocratic approach instead of a participatory approach. It is, however, evident in the implementation of the LCAMPS Model that the SANDF has moved away from an autocratic to a transformational approach (Chief Directorate Army Force Preparation, 2000:2-5-1). The LCAMPS Model is described in Chapter Four (see section 4.2 and Figure 4.1: LCAMPS Model). This transformational approach enables leaders, commanders and managers to make their people feel good about others and themselves, and they too are developed into transformational leaders. Transformational leaders are able to work inspired as members of high-performance teams whilst achieving interdependence (De Vries, 1997:14). The LCAMPS model will be briefly discussed as part of the functions and tasks of the Officer Commanding in section 3.4, and therefore the researcher will not elaborate further on the transformational approach here.

Change is inevitable. The SANDF like any other organisation, is characterised by change. Being a soldier in the SANDF, one is trained to accept that, as risk and danger are part of being a soldier, so is change. The mindset developed in the training of the soldier in the SANDF is that change is certain. However, because soldiers are human, when change does occur, not everyone rises to the challenge of skilfully managing the changes. It is therefore important that chief military social workers as mentors have an insight into how change affect Officers Commanding (OCs) and their sub-ordinates and the DOD as a whole. Such insight should prepare chief military social workers as mentors to support, counsel and direct organisational development interventions that can energise and empower OCs themselves and their employees in being resilient in the face of change. Change can either be discussed as part of the external environment or the internal environment. Change is here discussed as part of the internal environment though the researcher is aware that the

SANDF's external environment, for example, on a political, economic and technological level, can contribute to changes in the selection and recruiting policies of the SANDF's Human Resources or that a decrease in the DOD's budget can impact on the purchasing of new military vehicles.

3.2.5 Change in the SANDF

Change in organisations is seen either as incremental or transformational change. Incremental change is aimed as fixing a problem, modifying a procedure or making an adjustment. New fields of services can be developed to meet client needs, additional staff can be recruited to implement the services and working hours can be extended. Transformational change is aimed at altering fundamental structures, systems, orientations and strategies of the organisation. For example, change in the mission, establishing a new service delivery system and provision of services to a population never served before (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Shifting the SANDF's deployment to Darfur in Sudan would be categorised as transformational change as before 2005 the SANDF has never had any missions in Sudan to provide peace support operational duties to this population.

After the integration of the South African Defence Force and the former MK (Mkhonto) and Apla forces after 1994, the SANDF underwent a process of transformation. This merger directly impacted impact on the organisational culture and consequently became the subject of transformation (Brill & Worth, 1997:32). These authors also emphasise that, since organisational culture is inherently part of an organisation, executives are exposed in having to deal with difficulties pertaining issues of power and human nature such as resistance to change. Flanagan and Finger (2003:546) and Randall (2004:121-122) share this view of complexity when introducing new forms of organisational culture, and they too acknowledge that organisational culture is deeply rooted and pervasive. Jooste (1998:7-11) acknowledged that to establish a mentality accepting of change in the SANDF could be rather difficult, because of a strong affinity for tradition and history. A change mentality would imply that soldiers on all levels would be open-minded when new personnel structures are introduced, gender and race policies are promulgated and implemented, new ideas are suggested (change of uniform insignias, ranks, renaming of naval ships, units) or the core business of the military shifts from national security to international security, for example, the broader Southern African region.

Internal as well as external transformations impact on the morale and motivation of the SANDF's employees. Employees have to make a mental shift in how they are going to deal with changes and what their chances are of surviving successfully. According to Randall (2004:122), some employees might not accept the cultural changes and might feel resistant and alienated. Such employees may feel that their job security is threatened if they do not deploy internationally. They may also no longer trust their superiors and may not accord any loyalty to the organisation. Others, according to Brill and Worth (1997:30), might feel that their power, prestige, respect and privileges that they worked for years to obtain are being disregarded. Such feelings need to be diffused and employees should be informed about the changes.

Management, according to Brill and Worth (1997), should utilise the organisation's vision and mission to influence employees to become resilient and to empower them to participate in the change processes instead of withholding co-operation. Any organisation, however, would be faced with critical and sensitive decisions to make, if key management personnel are the very same people who undermine transformation within the organisational culture. Whereas Brill and Worth (1997) address management with regards to change, Pearce II and Robinson (1997:353) address the issue of the leadership of an organisation utilising the organisation's strategic intent to galvanise commitment to embracing change by clarifying strategic intent, building an organisation and shaping the organisation's culture. It appears that Pearce II and Robinson (1997) hold the same view about the difference between management and leadership with that of Kotter (1998). Kotter (1998:39-40) links management with coping with complexity, restoring order and consistency, whereas leadership is directly linked with coping with change.

Jooste (1998) remarks that military leaders are inherently conservative and that the military tends to be inwardly focused. A gap exists between the military and the environment that causes the military to be suspicious and over-cautious, thereby constraining some members from broadening their perspectives. Change in organisational vision, structure, core business and culture is approached with the utmost suspicion and caution, and at times totally resisted. Albertyn (1999:94) pointed out that, although good leaders can be identified in the SANDF, not everyone is on par in dealing competently with changes and here Albertyn (1999) especially

notes members who are still clinging to the former South African Defence Force culture. Management of any organisation needs to determine what the expectations of their employees are when the organisational culture is impacted on by transformation. Management should be prepared to intervene when changes in the organisational culture do not meet the expectations of the employees. Nadler (1993:92) identified that change is affected, firstly, by resistance to change that is triggered by loss of security and sense of autonomy; and secondly, by loss of control, and lastly, by power. Familiarity with working procedures versus change in technology means insecurity and inability to master the use of new procedures. Deskilling, on the other hand, means a loss of status. Officers Commanding should therefore not ignore the impact on change on the organisational culture but manage the changes.

Jooste (1999) highlights the importance of training and re-training military leaders in the area of organisational change and innovation. Chief military social workers as mentors can utilise systems theory and an ecological perspective to assist in such training (see Chapter Two: sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2). They understand that the organisation is a living system consisting of other parts and that the changes in each part are in fact part of how the organisation as a system maintains growth and equilibrium by either continuing or discontinuing changes. In order to ensure behavioural change, the knowledge of chief military social workers as mentors can be drawn on with regard to techniques of dealing with individuals with different behavioural and emotional responses to the change. The cognitive-behavioural theory can be utilised as discussed in Chapter Two (see section 2.7.1) as well as the diversity training model (see Table 2.1: The diversity training model). The methods that can be utilised can include role-playing, simulations, discussion groups and debriefing. It is critical that Officers Commanding are appropriately trained for this and that they ensure the education of their employees with regards to the change process, inform them about the latest developments, facilitate and provide support. The OC should consult with credible sources and communicate feedback in an honest manner. Communication should be clear and with compassion (Clearly & Malleret, 2006:132) during unit meetings or team buildings.

The following section will reflect on some of the SANDF's rewards that are being provided to its employees either to attract disciplined and skilled personnel, or to eliminate undesirable behaviour.

3.2.6 Rewards and incentives in the SANDF

The material reward in the SANDF for military personnel is on par with the rest of the civil service. It is not market related, with only a few prerequisites pertaining to the SANDF, for example, housing subsidies, medical scheme, subsidised cars, danger allowances, professional allowances and financial support for further studies (Jooste, 1998:7-9; Department of Defence, 2001:5 and DOD Instruction, Pers. No. 20/2000:1-14, Appendix A-1 to D-1). These rewards, according to Gibson et al. (2003:173-175), are referred to as extrinsic rewards because they are rewards that are external to the work itself and include money, promotions or fringe benefits.

Annual performance bonuses could mean that those who qualified successfully according to human resource criteria could earn a monetary reward (South African Military Health Service Instruction No 5/2005). These bonuses are also referred to as incentives. Accelerated promotion and posting overseas also implies monetary rewards. Non-monetary reward is another form of reward in the SANDF, for example, the range of medals, certificates, insignia on uniforms and sporting awards (Standing Operating Procedure, 2004:1-54, Appendix A-1 to A-8).

Officers Commanding (OCs) are not responsible for determining who qualifies for performance bonuses, yet at times they are criticised by their employees for not distributing monetary rewards fairly. Staff Officers, section supervisors and sub-ordinates are responsible for ensuring that the weaknesses of under-performing employees are overcome and that each person who completes the performance appraisal either as a supervisor, peer or sub-ordinate, should complete the appraisal in all fairness. It is therefore important that the incentive programmes are clearly explained to the work force and that each employee takes responsibility for his or her performance and productivity.

The performance appraisal of OCs are influenced by how the General Officer Commanding (GOC) on Level three: Area Military Health Formation (see Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure), their peers and sub-ordinates rate their performance. OCs might compete against one another for public praise, expressions of a job well done or

special recognition. They also might compete with regards to the allocation of resources to their respective units. Such competition might influence whether they complete one another's performance appraisals objectively. In the light of such possible competitive behaviour among OCs, Robbins (2000:418-419) mentions that equity theory recognises that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of the incentive they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of that amount to what others receive. Individuals would make judgments as to the relationship between their inputs such as effort, experience, education and competence and outcomes such as salary levels, promotions and recognition. This tension, according to Robbins (2000:418), is what provides the basis for the individual's motivation.

One could argue that if Officers Commanding (OCs) do not have the necessary resources, they would not be able to execute all their tasks. If their sub-ordinates do not have the required logistics, they as OCs will not be able to delegate work to them as they lack the resources to execute the work. OCs therefore perform through their Staff Officers and other sub-ordinates. If their Staff Officers and other sub-ordinates do not perform, it also impacts on the intrinsic rewards of the OC in terms of satisfaction in completion of a task, autonomy and achievement (Gibson et al., 2003:176). Gibson et al. (2003:171) suggest that intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards integrate motivation, performance, satisfaction and the rewards itself.

Greenberg and Baron (1993:131) are of the opinion that the non-monetary rewards do little to appease the expectations of soldiers when they compare their reward to that in the private sector. The soldier's reward is based on the premise that the serving soldier is motivated by intrinsic values, because of their pride and commitment to the country in the profession of arms. Pride and commitment should be built upon by all military leaders to further a pioneering spirit amongst all military members. Military leaders themselves should be developed to act as role models in such areas of patriotism. Their insight would be valued in the broader South African community. When military officers themselves represent patriotism and the value of a good work ethic, then they are able to motivate their sub-ordinates. The performance of the work itself can provide employees with rewards. The SANDF is a non-profit organisation, so it is even more important that opportunities should be provided by

managers to ensure that the self-actualisation needs of their employees are fulfilled, thereby satisfying their intrinsic needs.

As indicated in section 3.2.2: The military structure in the SAMHS, different levels of management were identified and within each level, a lesser or higher level of authority exists which influences the decision-making process and how information is communicated from the bottom or to the top of the chain of command. Communication is an important part of the functioning of the Officer Commanding. It is important that OCs not only understand the medium of communication in the SAMHS. They should also understand themselves and the others in their organisation to ensure an effective communication flow among their unit members, their peers and superiors. It is therefore important to reflect on communication in the SANDF and how it impact on the command and control of Officers Commanding in SAMHS.

3.2.7 Communication in the SANDF

Communication is inherent to the functioning of any organisation. Robbins (2000:526) identified communication as "…the transference of meaning, involves a sender's transmitting a message and a receiver's understanding it." Communication not only refers to verbal communication (meetings, presentations) and written communication (newsletters, reports, letters), but it also encompasses non-verbal communication, for example, gestures, symbols and facial expressions (Lussier, 1997:327-330; Robbins, 2000:526). Gibson et al. (2003:415-416) provided more detail of the communication process and highlighted other components, besides the **sender**, the **message** and **receiver** (Robbins, 2000:527). As a whole, the communication process was described by Gibson et al. (2003:415-416) in the following order: the communicator (sender), encoding, message, medium, receiver, decoding, feedback and noise. Officers Commanding should be aware of their ideas, intentions and the purpose of what they wish to communicate, the language they would use, whether it is a written document or telephonic conference they would use to send their message, and indicate what feedback they expect and by when. They should also consider possible thought processes the receiver might experience on studying their written documents. OCs should also have the ability to anticipate how the receiver would respond from their frame of reference or job description, and how it might impact on their feedback. These are environmental reading and emotional

intelligence skills the chief military social worker as mentor can teach OCs and from which they can benefit once they master these skills to becoming receiver orientated.

Lussier (1997:322) distinguishes between organisational and interpersonal communication. Organisational communication takes place among organisations and among units or departments of an organisation. Interpersonal communication takes place among people. OCs in the SAMHS need to develop their communication skills as communication is one of the three major skills required by managers. The management roles (interpersonal, informational and decisional) and management functions (planning, organising, leading and controlling) all require effective communication (Lussier, 1997:320). Officers Commanding must be able to communicate the mission, vision, strategy, goals and culture of SAMHS and must be able to communicate them effectively.

The SANDF has a hierarchical structure that creates a formal, top-bottom activity through the different levels of management. **Formal communication** is represented in the organisational structures that exist to make the flow of information more effective and to ensure that information is exchanged (Erasmus-Kritzinger, Swart & Mona, 2000:15). Formal communication includes horizontal, vertical and diagonal communication. For the purpose of this research, only the horizontal and vertical communication will be elaborated upon. The type of top-bottom and bottom-top activity is referred to by Lussier (1997:321) and Erasmus-Kritzinger et al. (2000:15), as vertical communication.

Vertical communication takes place between workers and management at different levels of the organisation and shows similarities with the description of organisational communication. Vertical communication includes instructions given to employees by management and a flow upwards, from the shop floor to the higher levels of management in the form of suggestions, queries or feedback reports. Examples of vertical communication in the SANDF are news bulletins, grievance procedures, meetings, policies, orders or instructions. The opposite would be **horizontal communication**, which is described as communication across departments between people at about the same level of authority (Erasmus-Kritzinger et al., 2000:15). For example, Officers Commanding meetings with their Staff Officers or Officers Commanding board meetings with the Surgeon General of the SAMHS.

Members of the SANDF communicate internally through the chain of command. It would be regarded as military misconduct should a member of the SANDF communicate their negative opinions or grievances outside the chain of command. Such misconduct would be interpreted as compromising the internal channels of communication. External communication should first be communicated within the chain of command. On unit level Officers Commanding would consult with their unit corporate communication officers. External communication occurs via the SAMHS's corporate communication desk. The SAMHS's corporate communication desk employs a senior officer with a rank of Colonel and higher. This senior officer is responsible for communicating with external organisations or the media on SAMHS matters. Officers Commanding can get authority from the SAMHS's corporate communication desk to appear publicly and to present a speech. The speech will be checked to ensure it is professional and within the stipulations of military etiquette and protocol.

The authoritative nature of the military environment enhances effective communication; however, it can be rather impersonal and this impacts on the development of listening skills amongst leaders (Thompson, 1996:51). It can occur that the essence of what is intended to be communicated is not effectively communicated. The reason is that documentation is processed through different levels within the hierarchy and it may be possible that the content might be misunderstood by different people within this hierarchy. Jooste (1998:7-11) emphasised the importance of each level in the hierarchy in order to prevent information overload by forwarding duplicated information. Schutte (1993:129) suggests that no report should go one level up in the hierarchy without being refined to ensure that only the essence is passed on. This, however, requires trust and sound discretion and judgment by every person in the hierarchy. Two-way communication is thus essential for the sender to determine whether the message has been received and whether it has produced the intended response (Gibson et al., 2003:416).

OCs must communicate through the different levels of command by means of conventional service writing. All correspondence must be in English and will not be processed if it is not written in conventional service writing (CSW). CSW dictates what the technical outlay of the report should look like, though it can be regarded as

clinical and inhibitive. CSW also standardises the technical care of military letters, reports, instructions, orders and policies and creates uniformity. Any leader that wants to commands effectively in the SANDF needs to master this formal manner of communication in the SANDF.

Acknowledging the importance of communication within a bureaucratic organisation such as the SANDF, **security classifications** impact on the communication process. This implies that information is classified either as restricted, confidential, secret or top secret. Every five or ten years every member in the SANDF completes a security clearance document that is processed to be approved or not approved. A security classification category is allocated according to one's job specification and job description. These security classifications would also determine which documentation a person can have access to (SAMHSOR, 1998:A-24, A-25).

At present Lotus Notes is the latest technology that is effectively utilised to channel information in the SAMHS. Tight computer security exists to protect information amongst the service users of computers. Each computer user has to be registered as a service user and apply for a user identity. The user must maintain tight security around their computer password.

"**Informal communication** is organisational communication which makes use of channels such as informal social groupings and the grapevine to strengthen good interpersonal relationships among staff members, to exchange information and to make decisions" (Erasmus-Kritzinger et al., 2000:19). These authors provide recognition for formal communication, and that no organisation can function successfully only on the basis of formal communication channels. They point out that informal communication creates an organisation which is more dynamic, exciting and productive. Informal communication can encourage transparent participation and listening. Consequently, informal communication may benefit from everyone's input as it allows individuals to respond to feedback. This informal process, according to Jooste (1998:7-11), need not harm discipline in the SANDF. The informal process can in some cases hold risks for an Officer Commanding with regards to poor discipline of sub-ordinates. For example, at an **informal gathering** such as an SAMHS day celebration, a sub-ordinate can confront an Officer Commanding with personal or work-related problems. The nature of the sub-ordinate's concerns might not be appropriate for the occasion, and the sub-ordinate may express strong

feelings of dissatisfaction at such a public occasion. In sub-ordinate behaviour and disrespect towards a senior officer may develop from such an incident. Such behaviour would need to be followed up on a disciplinary level with the sub-ordinate. When informal communication puts the Officer Commanding at risk of public embarrassment, it would demand that the Officer Commanding express calm non-verbal communication and apply interpersonal and conflict management skills.

The "**grapevine**" is an informal and unofficial system of communication in which information is based on rumours. Group lunches and social gatherings are the ideal opportunities for the unofficial exchange of ideas, complaints and suggestions to take place (Erasmus-Kritzinger et al., 2000:20). Robbins (2000:312) views the benefit of grapevine exchange as binding people together, enabling the powerless to blow off steam, conveying the concerns of employees and filling the voids in the formal communication system. The grapevine has three characteristics. Firstly, management cannot control the grapevine; secondly, grapevine information is perceived to be more reliable and believable than formal communications; lastly, it is largely used to serve the self-interest of those people participating in it (Robbins, 2000:312). It is important that Officers Commanding realise that as much as they themselves can utilise grapevine information to determine the attitudes to decisions and changes to be made, the negative impact of grapevine information on morale and motivation of their workforce should be managed. In order to minimise the negative impact of grapevine informal communication, the following is suggested by Robbins (2000:313):

- Timetables to be announced for important decisions;

- Decisions and behaviours that appear inconsistent and secretive be explained;

- The positive and negative side of current decisions and future plans be emphasised;

- Worst-case possibilities to be openly discussed.

Communication remains an important skill for everyone to possess in an organisation. Organisational goals, change, values, culture, personnel meetings, briefings, performance and teams revolve around communication. It is therefore vital that Officers Commanding understand the importance of becoming creative and

innovative in the manner in which they use organisational mediums of communication to communicate effectively within the chain of command. Officers Commanding should engage openly in the communication process, reflect on their experience and continuously learn to master the art of communication.

Since the SANDF is regarded as a continuously evolving and learning organisation, the training and development of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS will be reflected upon.

3.2.8 Military training and development of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS

All officers in SAMHS must first complete certain formal functional and military courses as part of the SAMHS promotion of a learning organisation. The *Government Gazette* of 24 November 1995 promulgated that the DOD must become a learning organisation that fully exploits the opportunities for growth, development and change. The SAMHS is a part of the DOD and therefore must comply with this stipulation. The SAMHS must therefore continually invest in the knowledge, skills and competencies of all members through formal training (Department of Defence, 1996:4-6). The aim of the training in the SAMHS, as explained in official documents, is to equip soldiers with the required knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to execute operational tasks, to manage and administer the SAMHS resources, equipment and personnel.

The official training approach of the SAMHS distinguishes between the two types of training:

- **Functional training**. Functional training is aimed at providing the candidates with the required knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform their specific function such as military social worker, military nurse or chef. These formal training courses are organised by the Military Training Wing in conjunction with the specific Directorates, because of the specialised nature of the training.

- **Military training**. Military is aimed at developing members of the SAMHS by equipping them with the knowledge, skills and attitudes regarding leadership, management, communication, logistics, labour relations and staff work. These formal military development courses are presented at training institutions such as SA Military Health Training Formation, SA Army Battle School and the Army War College.

For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the military courses of the Officer Commanding and not their functional training courses as the latter differ from mustering to mustering. Mustering describes the field of practice in which the Officer Commanding has been trained inside and outside the military and which also reflects the appointment, for example, as a logistician, pharmacist, teacher, operational medic, doctor. These are specialised areas and it will not be possible to discuss all the specialised fields and their specific tasks. Hence, the focus is on the military courses.

The position of an Officer Commanding is linked to the rank of Colonel. Before the OC can be promoted to this rank of Colonel, the requirement of the SAMHS training policy is that all officers first complete the following military courses in order to be promoted to the senior rank of Colonel:

- Officers formative training course for junior officers;

- Battle handling course for promotion from Captain to Major;

- Junior Command and Staff Course for promotion from Major to Lieutenant Colonel;

- Joint Senior Command and Staff Course for promotion from Lieutenant Colonel to Colonel.

Since the military social worker who will mentor the OC must be informed about the existing experience, knowledge and skills of the OC, it is important that a brief overview is provided of the above course contents. This information can be utilised in the mentoring process to assess the strengths and weakness of the OC and to compile a needs-based mentoring programme. The following military course content reflects the existing knowledge and skills of the Officer Commanding in addition to the expertise and knowledge of their own personal and functional development courses:

- **Officers formative training course for junior officers in the SAMHS**. The aim of the Officers formative course is to furnish officers and candidate officers with the required knowledge, skills and attitudes to serve as officers in the SAMHS. The course consists of modules such as Conventional Code of Service Writing (CSW), organisation, principles and dimension of the military,

ceremonial aspects in the SANDF, officership, total quality management, counter-intelligence and intelligence, military law, finance and budgeting, human resource management, transformational leadership, peace support operations, economics, corporate communication and practical drill (see Appendix 5: Officers formative course report).

The course is divided into a two-week distance-training programme and a two-month residential course. Compared with the human-related skills that chief military social workers identified as their expertise, it appears that only communication is presented in this course. Then again, it appears that only corporate communication has been dealt with and not basic communication skills, which would be beneficial in any environment. The course content thus lacks laying the foundation to address life skills in a formal manner to ensure that skills such as time management, communication, conflict management, and problem-solving and decision-making can be built on in other promotion military courses. It is positive, though, that Appendix 5 effectively addresses management and leadership skills from an early part of the OCs military career.

- **Battle handling course for promotion from Captain to Major**. This course consists of the theoretical and practical modules such as infantry battle handling, battle handling of the different army corps, for example, parachute battalion, special forces, artillery, engineers, air defence artillery, armour, operational logistics, operations of different services, for example, SA Navy, SA Air force, SAMHS and SA Army in terms of opposing forces, and offensive and defensive operations on land and air. Medical battalion in terms of clinical wing and medical support. Map work, PS model, operational staff work, practical work in terms of planning, presenting and executing battle plans. Three days for life skills. A month for the practical phase with regards to command brief and review of battle situation, presentation of mission analysis, terrain education, and execution of their battle knowledge. This course runs for two and a half months.

- **Junior Command and Staff Course (JCS) for promotion from Major to Lieutenant Colonel.** This course consists of all of the modules which were covered during the battle handling course; however, the time spent on the modules is shorter. The emphasis is on the planning, command and control of

the junior officer, whereas during the battle handling course it was on the executing role of the officer. This course prepares the junior officer to become a Staff Officer. The duration of this course is three and a half months. In addition the battle handling modules, the course deals in detail with staff duties, process, excellence model, general management, NLP (neuro-linguistic programmes), full-range leadership, communication, human resource management, logistical management, health information, patient administration, disaster management, financial management and the medical health training programme (see Appendix 6: Junior Command and Staff Course Programme).

It is apparent that this course focuses very much on equipping the officer with operational knowledge to perform their roles as Staff Officers. The battle handling knowledge is practically applied by means of planning of orders, tactical appreciation, presenting battle plans and executing them. Taking the functions of management into account, it is also clear that this course will provide the officer with opportunities to implement communication, time-management and conflict-management skills in every aspect of planning, organising, control, leading and making decisions. Specific attention is also given to specialised areas of managing resources such as personnel, finances and logistics.

- **Joint Senior Command and Staff Course for promotion from Lieutenant Colonel to Colonel.** This course consists of modules such as orientation and induction into the course with regards to administrative arrangements, family resilience programme, computer literacy assessment, a 40-minute period each on mentorship, coaching and counselling, presentation skills, leadership versus management and team work, skills development and the process of research. The rest of the programme focuses on, for example, DOD management, security studies, HR management, global conflict, civil-military relations, the military and the media, military environment issues, operational artillery in joint and multi-nation operations, combat preparation of the different services, financial management, technology, leadership and command, logistical management, international law, history, involvements in various exercises, foreign tours and presentations and local visits (see Appendix 7: Joint Senior Command and Staff (JSCS) programme).

The above programme reflects the advancement in the areas of the modules that are presented on the Junior Command and Staff Course (JCSC) course level, compared to the Joint Senior Command and Staff Course (JSCSC) programme. The JSCSC reflects advancement in the depth of the course, as well as the advanced standard of including international defence forces in discussions of multi-national operations, international law, global conflict and security studies. Special effort is undertaken to provide practical application of the knowledge and skills gained by means of international visits as well as local visits to the war-simulation centre. The course provides a good foundation for technical and conceptualisation skills. Although human skills are addressed, not much time is allocated for such periods, for example, teamwork and roles, group dynamics, mentoring, coaching and counselling in comparison to the other two levels of skills. The course programme also indicates that the course is overloaded with assignments. This is perhaps the only means that the course co-ordinators can be assured that OCs have developed an insight into the large amount of knowledge provided to them and will be able to apply it in their own units once confronted with reality. Whilst the JCSC course focuses more on management, the JSCSC programme focuses more on leadership and command, thus indicating the importance of the operational strategic focus of the OC as commander and leader. The fact that the OC has a good background to what technical, conceptualisation and human-related skills entail will most certainly benefit the relationship between the chief military social worker as mentor and OC as protégé in identifying the mentoring needs and goals for implementation.

Erasmus and Van Dyk (2003:2) are of the opinion that before one can explore the training and development of any organisation (enterprise), one must define the concepts training, education and development. These concepts are defined by Erasmus and Van Dyk (2003:2-3) as follows:

- **Training**. "Training is the way in which an organisation uses a systematic process to modify knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees so that it can achieve its objectives. It is task orientated as it focuses on the work performed in an enterprise. Training therefore aims to improve employee performance in an organisation, usually when work standards are low because of lack of knowledge and/or skills and/or poor attitudes among individual employees or

groups in an enterprise". Jooste (1998:5-2) states concisely that training leads to competence to do the job.

- **Education**. "It is activities that provide the knowledge, skills, and moral values that we will need in the ordinary course of life. The concept of education includes also the learning activities that occur in an enterprise, specifically those that managers and unskilled workers require. Normally, managers will not receive training in the usual sense of the word. Instead, they take courses that aim to prepare them for higher positions. These courses, which we refer to as 'management development', make managers aware of a wide range of subjects that may affect the success of their enterprise". Jooste (1998:5-1) summarises the point by stating that education "…is for general betterment and that it implies cognitive guidance towards achieving an intellectual grasp of the world".

- **Development**. "This concept refers to employee development within an enterprise rather than that of the individual in general. This development takes place within the context of specific objectives". Jooste (1998:5-2) remarks that development is aimed at employees in a managerial capacity or preparing for managerial post within the organisation. Erasmus and Van Dyk (2003:224) describe management development not as a single activity, but as development that requires a range of related and interdependent activities to be carried out in parallel. Thus, all the parts that are relevant to improving productivity, performance and the achievement of objectives should be completed for management development to be a success. Methods that can be utilised for management training and development are mentoring, coaching, job rotation, committee assignments, sensitivity training, team building, behavioural modelling training, role playing techniques and in-basket exercises.

Reflecting on military training, it appears that all of the above concepts of training, education and development are integrated in the way that officers learn. For example, during the Officer's formative course, practical drill skills are imparted to officers that reflect on the training component. During the Junior Command and Staff Course, officers are firstly educated on environmental issues which are considered for terrain evaluation, and secondly, they are trained in map work before battle plans

can be compiled. The JSCSC programme reflects how training, education and development are integrated in the course programme. The skills development modules in the JSCSC programme can be linked with the training component. The subjects such as mentoring, team work, command and leadership can be linked with development whereas the human resource management, foreign tours and logistical management reflect the education component.

Jooste (1998:7-1) is of the opinion that the workplace must complement the courses of training institutions, for example, the South African Health Training Formation, and of the South African National War College by means of furthering support for, and development of, military leaders. The course contents of the JSCSC programme had evolved positively by not merely focusing on technical skills but also on conceptualisation and human skills. However, the time spent on especially the human skills modules is not sufficient to ensure that all OCs who had attended a nine-month Senior Staff Course at the SAMHS Training Formation or an 11-month Joint Senior Command and Staff Course (JSCSC) programme at the South African National War College are able to apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired during these courses to their work environment. Appendix 7: Joint Senior Command and Staff Course (JSCSC) programme indicates that mentoring, coaching and counselling are discussed on the Joint Senior Command and Staff Course programme and thus recognised as an applicable development approach. Unfortunately, very little is done about implementing this approach as part of a post-course follow-up design in the SAMHS. Therefore, despite an excellent 11-month course design, follow-up training and development are still lacking once members have been appointed as OCs in their respective units in SAMHS. Training entails more than giving an employee a manual to read, a course assignment with a tight deadline to complete, or a live or reality exercise to participate in. Training, in the researcher's view, entails experiential learning that is a continuous process. Effective career planning along with educational, training and development assessment centres can most certainly advance the ideal of the continuous development of managers and leaders.

Experiential learning is described by McShane and Travaglione (2003:58-59) as a **concrete experience** with a real organisational problem. Opportunity must be given to **reflect on observations** regarding the problem or opportunity, and to

conceptualise the problem or opportunity before **actual implementation takes** place through application and testing. These authors emphasise the importance of allowing for mistakes as part of the learning process and of discovering new and better ways of doing things. Learning experimentation, according to McShane and Travaglione (2003), allows for mistakes to be revealed and thus prevent and increase in the re-emergence of problems. It's about a systems approach to ensure that the valuable human resource embodied in OCs is utilised to the fullest to benefit the vision and mission of SAMHS, the people they manage and lead as well as the stakeholders to whom a service is delivered. Mentoring, coaching and counselling, as indicated in Appendix 7: Joint Senior Command and Staff (JSCS) programme, should be implemented in accordance with the Department of Defence Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) to ensure that Officers Commanding receive the necessary formal and informal support to strengthen their excellence as OCs in the SAMHS.

Systems theory and the ecological perspective recognise that the Department of Defence (DOD) is an open system, because the DOD interacts with other systems and is affected by the external environment. For example, government laws affect what the DOD can and cannot do. It is therefore important to reflect upon the external environment. In this way the impact of all the parts on the physical execution of the OCs tasks and roles can be assessed.

3.3 THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

Robbins (2000:103) and Robbins and Coulter (2003:66) describe an organisation's environment as inclusive of the institutions and forces that are outside the organisation which can affect the organisation's performance. Robbins (2000:103) only discussed the specific environment, whereas Robbins and Coulter (2003:70-73) focus in more detail on the general environment. It is the general environmental factors that were utilised as a guideline to discuss the external environment in which the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS leads, commands and manages. The specific environment includes the suppliers, customers, competitors, unions, government regulatory agencies and public pressure groups. The general environment includes economic, political/legal, socio-cultural, demographic and technological conditions.

The LCAMPS Model (Leadership, Command, Administration, Management and Public management model) (see Figure 4.1: LCAMPS Model) is designed to positively influence the execution of the roles and tasks of Officers Commanding (OCs) in the SAMHS. One can, however, not ignore the place of this LCAMPS model in relation to the external environment. The success or challenges of OCs are thus very much influenced by the kind of interaction that exists between the organisation and those factors that prevail outside the boundaries of the SANDF. Positively, these external environmental factors can also shape and direct the management, command and leadership tasks and roles of OCs in the SAMHS.

The political, social, economical, technical and customer satisfaction factors will be discussed as external environmental factors below.

3.3.1 Political factors

The SANDF is affected by legislation in the external environment; for example, the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 lead to the Department of Defence's (DOD) Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (South African National Defence Force (SANDF) Order, 1998). Whereas the SANDF was mostly occupied by male white soldiers, the different services had to adapt the way in which they were recruiting and staffing to ensure that women, disabled members and those from historically disadvantaged communities who had the potential to be developed were equally represented in a broad range of posts. This impacted on the training and development structures as they had to adapt their resources and budgets to ensure proper training and development to comply to legislation. This transformation of the workplace contributed positively to a culturally and diversified SANDF workforce, accessible training and development institutions for all military personnel and accepted by the political leadership of South Africa.

South Africa became involved with regional peace initiatives in Southern Africa after 1994 (Otto, 1998:36). South Africa became the eleventh country to join the South African Development Community (SADC) with the aim of ensuring peace, security and safety, economic growth, social justice and democracy in the Southern African region (Land, 1995:23). South Africa's involvement led to the SANDF's involvement in international deployments to Burundi, Liberia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Ethiopia. Such involvement has also brought the various services

(SAMHS, SA Army, SA Air force, SA Navy) closer in terms of joint training for certain exercises in preparation for peacekeeping and any other combat operations.

The definition of security has developed beyond countries' military capabilities. Security is now described as a holistic dimension that includes the totality of human relations, economic, social, cultural, ethnic, humanitarian and environmental factors (Otto, 1998:76). This definition means that the SANDF has to ensure security not only within its borders of South Africa, but also to assist with security in Africa. The human resource component is already short staffed in units for various reasons, for example, long recruitment periods and staffing or deployments internationally. This create a situation where the expertise of personnel members is lost to deployed areas and Officers Commanding in units in South Africa thus battle to provide other services with trained and competent staff to execute a Concurrent Health Assessment of the SA Navy or SA Army. This creates tension in the relationship between SAMHS and other services and SAMHS personnel itself become overloaded, which can result in burnout.

Employees are aware of their human and labour rights. Although the SANDF is constituted under the Defence Act, employees are aware of their rights to consult with any lawyer as well as their union. Any alleged unfair labour practice, action against non-performance or violating the military code of conduct should proceed with proper legal consultation by the Officer Commanding (OC).

Ecologically, members of the SANDF may find it difficult to adapt to environmental factors in deployed areas such as Sudan or Liberia. The temperatures may affect morale and performance, and OCs need to motivate and lead employees amidst such negative climatic circumstances in order to achieve the mission goals. The culture of these countries also differs from that of South Africa and it is important that the nature of dress and uniform be clarified beforehand by the politicians to prevent compromising of military discipline. OCs need to ensure that their sub-ordinates are educated and sensitive to the cultural practices and beliefs of these African nations.

Besides the climate and cross-cultural challenges, the terrain of certain African countries in which peace-keeping activities are exercised place further demands on military vehicles, medical equipment and anti-tank and armoured military vehicles. Once again, the military budget is further taxed, especially if the deployment

expenditures are funded from the Department of Defence budget and not by the United Nations. All African Union deployments are funded by South Africa, but United Nations' missions are funded by the United Nations. Such an expenditure might not have a direct bearing on the SAMHS's Officers Commanding budget, but holistically, because the DOD's budget is affected, it has a ripple effect for the other services' military budgets.

Officers Commanding on unit level do contribute to the advice which the Surgeon General of the SAMHS provides to members of the South African Parliament. Good strategic leadership, command and management are important at all times to ensure that SAMHS provides civilian members in Parliament with relevant and accurate information. This information should be well motivated to generate a better understanding of the needs and progress in the SAMHS. In this way an improved defence budget might result.

Expanding military operations beyond the borders of South Africa is a logical strategic decision to ensure peace and stability in all of Africa. However, it does impact on the human, financial and logistical resources of OCs in their units.

3.3.2 Social factors

The escalation of any disease or dysfunctional phenomena, for example, poverty, unemployment, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, violence or crime in the broader macro-community does impact on the recruitment of staff and it is essential to ensure that staff already in the military, maintain a good health status. The health status of the broader society also determines the way in which the military will be able to have access to a healthy employee. It is therefore important that Officers Commanding in SAMHS ensure that the relevant health professionals network closely with provincial health departments to align military projects with national health projects or campaigns. In this way prevention, education, training and development are simultaneously taking place in the macro and military community.

Officers Commanding (OCs) themselves network with members of Parliament on a provincial level and these relationships must at all times maintain good ethical standards which will not compromise the management and leadership role and image of the SANDF. International deployments also spotlight the ethical behaviour of the OC and his sub-ordinates. Ethical behaviour is an essential attribute of military

leaders; Magee II (1993:39) in fact regards it as a hallmark of a military leader. OCs can ensure that ethical behaviour is reflected in their units through ensuring that the human resources department pursues the correct employee selection process and selects ethical applicants through conducting interviews, tests where necessary and background checks (Robbins & Coulter, 2003:131). Soldiers must abide by the military code of conduct and behave within the regulations and rules of the Defence Act. Magee II (1993:39) advises that managers themselves should undergo ethics training as part of their own personal development.

3.3.3 Economic factors

The social pressures on state funds have severely reduced the Department of Defence (DOD) budget. Officers Commanding have to cope with the minimum of resources, emphasising management functions to properly manage scarce resources. International deployments, members taking packages, those going on functional and military courses amidst scarce resources place demands on those employees physically at the workplace and affects morale negatively.

Those stakeholders who are dependent on the SAMHS for a military health service become impatient when certain medication is no longer available, or if the medical accounts of their external practitioners are not paid timeously.

3.3.4 Technological factors

As the service that provides the medical support to other services, SAMHS needs to be equipped with serviceable and operating equipment. Because not all advanced medical or occupational health and safety or environmental health equipment can be bought in SA, it does take some time to get the equipment delivered. Consequently, services that are required cannot be delivered to stakeholders. Other times more advanced technological equipment is available, but staff is not sufficiently trained. This can be the result of staff shortages; therefore the training period on this equipment is short and follow-up training is lacking.

New computerised equipment with different programmes for every different functional grouping in the SANDF (patient administration, psychology, pharmacy) should increase performance and output. The very technology that should have increased efficiency and output has in fact become an administrative burden because backlogs

have to be administered and computerised. Overloaded and poorly trained staff has lead to the utilisation of new technology becoming a time-consuming process.

In conclusion, the Officer Commanding should be able to keep abreast with tendencies in the areas of human resources, finances and logistics in order to plan proactively against the risks and negative impacts of the external environment on the workforces' performance and outputs. The Officers Commanding Staff Officers can be a resource in pooling their feedback together to lessen the negative impacts and to budget effectively for the unforeseen. Feedback reports to Level 3: Area Military Health Formation can make risks visible and opportunities can be created to ensure available and well-trained and developed staff. Open communication, motivation, problem-solving and decision-making appear again to be key factors in managing both the internal and external environmental factors in the world of work of the SAMHS Officer Commanding.

The next chapter will focus on the management roles and tasks of the Officer Commanding. The SANDF trains its officers in the LCAMPS model, which identifies leadership, command and management as the key areas in developing effective and efficient transformation in the SANDF (Chief Directorate Army Force Preparation, 2000:2-2-1). The LCAMPS Model will be unpacked briefly in the next chapter to show the reader the profile of the type of leader the SANDF would like to employ in its organisation; however, there are other leadership and management assessment tools that can be utilised to determine the Officers Commanding management and leadership styles.

3.4   CONCLUSION

The SANDF is an exciting, complex and challenging organisation. This is evident in the internal and external interface of the work environment in which the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS is employed. The Officers Commanding are responsible for ensuring that the vision and mission objectives are accomplished effectively. They should simultaneously manage the internal and external factors that so easily can become an obstacle to the organisation accomplishing its tasks.

The SAMHS is a large and complex structure. The structures, rules, procedures and conditions of services, as pointed out, are not necessarily negative. They provide security and meaning to the SAMHS and articulate the lines of accountability. Such

structures, processes and procedures indirectly encourage the maintenance of integrity and professional work ethics of the Officer Commanding. For example, the budgeting process appears to be loaded with channels and procedures; however, finances is also the area that is most open to abuse and corruption. Control is thus required for optimal organisational effectiveness.

The negative side of the military environment, however, is the rigidity of the structures and the procedures. This can curtail the creativity of the Officer Commanding and inhibit expressive communication. Routine can cause stagnation and frustration. Mentoring can thus support the Officer Commanding to act as a catalyst to address areas of stagnation and to recognise his own strengths and limitations. In this way the Officer Commanding can view the internal and external environmental factors objectively and choose appropriate responses for the specific situation.

The Officer Commanding needs to ensure that the organisational culture of the military is embraced by all SAMHS members. The SANDF is a reflection of a diverse workforce to which everyone brings their own rich cultural heritage and identity. It is important that everyone in the SAMHS is encouraged to participate in the organisational identity and the vision of SAMHS. The vision and mission of SAMHS should be held collectively and not simply in the hands of a few people. The observation skills of the Officer Commanding should also be developed in order to ensure everyone's involvement.

A constant watch should be kept not only on the local environment, but also the wider context. For example, motivating people, planning and prioritising are important, as are awareness of time management, deadlines, logistics, finances and the human resources in order to be accountable and to create synergy. Knowledge of systems theory and having good focusing, analytical and conceptualisation skills appear to be an advantage. It is clear that the Joint Senior Command and Staff Course (JSCSC) had invested excellently in the analytical and conceptualisation skills of Officers Commanding. The chief military social workers can integrate the existing knowledge of Officers Commanding and integrate it when assisting them to reflect on processes followed, confronting mistakes, providing alternative perspectives and the Officers Commanding own theory of leadership and management. Such abilities should equip the Officer Commanding to balance the constraints of the external environment and the internal processes in order to make hard choices quickly and successfully.

The management of change is an important task of any leader. Self-knowledge is thus important for the Officer Commanding in order to facilitate the work of their sub-ordinates and the situations requiring change in the organisation. Relationship building with the Officer Commanding will be critical for the chief military social worker as mentor, as it cannot be taken for granted that an Officer Commanding will easily disclose their responses, human-related skills, repressions and projections when confronted themselves with circumstances that enforce change.

Training, development and education can play a critical role in addressing areas for growth and development. Mentoring should be emphasised as a developmental tool that is integrated into the human resources of the SANDF. The SAMHS should invest in mentoring and learn to develop and manage a comprehensive and disciplined strategy towards effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation of mentoring programmes. Endorsement of training, development and educational programmes by the human resources division is of the utmost importance to develop the management and leadership abilities of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS.

This chapter highlighted the internal environment of, and the external demands on, the working environment of the Officers Commanding; the next chapter will specifically emphasise what the functions, tasks, skills, competencies and roles of the Officers Commanding to deal with the requirements of the internal and external environment in the SAMHS.

CHAPTER FOUR

AN OVERVIEW OF THE FUNCTIONS AND DEMANDS OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the internal and external environment. These discussions tended to focus more on structural, procedural and process-orientated issues. While Chapter Three provides information about the organisation that employs the Officer Commanding (OC), Chapter Four is more a reflection of the actual and physical job requirements expected from the OC. In this chapter the reader is informed about what the OC should do in the post as Officer Commanding.

The SANDF trains its officers in terms of the LCAMPS model, which identifies leadership, command and management as the key areas of developing effective and efficient transformation in the SANDF (Chief Directorate Army Force Preparation, 2000:2-2-1). The LCAMPS Model will be discussed briefly to show the reader the type of leader the SANDF would employ in its organisation; however, there are other leadership and management assessment tools that can be utilised to determine the OCs management and leadership style.

This chapter will focus, firstly, on the concepts of leadership, management and command. Secondly, on the basis of these three concepts, the function and tasks of the Officer Commanding will be elaborated upon. Thirdly, the skills, and fourthly, the competency requirements will be discussed. Lastly, the roles of the Officer Commanding will be highlighted. An introduction to the establishment of the LCAMPS Model will now be provided as background, followed directly by a discussion of the concepts associated with this model.

4.2 CONCEPTS OF THE LCAMPS MODEL

The Department of Defence's strategic competency, technologies, processes and abilities to attain core competence have been determined through a process of consultation by Parliament, members of the public, non-governmental organisations and the Department of Defence. Eventually, this process produced a policy

instruction, as stated in the White Paper on Defence (RSA Department of Defence, 1996). This policy framework sets the guidelines for management, leadership and command within the context of the White Paper on Defence (1996) and the White Paper on Public Service (1995). The transformation of the Public Service as a whole strengthened the imperative to change for the Department of Defence (Department of Defence, 1996:1-2). The Defence Secretariat Board and the Defence Command Council (Department of Defence, 1996:1-4) accepted the guidelines.

The transformational variables leadership, command and management were identified which led to the SANDF's transformational model, namely the philosophy of leadership, command and management (LCAMPS Model) (Department of Defence, 1996:1-5). LCAMPS stands for Leadership, Command, Administration and Management Practices, Policies, Principles and Philosophies. The LCAMPS model (See figure 4.1) has public administration as central approach to all three concepts of leadership, command and management and will be discussed in the next section.
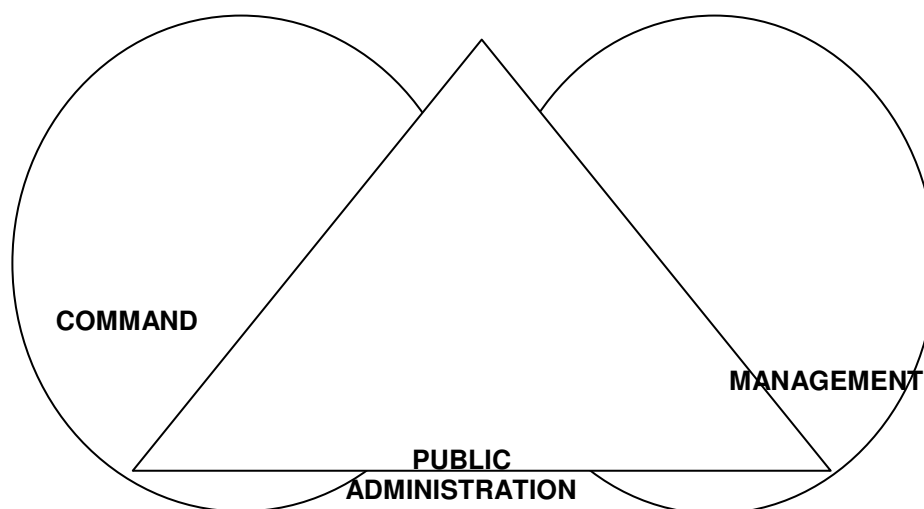
FIGURE 4.1: LCAMPS MODEL (Chief Directorate Army Force Preparation, 2000:1-1-2 and South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Guide, 2000:12-21).

The key concepts that guide the OCs in the execution of their roles and tasks will now be defined. The key concepts in Figure 4.1: LCAMPS Model, will now be described (Chief Directorate Army Force Preparation, 2000:1-1-2 and South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Guide, 2000:12-21).

"**Public Administration** contains the prescriptive guidelines from government on the way in which departments of state are to be administered and managed.

Command (the mind) is unique to the military environment and has a legal and constitutional status. Mission command is the system of choice and is the legal authority vested in a person in accordance with his or her appointment over assigned forces and/or resources in order to carry out the mission. The main activities are appreciating situations, judging (decisions) and ordering.

Management (the body) is rooted in the prescripts and principles of public administration, as embodied in the constitution. Management is defined as applying technical skills to achieve set objectives according to set processes through the efficient and effective use of resources. It includes conduct or behaviour that plans, organises, motivates, coordinates and controls the processes and activities of combined resources.

Military leadership (the heart) situation is determined to a great extent by the dynamics of battle, which include danger, chance, exertion, uncertainty, apprehension and frustration. Even in peacetime, military people are faced with relatively uncertainty, deprivation, especially with regard to budget cuts and remuneration. Leadership becomes a vital element in these situations and could be defined as unleashing the potential of people to respond to all challenges in extraordinary ways. The activities it entails are visualizing, inspiring and counselling."

The LCAMPS Model is important to the achievement of the vision and mission of SAMHS.

The model allows for management to revisit the manner in which decisions can be decentralised at the point of execution and how communication can be enhanced to decrease distrust and uncertainty. Effective administration and good leadership allow for everyone to participate in the communication process and this in turn creates trust and high morale.

An encompassing organisational culture is established when the LCAMPS model is implemented effectively, efficiently and appropriately. All strategies in the SAMHS can be converted into action when the LCAMPS Model is complemented by the SA

Performance Excellence Management Model (SAMHS Guide, 2000:4-5). See Figure 4.2: SA Performance Excellence Management (SAEF Model).
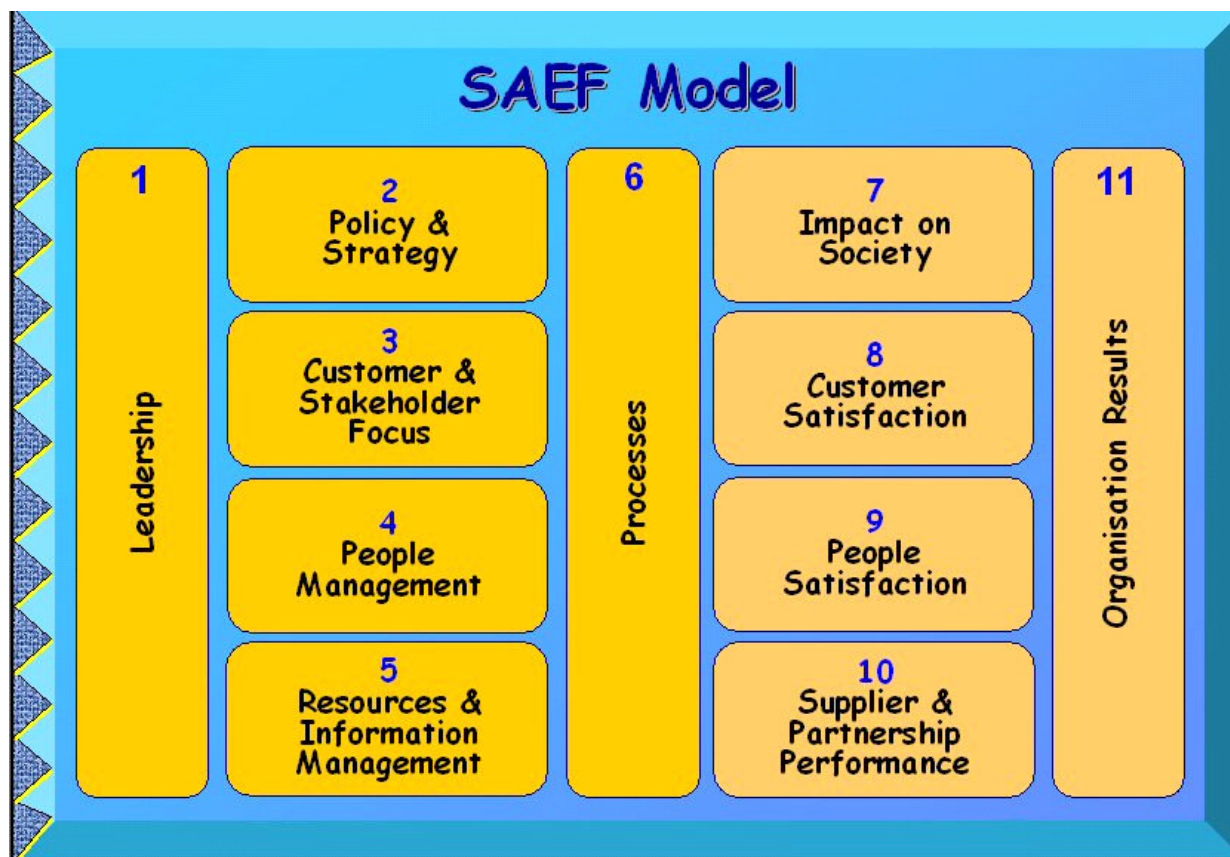
FIGURE 4.2: SAEF MODEL (SAMHS Guide, 2000:4)

Figure 4.2: The SAEF Model in the SAMHS Guide (2000:4) is a measurement tool that is utilised in the SAMHS to measure performance in order to identify strengths and areas for improvement. It is this continuous process of performance improvement that should lead SAMHS to excellence.

The LCAMPS Model overlaps with the functions of management (Weinbach, 1998:8; Lussier, 1997:10-11; Robbins, 2000:39-40; Robbins & Coultier, 2003:7-9) and the functions of public administration (Malan, 1999:8-13). Within the context of this overlap, the next section will align the generic functions and tasks of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS with the functions of management.

4.3   THE FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

The functions and tasks of managers will be discussed on the basis of the functions of management (Weinbach, 1998:8; Lussier, 1997:10-11; Robbins, 2000:39-40; Robbins & Coultier, 2003:7-9). These authors identified four management functions (planning, organising, leading and controlling), whereas Olmstead (2000:5) identified only three executive functions: decision-making, management and leadership. Lussier (1997) placed decision-making as a sub-heading under planning. It is apparent that whilst Olmstead (2000) identified only three management functions, he does address the other two functions of organising and controlling under management and leadership respectively.

The post profile of Officers Commanding (OCs) and their performance agreements (Area Military Health Unit Western Cape, 2003:1-10) in the SAMHS have been utilised to integrate the functions and tasks of OCs under the headings of these management functions.

4.3.1 Planning

Planning is identified by Robbins and Coultier (2003:8) as a management function that "…involves the process of identifying goals, establishing strategies for achieving those goals, and developing plans to integrate and co-ordinate activities." The description by Robbins (2000:39) of planning overlaps with that of Robbins and Coultier (2003). Lussier (1997:11) refers to planning as"… the process of setting objectives and determining in advance exactly how the objectives will be met". Table 4.1 reflects the planning functions and tasks of the Officer Commanding in SAMHS.

The planning functions and tasks in Table 4.1: Planning functions and tasks of Officers Commanding, are addressed in the Surgeon General's Commander's Intent documentation. The Surgeon General's Commander's Intent document (Department of Defence, 2005:12) encourages all commanders in SAMHS to invest more time in planning to ensure a greater reward for their investment in planning. As part of the SAMHS measurement tool, the SA Performance Excellence Model (SAMHS Guide, 2000:4-5; Figure 4.2: SAEF Model) is an ideal tool to ensure that plans are measured and that risks are converted into rectifications.

TABLE 4.1: PLANNING FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING

Serial Number	Function	Tasks
1	Ensure customer/client satisfaction.	Ensure the resolving of complaints promptly. Participate in military health research and development. Ensure processes to evaluate customer care.
2	Management of resources and information.	Plan for effective inventory management. Establish a logistical infrastructure to be able to provide effective support to the unit.
3	Ensure operational support.	Ensure the provision of operational health support to forces deployed. Ensure the provision of operationally ready infrastructure user systems. Ensure the combat readiness status of military health care force component.
4	Ensuring of organisational results.	Ensure effective management and execution of the Unit Business Plan. Ensure effective budget management and control. Ensure optimal productivity of all. Ensure compliance to legislation on all levels. Ensure performance against plan and the continuous improvement of results in order to thrive towards excellence.

Source: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape. 2003. **Performance management**. **Post Profile of Officers Commanding.** Issued by Lt Col P. Mouton. File reference AMHU WC/R/501/7. September, 2003:1-10.

It is clear that there is a definite overlap between the planning, organising and controlling function. For example, before the organisational results and operational support function can be rendered, it must first be planned and co-ordinated. These sub-functions must thus firstly be made visible in the unit's Business Plan as part of the planning phase before the outcome of its inputs can be measured.

Officers Commanding (OCs) should also be aware of not over-planning. What is planned in their performance agreements will be expected to be executed by their superior on Level 3: the General Officer Commanding (see Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service Structure). OCs' performance appraisals are also rated according to what they had planned in their performance agreements and what they had achieved. It is thus wise to plan realistically and according to what can be executed. The OC should also take cognisance of the fact that not all plans will be achieved. According to Lussier (1997:179), it is important under such circumstances that a

contingency plan should be available. A contingency plan is described as an alternative plan when uncontrollable events occur.

But one needs to keep an open mind because in the transformation process it is not always possible to plan for the unexpected. Such rapid changes in the working environment of the OC do not make planning impossible; however, problem-solving and decision-making skills as well as flexibility and an innovative approach become requirements to deal with rapid changes and last-minute requests from Level 3 and other stakeholders on Level 4.

It is important that OCs in the SAMHS are able to plan appropriately according to the needs and tendencies in their units to ensure the precise need for changes. This planning should be in harmony with the vision and mission of SAMHS. The resources should be structured and the strategies as to how the goals are going to be met should be identified in detail. Table 4.1: Planning functions and tasks of OC clearly indicates that in order to plan effectively the OC needs a broad range of knowledge pertaining not only to his personal qualifications or functional qualifications. OCs need to have knowledge of human resource management, logistics, medicine and finances. It is therefore imperative that OCs are continuously developed and have the ability to communicate and consult effectively with their Staff Officers, who can advise them in this regard. Once again, in order to plan effectively the Officer Commanding needs to be able to plan in conjunction with his sub-ordinates in teams, and be able to apply strategic and analytical thinking. The role of the chief social worker as mentor thus again becomes vital to assist the OC in the area of team-work skills, communication skills, assessment skills, problem-solving, creativity, time management and decision-making skills.

4.3.2 Organising

Robbins and Coultier (2003:8) refer to organising as involving "…the process of determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom, and where decisions are to be made." Lussier (1997:11) emphasizes the "…delegation and co-ordination of tasks and resources to achieve objectives".

The political, economic and social factors that have been discussed under section 3.3: The external environment of the Officer Commanding, do impact on the

availability of personnel and resources to execute the organising function. When the human resource component is not available, then the Officers Commanding and their Staff Officers find it strenuous to ensure that goals and targets are met. It is therefore imperative that Level 3 informs Officers Commanding timeously of deployment cycles. In this way combat-ready soldiers can be deployed, whilst their jobs can be filled simultaneously on unit level. Employees can then be organised on unit levels to continue service delivery at the right time and right place in the absence of a deployed member or a person attending a military course. Such members who execute duties over and above what is normally required can then be provided with authority to meet the responsibilities of the service to be rendered. Services can then continue to be delivered to the SAP, the defence forces and Correctional Services.

The Officer Commanding, as middle manager, has a wide spectrum of sub-ordinates under him (e.g., see Figures 3.3: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters and 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield). The Officers Commanding are thus capable of exercising authority and delegating the tasks that they had undertaken to execute in their performance agreements. Table 4.2: Organising functions and tasks of Officers Commanding, will identify the span of the functions and tasks of the Officer Commanding in this regard.

TABLE 4.2:   ORGANISING FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING

Serial Number	Function	Tasks
1	Effective leadership on unit level.	Application of participating management on all levels. Involvement with clients to understand and respond to mutual interests.
2	Managrient of people (Unit members).	Acknowledge and manage diversity within the workforce. Ensure effective career management on all levels. Ensure a multi-professional primary and intermediate military health care service. Ensure the implementation of Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action legislation.
3	Ensure operational support.	Ensure the provision of operational health support to forces deployed. Ensure the provision of operationally ready infrastructure user systems. Ensure the combat readiness status of military health care force component. Execute disaster relief operations. Support Civil Defence Organisations where and when requested. Render health support to SAPS and Correctional services.

Source: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape. 2003. **Performance management: Post Profile of Officers Commanding.** Issued by Lt Col P. Mouton. File reference AMHU WC/R/501/7. September, 2003:1–10.

From Table 4.2: Organising functions and tasks of Officers Commanding, it is clear that the position of the Officer Commanding (OC) indicates that the OC is responsible and accountable to its stakeholders in ensuring that public service legislation is implemented or that the operational health support services are co-ordinated and rendered. When OCs attend any Staff Council meetings with the Surgeon General in Pretoria, then an acting OC will be appointed. OCs should be aware that, although they delegate their responsibility and authority, they still remain accountable. According to Hellriegel et al. (2001:214), delegation does not relieve a manager from his or her responsibility and accountability. Delegation is defined by Olmstead (2000:209) as "…the act of investing formal authority to act for another". Delegation relieves OCs from certain tasks as they can assign and delegate tasks to their sub-ordinates. However, they cannot delegate tasks to the top level, that is from Level 4 to Level 3. When OCs delegate, they should also ensure that the task they assign should match the experience of the sub-ordinate (Hellriegel et al., 2001:216). It is thus vital that OCs ensure that personnel development schedules are in place and that they are implemented.

Delegation can also become a stressful activity when the sub-ordinates do not provide support in supervising or executing tasks. Support in organising is thus important as no manager is able to completely co-ordinate everything that is happening in a unit. Trustworthy interpersonal relationships and team-work skills are thus of the utmost importance to prevent burnout among OCs. When everyone participates in the organising of tasks, then employees are also able to become experienced in gaining new skills, learn how to manage authority and power, and are able to learn from mistakes (Hellriegel et al., 2001:215). The effectiveness of any organisation requires the co-ordinated efforts not only of the OC, but also of every sub-ordinate. Everyone's contributions will eventually lead to the accomplishment of the overall mission.

4.3.3 Leading

Robbins and Coultier (2003:8) describe leading as a management function: "When managers motivate subordinates, influence individuals or teams as they work, select the most effective communication channel, or deal in any way with employee behaviour issues, they are leading." Hellriegel et al. (2001:10) point out that leading "…involves communicating with and motivating others to perform the tasks necessary to achieve the organisation's goals. Leading is not done only after planning and organising ends; it is a crucial element of those tasks."

The researcher noted that there is a debate in the literature whether one should rather emphasise management or leadership. Most of the literature studied ultimately reached the conclusion that there is an interdependence between management and leadership. It needs to be mentioned, though, that the literature studied on management and leadership (Brill & Worth, 1997; Kotter, 1998; Pearce II & Robinson, 1997; Jooste, 1999; Olmstead, 2000; Peace, 2001) concurs that there are more similarities than differences between management and leadership. Since this is not a thesis dealing with management and leadership per se, the researcher will not focus on the various models of management and leadership, but will rather focus on leadership as discussed in the LCAMPS model (South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Guide, 2000:1-29).

Pagonis (2001:108) is of the opinion that leaders can be taught how to be leaders. He does not enter into the debate as to whether leaders are born or made. Pagonis (2001) firmly concludes that leaders can become leaders through a process of development and hard work. Olmstead (2000:8) and Pagonis (2001:108) are in agreement with one another in this regard and also express their firm belief that leadership abilities and skills rest upon understanding of what is expected from them and how the human resources can be combined and balanced to reach ultimate goals. Leadership, according to Olmstead (2000), can thus be learnt. Olmstead (2000:10) further emphasised that leadership is a process that occurs over time. This is positive feedback for the military social worker as mentor, as this would further strengthen their roles as mentors in partnership with Officers Commanding in equipping them with interpersonal and intra-personal skills. The working contract should thus take cognisance of the fact that leadership development is a process, and accordingly motivate the organisation to implement the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) upon entry of employees into the SANDF according to proper assessment and selection procedures. In this way leaders can be developed from an early stage in their military careers.

The LCAMPS Model (South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Guide, 2000:12-13) specifically identifies the following leadership styles:

"**Transactional**. This leader has a personal agenda. One must adhere by his rules and then you will get what you like. This leader fails in the area of mutual trust.

The team player. This leader lives in world of interpersonal roles and connections. The leader shows respect and trust and then people will follow. This leader is unable to make difficult decisions and therefore loses respect.

Transformational. This leader is concerned about values, ethics and standards. Standards and goals must be articulated. This leader has the ability to see the organisation's larger mission as well as follower's needs."

It appears that the transformational leadership style would be the ideal leadership style for the current changes that are occurring in the SANDF. The transactional leadership style appears to be unethical in its interpersonal relationships and can lead to favouritism and unfair labour practices. Table 4.3: Leadership functions and

tasks of Officers Commanding, reflects the leadership functions and tasks of the OC on unit level.

The leading functions and tasks as indicated in Table 4.3 involve the day-to-day interpersonal and personal contacts that the Officer Commanding would have the workforce and other stakeholders. Olmstead (2000:10) is of the opinion that effective leadership can be judged by what the leaders' team does and the progress they make towards achieving their objectives. The **function of management of people** and **management of processes** in Table 4.3 are thus of the utmost importance to ensure that the Officers Commanding as transformational leaders are able to influence their work force and able to produce actions that are useful and establish good relationships.

TABLE 4.3:   LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING

Serial Number	Function	Tasks
1	Effective leadership on unit level.	* Act as a role model for the organisations values and lead by example. Accessible, listen and respond to the unit's members and stakeholders. Actively involved in the transformation process. Address public responsibilities and practise good citizenship. Use appraisal and promotion system to support improvement. Apply transformational leadership within the unit. Provide strategic direction to sub-ordinate units. Ensure welfare and well-being of all members. Ensure esprit de corps.
2	Management of people (Unit members).	* Align people resources with policy, strategy and values. * Ensure effective up, down and lateral confirmed communication. * Ensure high morale and well-being of all members.
3	Impact on Society.	* Establish and develop good relations with organisational opinion makers. * Promote inter-departmental liaison. * Communication with regional health care counterparts.
4	Implement policy and strategy	* Communicate policy and strategy to all unit members. * Ensure the education of stakeholders on health policy and strategy to enhance stakeholder satisfaction. * Give expert inputs to higher HQ with reference to policy and strategy.
5	Effective management of processes.	* Encourage innovative and creative talents of employees in process improvement. * Manage and support new or process changes through testing, communication and review. * Ensure a holistic approach to the management of all processes.

Source: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape. 2003. **Performance Management**. **Post Profile of Officers Commanding.** Issued by Lt Col P Mouton. File reference AMHU WC/R/501/7. September, 2003:1-10.

Table 4.3 especially demands that the Officer Commanding should maintain good practice and citizenship, and be able to provide good customer care to all stakeholders. The well-being of all the people should be considered to enhance

morale. Alignment of values with policy and resources is important and in doing so ethical behaviour is displayed and the military code of conduct is adhered to. The team player leadership style means that the OC is not able to take the initiative and appears to be unable to lead the workforce in sound problem-solving and decision-making. These are important qualities for a manager and leader on national strategic level, and when commanding operational strategic and tactical missions. The LCAMPS model in itself emphasised the transformational leadership style as the ideal leadership style. The following attributes are sought in transformational leaders within the SANDF (SAMHS Guide, 2000:12-13):

"**Idealised Influence (II).** This type of leadership style present with behaviour that result in role modelling. Such leaders are admired, respected and trusted. The needs of others are placed above that of their own. A high level of ethical conduct and moral conduct is demonstrated. The core outcome of this attribute is **trust.**

Inspirational Motivation (IM). This attribute motivates and inspires the work force and provides meaning and challenge to the work of followers. Team spirit [see esprit de corps in Table 4.3] is aroused with enthusiasm and optimism. Others are involved in envisioning an attractive future for themselves. Followers want to meet expectations and are committed. The core outcome of IM is **shared vision**.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS). Such attributes stimulate followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways (see Table 4.3 which demands that transformational leadership, innovation and creativity are applied). These leaders have insight that the logic of the solution is different than the logic of the problem. The core outcome of IS is **creative freedom**.

Individualised Consideration (IC). Such attributes pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successfully higher levels of potential. The core outcome of IC is **personal understanding"**.

The transformational leaders' attributes reflect the profile of leaders that the SANDF strives to develop and retain. When reflecting upon Table 4.3, it is evident that the Officer Commanding is expected to motivate his personnel and ensure customer satisfaction. Synthesising the expectations of various systems and being able to lead,

direct, motivate and engage each system to achieve the common vision and mission of the SAMHS are important.

4.3.4 Controlling

Hellriegel et al. (2001:11) as well as Robbins (2000:40) agree that controlling includes monitoring of performance and corrective action. Table 4.4: The controlling functions and tasks of Officers Commanding, will provide more information on the controlling function of the OC in the SAMHS.

An important part of the functions of the Officers Commanding is to exercise control. Table 4.4 highlights the fact that the control function is the function with the most tasks. Taking into account the structure of SAMHS, the budget process and its organisational culture, one can place this controlling function in the context of SAMHS as a bureaucratic organisation, but also highlights its purpose to protect the public against unethical and fraudulent behaviour. The control function is thus not only important to employees within SAMHS, but also to external stakeholders and the broader public. It is therefore important that measures are put in place to evaluate performance, to determine which decisions to make, and what services to terminate or what services to extend. For this purpose the SAMHS trains its members in the SA Performance Excellence Management Model (SAMHS Guide, 2000:1-17 and Figure 4.2). This model allows managers to systematically review the organisation's activities and results. Strengths and areas of improvement are identified and culminate in planned improvement actions that are monitored for progress.

Table 4.4 reflects upon the controlling functions and tasks of Officers Commanding in SAMHS:

TABLE 4.4:   CONTROLLING FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING

Serial Number	Functions	Tasks
1	Effective leadership on unit level.	* Review and improve the effectiveness of their own leadership. * Ascertain linkages between service delivery points.
2	Ensure customer/client satisfaction.	* Evaluate and improve approaches by listening to customers/clients.
3	Implement policy and strategy.	* Track performance relative to plans. * Review and update policy and strategy on unit level. * Ensure the implementation and co-ordination of the performance management process in the unit. * Ensure the implementation and co-ordination of the SA Excellence Model in the unit.
4	Management of people (unit members).	* Involve all people in continuous improvement activities. * Ensure adherence to professional standards and performance guidelines. * Ensure the conducting of performance appraisals, audits and the compilation of performance reports. * Ensure a disciplined workforce. * Ensure the implementation of Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action.
5	Ensure Operational Support.	* Ensure the provision of operational health support to forces deployed. * Ensure the provision of operationally ready infrastructure user systems. * Ensure the combat readiness status of military health care force component.

Serial Number	Functions	Tasks
6	Management of resources and information.	* Analyse and review organisation performance against budget. * Manage the medical information system in the unit. * Structure management information to support business plans, policy and strategy. * Manage tender process and contracts effectively. * Manage and optimise material inventories. * Manage risks as stipulated in the unit's Business Plan. * Manage the security of assets. * Manage unit funds effectively. * Manage logistical stores and equipment. * Adherence to and apply the logistic philosophy, doctrines, policy and evaluation. * Manage a loss control programme. * Manage an occupational safety programme as part of unit objectives. * Manage criminality in the unit. * Ensure the appropriate execution of the Public Finance Management Act.
7	Effective management of processes.	* Design products, services, delivery processes to meet quality standards and operational performance requirements. * Evaluate the impact of key processes on the unit. * Monitor the quality of the service provided by the organisations.
8	Ensuring of organisational results.	* Ensure effective management and execution of the unit's Business Plan. * Ensure effective budget management and control. * Ensure optimal productivity of all. * Ensure compliance to legislation on all levels. * Ensure performance against plan and the continuous improvement of results in order to thrive towards excellence.

Source: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape. 2003. **Performance Management: Post Profile of Officers Commanding.** Issued by Lt Col P. Mouton. File reference AMHU WC/R/501/7. September, 2003:1-10.

It is evident from Table 4.4 that every effort has been made to ensure a high service standard and that rectification actions are taken. The control function is not just a function of measuring the logistics, but also the human resources, the finances and information systems. The importance of the planning function becomes evident, as there is nothing to measure if no planning has taken place nor any plans been implemented. Officers Commanding should utilise the SA Performance Excellence

Management Model (SAEF Model), performance appraisal criteria as well as job descriptions to ensure that performance criteria and quality standards are adhered to.

One cannot clearly delimit the various functions of the OC as the different functions are noticeably interdependent. For this reason many of the tasks have been repeated under all four or at least three of the functions discussed. These management functions have also highlighted the areas to be considered when identifying mentoring needs, compiling the mentoring goals and the contract.

The last section of this chapter will briefly identify what skills are required to be an Officer Commanding.

4.4   THE SKILLS OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

Olmsteadt (2000:8) agrees with Pagonis (2001:108) that leadership is an ability that can be learnt and thus be developed by building on existing skills or acquiring new skills. Being able to communicate with others, being decisive, assuming responsibility and having a broad viewpoint are thus positive traits that an OC can acquire through skills development. Lussier (1997:9) and Robbins and Coultier (2003:11) have identified the following types of skills:

Tactical skills. These are skills that focus on the ability to use methods and techniques, for example, the ability to use a computer to draw up a budget.

Human skills. This skill reflects the ability to interact with people.

Conceptual skills. "The ability to understand abstract ideas and select alternatives to solve problems".

These different types of skills will be elaborated upon in the next chapter. The focus of the role of military social workers as mentors will focus more on the human skills and the conceptual skills. The following skills have been identified in the post profile of Officers Commanding, for example, negotiation skills, interpersonal relationship skills, conflict-management skills, general management skills, communication skills, computer skills, creative skills, skills to implement transformational leadership and cultural sensitivity. Considering the knowledge, skills and values of military occupational social workers discussed in Chapter Five, it is clear that military social workers as mentors will be competent to develop the skills of Officers Commanding,

except for computer skills (technical skill) as this would be regarded as an area to be developed by an information systems specialist.

The following competency requirements can further be noted by the military social worker as mentor as this will assist them in supporting Officers Commanding to develop weak areas of competencies to ensure optimal performance and work satisfaction.

4.5 THE COMPETENCY REQUIREMENTS FOR THE OFFICER COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

Hellriegel et al. (2001:15) define management competencies "as sets of knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes that a manager needs in order to be effective in a wide range of managerial jobs and various organisational settings." These authors are of the opinion that managerial competencies can be learned by participating in development activities or studying management literature.

It should be emphasised that the following competencies in Table 4.5 are not management functions, but should be considered core functional areas in which the Officer Commanding should be competent. The overlap between the management functions and these competencies, however, are obvious and cannot be denied. Each of these competencies describes behaviour that is required to perform competently as an Officer Commanding in SAMHS.

The competencies listed and identified in Table 4.5 can be utilised by the chief military social worker as an assessment and measuring tool. A self-anchored scale from one to ten can be compiled. In conjunction with the Officers Commanding, their areas of improvement can be determined and any deficiencies can be included in the mentoring programme. These competencies can further shed light on which of these competencies the Officer Commanding appears to be most effective in, and those strengths can be built on to develop weaker competencies. In order to assess communication competency, for example, the Officer Commanding can be requested to write a letter in which improvement areas are outside his control and need intervention from Level 3 (refer to Level 3 of Figure 3.2: SA Military Health Service structure. Apart from Table 4.5 just providing knowledge about the knowledge, skills

and attitudes Officers Commanding should possess for the post, it has the potential to act an assessment and evaluative tool.

TABLE 4.5:   COMPETENCIES REQUIRED BY OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

Serial Number	Competency	Description of Competency
1	Operational conceptualisation	Develops an operational plan to realise the vision for the future of the unit and organisation. Demonstrates a broad-based view of issues, events and activities as well as perception of the longer-term impact.
2	Organisation	Produces action plans in which objectives are clearly defined and steps for achieving them are clearly specified.
3	Co-ordinating	Motivates and empowers others in order to reach organisational goals. Delegates responsibilities to appropriate subordinates.
4	Results focused	Keen to succeed. Focuses on achieving agreed outcomes and ensures that key objectives are met. Set challenging personal targets and strives to meet them.
5	Commercial	Knowledgeable about financial and commercial matters. Focuses on costs, markets and new business.
6	Judgment	Makes rational, realistic and sound decisions based on consideration of all the facts and alternatives available.
7	Leadership	Provides team with a clear sense of direction. Takes charge when appropriate, instructs other on what to do and steers them towards successful task completion.
8	Cross Functional Awareness	Has knowledge and experience of a range of different functions in developing strategy and plans.
9	Quality driven	Is committed to achieving high quality results. Sets high standards for performance for self and others.
10	Persuasive	Presents the key point of an argument persuasively. Negotiates and convinces others effectively. Changes people's views and influences their direction.
11	Self-Confidence	Independent and self-reliant. Able to stand ground in face of opposition.
12	Flexibility	Adapts readily to new situations and ways of working. Receptive to new ideas, willing and able to adjust to changing demands and objectives.
13	Expert	Understands technical or professional aspects of work and continually maintains technical knowledge.
14	Innovative	Creates new and imaginative approaches to work-related issues. Identifies fresh approaches and shows a willingness to question traditional assumptions.

Serial Number	Competency	Description of Competency
15	Decisive	Demonstrates a readiness to make decisions, take the initiative and originates action.
16	Articulate	Speaks clearly, fluently and in a compelling manner to both individuals and groups.
17	Supportive	Interacts with others in a sensitive and effective way. Respects and works well with others.
18	Resilient	Maintains effective work behaviour in the face of set-backs or pressure. Remains calm, stable and in control of himself.

Source: Area Military Health Unit Western Cape. 2003. **Performance Management: Post Profile of Officers Commanding.** Issued by Lt Col P Mouton. File reference AMHU WC/R/501/7. September 2003:11-16.

It is important that military social workers as mentors should have knowledge about what Officers Commanding are doing. Being aware of their functions, competencies and skills requirements can provide insight into their world of work environment. In addition to these functions, competencies and skills, the roles of the Officer Commanding will be elaborated upon below.

4.6   THE ROLES OF OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

The definition of a role and what it entails have been discussed in Chapter Two section 2.7.2 and will not be repeated here. The roles of the Officer Commanding (OC) are not stipulated in their post profiles (Area Military Health Unit Western Cape, 2003:1-10); however, their duties and tasks provide a clear indication as to what roles are expected to be performed as a leader, manager and commander. Mintzberg (1998:1) has done a study on five chief executive officers and concluded that managerial work involves the following roles.

4.6.1 Interpersonal roles

When interpersonal roles are performed, the OC will utilise human and communication skills in order to execute management functions. These interpersonal roles are divided into the figurehead, leader and liaison role (Mintzberg, 1998:13-15).

- **The figurehead role** is performed when the OC is representing the SAMHS on provincial level or whilst participating in ceremonial and symbolic activities.

- **The leader role** is performed whilst training, motivating, communicating with others or whilst influencing others.

- **The liaison role** is performed when the OC is interacting outside the unit lines to gain information.

In other words, the Officer Commanding (OC) should be competent in an interpersonal role to execute planning, organising, leading and controlling functions and tasks. All of these functions involve interactions with people in the organisation. The interpersonal roles are vital to transmit information vertically and horizontally, and to prevent that Officers Commanding (OCs) from isolating themselves from their Staff Officers, sub-ordinates and other stakeholders. The exercising of the interpersonal roles avoids barriers arising between OCs and their unit staff, and contribute to the visibility and accessibility of Officers Commanding. This role allows OCs to become acquainted with their staff and external stakeholders.

4.6.2 Informational roles

Mintzberg (1998:16) once again links the informational role with the ability of Officers Commanding to apply their human and communication skills. Informational roles are executed when OCs monitor, disseminate or act as spokespersons (Mintzberg, 1998:16-18). These sub-roles can be described as follows:

- **The monitor role** allows the Officer Commanding (OC) to scan his environment for information, interrogate liaison contacts and sub-ordinates, and receive unsolicited information. Much of this take place as a result of the network of personal contacts.

- **The disseminator role** enables the OC to pass privileged information directly to their sub-ordinates, who would otherwise have no access to such information. When sub-ordinates do not have ready contact with one another, the OC may also use this role to pass information from one to another.

- In the **spokesperson role** the OC will send information outside the unit, for example, addressing Officers Commanding of all the other services with regards to the planning and co-ordination of Concurrent Health Services of their respective employees. The OC may also inform the Surgeon General of SAMHS or the General Officer Commanding of the Area or Tertiary Military Health Formation on progress or needs in their units.

A distance is evident between what Figure 3.2: SAMHS structure (Top management at Level two and three), Figures 3:3 Area Military Health Unit Western Cape Headquarters (Middle management at Level 4) and 3.4: Health Centre Youngsfield structure (First line-management level and non-managers level)represent. This distance is by means of the geographical location. This distance impacts on the accessibility of first line managers and non-managers with regards to information on Levels 2 and 3. However, the informational roles of OCs as well as their role as middle managers and leaders make information on Levels 2 and 3 accessible to their sub-ordinates. Their informational roles place them in a position to influence their Staff Officers and sub-ordinates to carry out activities required to achieve results or to act in a desired manner that would build organisational culture. Informational roles enable the OC to keep the organisation moving towards its goals.

4.6.3 Decisional roles

The Officers Commanding (OC), within their performance agreement boundaries with the respective General Officer Commanding in SAMHS, will play a major role in making decisions in their units. Based on the position of authority of Officers Commanding, they are in possession of information that only allows them to make decisions that determine the unit's strategy. The hierarchical structure of the SANDF may influence the parameters within which the OC may make certain decisions. Actions can be mostly affected by the instructions and orders that are received from the top level. The following four roles describe the decision maker (Mintzberg, 1998:18-21):

- As **entrepreneur**, the OC will seek to improve the unit, adapt it to changing conditions and take on projects that will be supervised and gradually delegated to someone else.

- As **disturbance handler,** the OC will deal with pressures. For example, a retired SANDF member will air his grievances regarding the late payments of their medical accounts to external private doctors or the fact that no money is available in the budget for members to attend military courses in Pretoria just before the end of a financial cycle.

- The role as **resource allocator** empowers the OC to decide which resources to allocate as priorities to which department. Another vital resource that is

allocated is the personal time of the Officers Commanding. As resource allocator, Officers Commanding align their own time with that of their teams to plan and co-ordinate tasks. The OC will first have to authorise important decisions before they can be implemented. In this way the OC ensures that decisions taken are interrelated.

- The role of **negotiator** means that managers represent their organisations in non-routine transactions. For the OC, the negotiator role would mean that the OC will need to negotiate the transfer of money from other budget series numbers before the end of a financial cycle, to pay for travelling and accommodation of members on seven-day detached duties or who are going on military courses.

In summarising the decisional role, it is important to note that the work context of the OC is characterised by both constraints and opportunities. Under these circumstances, it will be necessary to exercise good judgment as to what decision to take within the context of the constraint or opportunity that presents itself. It should be taken into account that decisions have consequences and different effects at different times within the organisation. When implementing this role, it is important to determine which function and task is required that will serve the implementation of the decision appropriately and with the least risk and financial cost.

It is clear that the different roles cannot be viewed in isolation from the skills that are required of Officers Commanding and what is expected from them in their day-to-day execution of their functions and tasks. It is evident that communication and human skills are again highlighted as a great asset for any OC in the execution of their roles. All the roles identified by Mintzberg (1998:13-21) emphasized the importance of life skills.

4.7   CONCLUSION

This chapter addressed the LCAMPS Model, and specifically reflected upon how the Officer Commanding should lead and manage the demands of the military environment. Both management and leadership were defined in order to discuss the OC's function and tasks, skills and roles. This has been done in this fashion as neither management nor leadership should replace the other in the military. It is important that the military social worker as mentor does not confuse themselves with what the difference is. At best it is important that the OCs know what is expected of them in their positions as managers and leaders. It is clear that in the military the term "command" is utilised in the context of leadership. Both strong leadership and management are required in the SAMHS and each one should be utilised to balance the other when executing the responsibilities of the Officers Commanding.

Management has become a common job, yet at times overwhelming because so many skills are required for cost control, finance, resource allocation and human resource management. In addition, the OC should also represent the qualities and competencies highlighted in the LCAMPS Model, for example, integrity, vision, passion, courage, ethical standards and resilience. The role of military social workers as mentors to the OC is thus essential to equip them with the skills and virtues that the SAMHS insists the OC should possess.

The diversity in the functions of the Officer Commanding (OC) reflected the great demand the military environment places on the OC. Such a working environment requires that the OC "wears different hats" in one day. For example, each situation and circumstance will demand a different skill, management and leadership style. It is essential that the OC remains flexible and versatile in the way in which they apply their management and leadership style, skills and roles for each situation. On the one hand, they should negotiate, use rewards and apply discipline, and at other times they need to influence sub-ordinates to achieve common goals. The resilience of Officers Commanding and their families is thus of the utmost importance to ensure that the OC remains focused and achieves almost the impossible. Resilience training is thus a key topic that the chief military social worker as mentor can discuss and contract with the Officer Commanding in their mentorship programmes.

The challenges and rate of change in the SAMHS make it essential that the OC is developed in the most effective way. It is therefore imperative that integrated and capable resources are utilised to develop the Officers Commanding and build on existing conceptual skills. The next chapter will provide more information on the knowledge, skills and value requirements of military social workers to mentor the Officer Commanding in order to ensure higher levels of organisational performance and effectiveness.

CHAPTER FIVE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKER TO EXECUTE MENTORING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The transformation of South Africa to a democratic society confronted the profession of social work with a number of challenges. The profession addressed many of them, for example, separateness in social work education based on race. The White Paper for Social Welfare (Department of Welfare, 1997) aligned social work with national and international professional beliefs in social justice and equity. In doing so, the profession of social work was positioned appropriately within a democratic society. In 1999 the profession also transformed the Interim Council for Social Work into the South African Council for Social Service Professions. This new Council ensures that, in accordance with the Social Service Professions Act (Act 110 of 1978), social workers' registration, training and conduct are regulated. Social workers can therefore not practise without successfully completing the requirements for a Bachelor's Degree or Diploma in Social Work.

Other processes of the profession's commitment to transformation became evident in its investigation into the future direction of the profession and social work education. This investigation resulted in the establishment of a Standards Generating Body for Social Work in accordance with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (1995). Not only were the Social Work qualifications approved by the National Standards Bodies (NSB) 09 and SAQA, but Social Work also became the first health and social service profession in South Africa to be registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) (Lombard, Grobbelaar & Pruis, 2003:1). This historical achievement for the social work profession highlights the excellent role of modelling when it comes to complying with legal procedures, maintaining standards and evolving with developments in South Africa, and ensuring that the line of work reflects such development and growth. These same evolving abilities to monitor and evaluate the purpose and relevance of the profession and to bring about change should also be a motivation for all social workers in the military and elsewhere to continuously develop themselves and the field of social work.

Military social workers should be competently equipped with knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that are essential for competent social work practice. This attitude of the profession towards transformation is the attitude that military social workers will have to adopt, if they are to take military social work to another level in performing the role of mentor. The correct attitude in approaching this role is thus vital if it is going to become naturally associated with military social workers. Social work encompasses a broad base of knowledge and a repertoire of skills. However, here only the knowledge, skills and values relevant to the mentor-protégé service will be discussed. This chapter will therefore firstly discuss, under the knowledge component, the social work methods and the function of supervision in social work.

Supervision is not a method in social work, but rather a tool and function to develop social work personnel. Supervision is included under the knowledge component as this chapter will show the important parallels and similarities that supervision has with mentoring. Similarly to the social work methods (only casework and group work will be highlighted), supervision also has a structured process that is followed when supervising social workers. The supervision process should not be seen in the same context as a social work intervention process with clients, groups or communities. The supervision process under discussion in section 5.2.1.3 refers to a process where the target system is the professional person (military social workers). The discussion of the social work intervention processes of the casework and group work methods and supervision will consolidate the competencies and perspectives of military social workers as mentors to the Officers Commanding in the SAMHS.

As a mentor, the military social worker will be in a critical position to influence behavioural change in the Officer Commanding (OC) in the SAMHS, create a learning culture, give guidance and emotional support, and lead Officers Commanding to their maximum capacities concerning human management skills. These social work intervention methods and supervision require not only a great sense of responsibility from the mentor, but most of all they require a sound social work knowledge base and skill. The researcher is of the opinion that the experience, knowledge and skills of Officers Commanding should not be underestimated, and military social workers should be well equipped for their roles as mentors. Schenk (2002:72) took account the work of the Brazilian pedagogue, Paulo Freire, when she wrote: "To facilitate the process of liberating a person implies that a practitioner or

facilitator needs to hold certain fundamental ideas, values and attitudes towards that person". The researcher wishes to connect these "fundamental ideas, values and attitudes" to the profession's distinct characteristics mentioned above, of which the military social worker should be conscious when mentoring the Officers Commanding as their protégés. Schenk (2002:73) notes that the abilities of people should not be underestimated: "People are not empty vessels who believe and accept anything they are told, as the Marxists with their socialist ideals had implied. People's minds are not merely passive repositories (banks) for ideas so that knowledge could be easily imposed on them. People are critically reflective beings who are experts about their own experience, realities, values and culture".

Secondly, this chapter will also focus on the values of military social workers by addressing the guiding social work practice principles. These social work practice principles will remind military social workers constantly that Officers Commanding have something to contribute to the mentor-protégé process and should be respected for who they are. Thirdly, the skills will be elaborated upon, and lastly, this chapter will outline the professional roles of military social workers relevant to this domain of the mentor-protégé intervention process.

5.2 KNOWLEDGE BASE OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS AS MENTORS

Social work has an enormous knowledge base and the following areas of knowledge in particular are significant in the mentor-protégé process that needs to be part of a social worker's repertoire for competent practice.

5.2.1 Intervention methods in social work service delivery and supervision

Greene (1991a:13) points out that, broadly speaking, all social workers share a common intervention process in practice and that it consists of "common elements transferable to all aspects of social work practice". To illustrate this observation, the "common" phases of the intervention process will first be discussed and then the process will be explained according to the phases of the primary methods in social work. This process will then be compared with the mentoring process. Figure 5.1 shows the phases of the social work intervention process that cuts across different intervention methods in social work:

Engagement → Intake → Contracting → Data Collection/Exploration

→ Problem Definition/Assessment/Diagnoses → Contracting

→ Planning → Action/Intervention → Reassessment

→ Recontracting → Monitoring → Evaluation → Termination
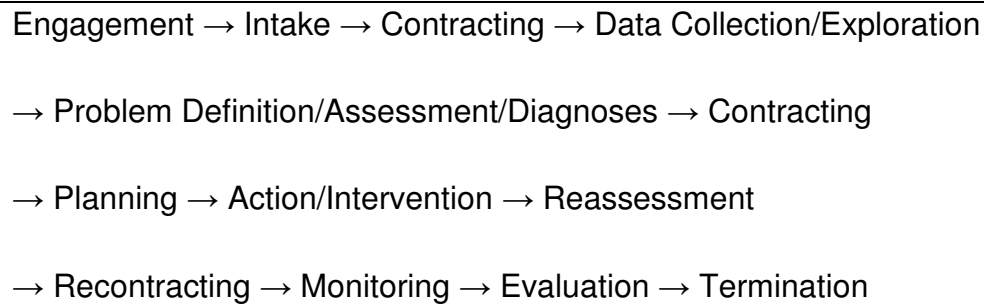
FIGURE 5.1: PHASES OF THE SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION PROCESS

Source: Greene (1991a:13)

Figure 5.1 illustrates a broad social work intervention process. The different client systems and their needs or problems will determine whether this intervention process in Figure 5.1 will be utilised with or without being adapted in some way. If the mentoring with the protégé takes place on a one-to-one basis, then a similar process to the **casework** process (Figure 5.1) that is used in social work for intervention with an individual will be followed. If the protégé is experiencing a problem or need that other protégés are also experiencing, then this need or problem will be addressed in a group. The **group work** process (see section 5.2.1.2) in social work for intervention with groups will then be utilised. The process that is utilised in supervision with social workers can occur on a one-to-one basis (individually) or in a group. Keeping in mind that **supervision** is not a social work method, however, the process in Figure 5.1, is closely reflected in the process of supervision (see section 5.2.1.3(b): Process in supervision). It will now be illustrated how the intervention process in Figure 5.1 overlaps with other intervention processes in casework, group work and the function of supervision, depending on the client/target system, need/problem, method or approach.

5.2.1.1   *Process in casework*

The casework process is utilised with client systems on an individual basis. It guides the social worker into disciplined thinking about the person who presents a problem. It further demonstrates how the intervention process can, through its various phases, create a helpful climate for the professional partnership relationship, how to assess the problem/need, how to formulate intervention goals by way of an action plan, and how the outcome of the process will be evaluated and terminated. The casework that

unfolds between a client and social worker as presented in Table 5.1: Process in casework, has similarities with the mentoring process in the mentor-protégé relationship.

TABLE 5.1: PROCESS IN CASEWORK

Serial Number	Phases	Focus points of this phase
1	**ASSESSMENT**	• Identifies needs/problems, life situations important for understanding client in situation and providing base for planning and action. • Ongoing and requires good judgment and decision-making. • Utilisation of problem-solving process. • Utilisation of tools for example, genogram, ecomap, questionnaires.
2	**PLANNING**	• Outcome of assessment. • Plan in terms of goals and objectives and target system. • Consider strategies, theories, approaches, models and roles. • Joint agreement or contract.
3	**ACTION (DIRECT)**	• Utilise knowledge, skills and techniques to execute plan of action re goals and objectives. Evaluate continuously. • Engage in problem-solving activities to match need/problem. • Empowerment, utilisation of resources, crisis intervention, support, partnership relationship, referral when necessary.
4	**EVALUATION**	• An ongoing process. • Participatory process. • Evaluate both positive and negative impact, input of clients, achievements of goals, objectives and treatment plan, ethics and accountability, effectiveness of approach, theory, models, skills, techniques, roles and research methods utilised.
5	**TERMINATION**	• Phase planned in partnership with client from assessment phase. • Occurs when goals/objectives have been met, no progress or potential for change is poor, transfer/resignation of worker, organisation does not have a mandate or resources to deliver service: terminate or refer. Consist of dealing with feelings, • Stabilising change and evaluating with clients.

Source: Johnson & Yanca (2007:186-306)

Military social workers will be able to transfer their existing knowledge of the casework intervention process as illustrated in Table 5.1: Process in casework, to

facilitate their application of the mentoring process. This ability to transfer what is already known and familiar to the unknown and unfamiliar is part of the adult learning principles which the chief military social workers themselves will get an opportunity to practise. It is evident that the phases of the casework intervention process indicated in Table 5.1 show an overlap with the mentoring process, as will be illustrated in Table 6.1: Different mentoring processes. Both processes are structured and the respective phases show similarities in that both processes (casework and mentoring) clearly consist of an assessment/orientation, action and evaluation/termination phase. Military social workers have knowledge of and skills in, the casework intervention process, which will assist them to apply the mentoring process. The richness of what the group work method in social work offers military social workers and how it can assist to broaden their scope of practice as mentors will be explained below.

5.2.1.2   *Process in group work*

The group work method is the second intervention process that the chief military social worker as mentor can apply in the pre-planning and the planning phase of the mentoring process. In the same manner that social work consists of more than just one method, mentoring consists of different types of mentoring. The group work process can be utilised in the facilitation of the different mentoring types, but especially in the planning phase of the mentoring process. Different authors refer to the group work stages in different terms, yet the content of the process is the same. Toseland and Rivas (1998:143-368) refer to the group stages as the planning, beginning, middle and the ending stages of a group. Zastrow (2001:14-16) refers to the stages as the intake, selection of members, assessment and planning, group development and intervention and evaluation and termination stages.

The military social worker as mentor can especially utilise the intake, selection of members, assessment and planning stages to execute the **pre-planning** and actual **planning phase** of the mentoring process in the context of the organisational policy for mentoring, for example, the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C). The planning phase of the mentoring process can be managed by transferring the planning, organisational, assessment and interviewing skills required in the first three group stages explained by Zastrow (2001:14-15) to the tasks pertaining to the co-ordination

of the mentoring programme and execution of the selection, training and matching, as well as the assessment of the mentors and protégés (Fisher, 1994:30; Matulovich, 1996:20; Lewis, 1996:178, DOD Instruction, 1999:5-6). For the purpose of this study, the target group for the mentor and potential protégés has been identified as the military social workers as mentors and the Officers Commanding in SAMHS as the protégés. The first three stages of the group work process, according to Zastrow (2001:14-15), can be applied during the pre-planning and planning phase of the mentoring process.

The Command SWP (Standard Work Procedure) 34/98: Execution of Social Work Supervision in Gauteng Medical Command, as compiled by Captain R Louw, is utilised by military social work supervisors in the Directorate Social Work. The purpose of this SWP is to guide supervision practice. Gauteng Medical Command has been renamed Area Military Health Unit (AMHU) Gauteng. Supervision as a staff development function would be introduced to support the reference framework of military social workers to competently master the application of the mentoring process in mentorship (SWP No 34/98, 1998:1-5).

5.2.1.3   *Supervision*

In this section supervision will be explained in terms of its objectives and functions, the supervision process and the different forms of supervision. In Chapter Six the importance of this section will become evident when the *how* (process of supervision) and the *what* (description and functions of supervision) of supervision are more closely related to mentoring.

Supervision, like consultation and in-service training, is more commonly associated in the profession of social work with staff development. The term mentoring is more commonly known and accepted outside the profession of social work as a term also referring to staff development. Mentoring is also the terminology that is strategically used in the DOD to highlight the staff development of military employees. Descriptions of these two terms, supervision and mentoring, will reveal that there are more similarities than differences between them. The difference lies in the emphasis of the respective functions of supervision and mentoring. The functions of supervision will now be discussed in order to distinguish it more clearly from mentoring. The

reader may simultaneously refer to section 6.3.5.2: Training of the mentors with regard to functions and activities of the mentor.

(a)   *Objectives and functions of supervision*

Kadushin and Harkness (2002:19-20) describe the **objectives of supervision** by means of the three **functions of supervision:** educational, supportive and administrative supervision. Based on these functions, Kadushin and Harkness (2002) describe supervision as long range and focusing on efficient and effective social work services to the client. Service rendering is based on the mandate of the agency (policies and procedures), whereby the agency provides the worker with a supervisor. **Administratively**, the worker's service rendering is co-ordinated and integrated with others in the agency. The worker is also educated to perform in their tasks skilfully. On a **supportive level**, the supervisor supports and sustains the workers through motivated performance of their tasks in the organisation. These supervision functions do have similarities with mentoring functions in that the educational and supportive components overlap with the career (coaching, challenging assignments, exposure and visibility) and psycho-social functions (work role effectiveness, acceptance, competence, role modelling) of mentorship. The career function in terms of the coaching activity resembles the function of educational supervision. The development of the knowledge and skills base of the supervisees to do their work competently and independently is greatly emphasised during **educational supervision**.

Military social workers as mentors will be able to transfer their knowledge of the supervisory functions to assist their application of the mentoring functions. The Command SWP No 34/98: Execution of Social Work Supervision in Gauteng Medical Command is utilised as a basis in each area and is adapted by the personnel development specialist of that particular area, according to the resources and structures of the units in which supervision is practised. The personnel development specialist is the co-ordinator of supervision of that particular area and needs to ensure that the quality of supervision is monitored. The Staff Officer 1 for Social Work in that particular area takes the final responsibility for the personnel development of social workers under his command and control. This SWP is also subjected to annual review by the personnel development specialist in the respective areas. The Command SWP No 34/98 (1998:6-8) also discusses the standing work procedures

pertaining to students from universities, but the focus will be only on the details of the supervisory process, relevant to new military social work employees in the SAMHS. The following is a reflection of the content of the supervision process.

(b) Process in supervision

The supervision process is discussed in the context of a service which delivered to social workers. Apart from the casework and group work intervention processes, the supervision process is regarded as a third process to be aligned with the mentoring process (SWP No 34/98, 1998:1-5; Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:22,405,143-162).

(i) "**Preparation phase**. This phase is also referred to as the beginning phase. Before the new military social worker arrives, the following arrangements are put into place:

- An orientation programme must be planned and include orientation with regards to the SANDF, basic rules and regulations and the different service arms; the SAMHS, resources and client systems; military social work, approach, methods and special tools for example, Employee Assistance Programmes. The purpose, definition and functions of supervision are also discussed and repeated in the first two sessions of the commencement phase.

- Administrative resources, pro forma, stationery, offices and telephones are negotiated as part of administrative supervision.

- Planning of a specific session must be executed.

- A confidential supervision file must be prepared for each supervisee.

(ii) **Commencement phase**. This phase is referred to as the contact/contract phase in which the following activities are executed:

- Meet the supervisee. Supervisee completes the document on initial information.

- The orientation course is implemented and a foundation is laid for a trustworthy relationship. The purpose, definition and functions of supervision are again emphasised.

- Contracting takes place in terms of expectations and a written contract is compiled.

- Learning styles of supervisor and supervisee are determined on completion of a Learning Style Inventory questionnaire.

- Contract is reflected upon again to ensure that learning needs are stipulated and a consultation readiness questionnaire is completed and complemented by an in-depth get-to-know interview. Long-term and short-term planning are done taking the written supervisor-supervisee contract into account.

(iii) **Middle phase**. This phase implies the beginning and executing of the supervision sessions. The functions of supervision are more clearly implemented in this phase.

- A pro forma of an agenda is introduced and discussed to ensure that both parties are clear on the contents of the session.

- Skills and techniques, for example, role plays, tape recordings and socio-theatre, can be implemented. Apart from individual supervision, different forms of supervision, for example, group, live or peer supervision can complement individual supervision.

- A session report on the session is written by the supervisor and supervisee.

- Planning of the next session must be done with regards to the date and subject of the discussion.

- Continued evaluation and feedback are important.

- A monthly feedback report on supervision must be submitted to the supervisor.

- A quarterly progress report of the supervisee should be submitted to the supervisor.

(iv) **Closing/termination phase**. This phase commences when the supervisee can function independently, administrative arrangements, for example, transfer or resignation by one of the parties, are completed, or a problematic

relationship between the two parties has led to the termination of the supervisory process. The latter occurrence needs to be followed up by the management team of the area's Social Work Department.

- Formal handing and taking over should occur when a supervisee gets a new supervisor. The supervisee should be informed well in advance of the change of supervisors, the supervisee should be introduced to the new supervisor, and the file of the supervisee should be handed over to the new supervisor, and the new supervisor signs for the reception of the file.

- A self-contract can be compiled by the supervisee in terms of his or her own development, especially now that the supervisee is progressing onto consultation.

- If the supervisee is evaluated as being skilled, able to function independently and ready to go onto consultation, the following procedures can be executed:

  - The supervisor and supervisee both write a motivational report on termination with regards to the supervisee and why he or she is fit to go on consultation. This letter is then forward for approval to the Staff Officer 1 of Social Work of the specific area.

  - The supervisee has to submit files according to the different methods in social work for approval of quality of work by the management team of that area, for example, management consisting of the Staff Officer 1 of Social Work, area managers and supervisor/personnel development specialist of that specific area.

  - A date is set for the supervisee to do a presentation on his or her work, to the management group. If the supervisee is found to be suitable, permission is granted for the worker to function independently of a supervisor.

  - A certificate is issued to confirm that the supervisee has successfully completed supervision and is officially put on consultation. A letter stating this is filed in the supervisee's personnel file at the Human Resource Department.

The above supervision process (SWP No 34/98, 1998:1-5) provides the military social worker in the post of personnel development specialist/supervisor with a broad framework to implement the various functions of supervision, for example, educational, administrative and supportive functions. This supervision process also correlates well with the supervision phases mentioned by Kadushin and Harkness (2002:143-162): beginning structure and scheduling, beginning preparation, middle phase, feedback and termination phase. The functions are described by Coulshed and Mullender (2001:165-166) and Kadushin and Harkness (2002:19-20) as managerial and administrative, educational and developmental, and support. The process is formal, structured and reflects the roles of both the supervisor and the supervisee. The fact that the supervision process is part of a standing working procedure emphasises the value that is attached to supervision in the Directorate Social Work of SAMHS and the way that it is integrated into the Department of Social Work on ground level.

The personnel development specialist who is the supervisor is accountable to Staff Officer 1 for Social Work and the supervisee. This accountability is reflected in the dual role of the supervisor in that she needs to assist supervisees by executing the supervisory functions. In terms of responsibility to their own management, it is necessary to ensure that the needs of the organisation are met appropriately through managing the supervisee as a human resource of the organisation. Through supervision the supervisor is thus influencing the quality of organisational performance, and retaining and fostering the production of high-quality employees (Coulshed & Mullender, 2001:162). This too is an important goal of mentoring in that it intends to create capability and competence to ensure that members are fully functional, that they would meet the demands of the organisation, and to ensure flexible human resources in the long term (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:3-4).

The supervision process has features of a one-to-one relationship, but also of group work. Supervision is thus executed not just on an individual level, but also in a group. The following illustrates the different types of supervision in social work.

(c)   Different types of supervision

The military social worker as mentor should bear aware of these different types of supervision, as they bear similarities to the different types of mentoring, for example, formal, informal, spot, peer and group mentoring. The military social worker who is trained in supervision will thus be able to make the transition from utilising the various types of supervision to utilising the various types of mentoring.

(i)   **Individual supervision**. Individual supervision takes place on a one-to-one basis. Instead of preparing for a group of supervisees, the supervisor will prepare only for one supervisee. The educational programme will consist of addressing the learning needs of only one member. An individual instead of a group supervision contract will be compiled (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:143,146-147).

(ii) **Group supervision**. Brown and Bourne (1996:144-145) define group supervision as "the use of the group setting to implement part or all the responsibilities of supervision". They speculate that the reason why group supervision is chosen over individual supervision is that each group member learns from the experiences of others. Sharing strengthens the team and makes members less reliant on the supervisor. Another benefit is derived from the variety of different methods it accommodates, for example, role plays, case studies and exercises (Coulshed & Mullender, 2001:168). Preparation is done keeping all the supervisees in the group into mind, as well as the individual and group goals. In a similar way the preparation done for group or peer mentoring will be demanding, because of the very nature of the members and the number of group members. The high intensity that interaction with the different group members brings to a group set-up will also play a role.

(iii) **Peer supervision.** Kadushin and Harkness (2002:264) discuss the term "peer supervision" in terms of its being a resource against stress amongst supervisees. Peer supervision forms part of the support function in supervision and is seen as an additional source of support for supervisees that supplements the work of the supervisor. Peers are able to discuss their emotional barriers to their work productivity in a safe environment as the group consists of their own peers.

(iv) **Formal and informal supervision.** Coulshed and Mullender (2001:169) describe formal supervision whereby a supervisor assists another worker to practise at an optimum level and whereby the supervisee is formally accountable to the supervisor. Formal supervision is structured, focused and has a context within which supervision is undertaken. It forms the basis for any discussion and strategies (Coulshed & Mullender, 2001:169).

Coulshed and Mullender (2001:169) distinguish between formal and informal supervision and do not see informal supervision as a reliable approach. They are of the opinion that ad hoc discussions do not allow individuals time to reflect on their work or to plan the agenda beforehand, and neither do such discussions normally get recorded. They acknowledge the benefit of informal supervision in situations when a crisis is experienced or when a new employee at entry level can be more dependent for guidance or practical information.

Munson (1993:169,171) cautions against group supervision if it is just implemented for the sake of using this form of supervision. He advises that it should be well planned, organised and carried out to accommodation similar needs among group members. It is therefore advisable that supervisors balance the needs of experienced and inexperienced group members in the same group to avoid advanced group members from stagnating in the group or inexperienced group members from lagging behind, if the needs of both groups are not well balanced. The author makes another suggestion, namely to address the needs of the inexperienced worker in individual supervision, provided that the need is specific practice aid and techniques. This advice can be made applicable when utilising individual or group mentoring.

Munson (1993:169) also advises that if it is the first time that the supervisor is facilitating group supervision, he/she should also be provided with supervision or consultation, as group supervision cannot merely be facilitated based on text book knowledge alone. The fact that various group dynamics come into play with more than one member to focus upon, and taking into account the difference between facilitating a group and presenting a lecture on a didactic level, further highlights the factors that demand skill and an active awareness of the interactions that impact on the group supervision process.

Individual supervision, in the opinion of the researcher, can be compared to formal supervision, whereas informal supervision can be compared to peer supervision. It is also important that peer supervision does not become the dominant type of supervision that the supervisee receives. The supervisor should keep in mind that the peer supervisees are not yet on consultation and should not be allowed to supervise their peers completely in all areas of the functions of supervision, especially the educational function. For the purpose highlighted by Munson (1993:278), peer supervision appears to serve more of a supportive than an educational purpose.

Officers Commanding are adults and the learning methods of the military social worker should match their learning needs and capabilities (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:176-193). Military social workers as mentors should be well equipped to execute the organisational objectives of mentoring, mentoring functions and learning outcomes. In supervision the basic learning principles that derive from basic adult education principles are the foundation when teaching adults. The same basic adult learning principles that are utilised in supervision should be utilised when mentoring the Officers Commanding (OC) in the SAMHS. These basic adult learning principles will support the military social worker to transfer knowledge, skills and values on the level that the OC will be able to connect to and so promote optimal learning. The following basic adult learning principles are discussed below.

(d)   Utilisation of basic adult learning principles for mentoring

It has been continuously emphasised that Officers Commanding are experienced and their abilities should be respected in the mentor-protégé partnership. Military social workers should thus continuously be conscious of the dual learning process. Meaning, Officers Commanding can learn from the psycho-social function and role modelling the chief social worker execute and in the same manner the chief military social worker can learn from the OC pertaining their knowledge and skills with regard to the career function. Hence, the military social worker as well as the OC can simultaneously be exposed to a dual learning process. In order to ensure that the learning process of protégés is executed effectively and efficiently, the following adult learning principles of Kadushin and Harkness (2002:176-193) should be implemented.

(i)   **Principle 1**: Adult protégés **have a concept of self** and are **therefore responsible** and **self-directed**. The mentor thus needs to consider the

unique learning needs of the protégé and respond only to those needs presented by the protégé and those stipulated in the contract. What is taught in the mentoring session must be seen as applicable on the job in order to make the mentoring session more meaningful to the protégé. Adults have a deep need to be self-directed. The mentor should be conscious of not being the transmitter of information all the time, but to be conscious of engaging the protégé in discussions. The protégé should be allowed the freedom to ask questions and to express hopes, fears or organisational uncertainties. The bottom line is that individuals learn best when they organise and structure the discussion according to their needs and interest.

(ii) **Principle 2**: Adults **must know why they are learning** before they can start learning. The military social worker as mentor must therefore be able to influence the OC into believing that they should learn something, and must be able to indicate what value the learning content has for them.

(iii) **Principle 3**: Adults are **motivated to learn**. The approach by the mentor should be that learning must be intrinsic in nature as this will promote success in the learning process. The military social worker as mentor should also direct the content of the mentorship programme at recognition and self-actualisation. The mentor should start with determining the protégé's needs, problems or interests. It must be considered that Officers Commanding are independent and are able to identify their own needs, identify their fields of interest, study and evaluate their own performance. Officers Commanding might perhaps consider mentoring a waste of time and therefore it is vital that they are motivated by showing them how their personal or organisational goals will be achieved, for example, improvement of people's skills which will aid them in achieving good returns on their delegation to subordinates. Areas of low motivation should be brought in relation to areas of high motivation. The OC can be supported to identify what in his work contributes to job satisfaction and be utilised for motivational purposes.

(iv) **Principle 4**: The adult orientation to learning should be based on live case scenarios in which protégés can **optimally participate** themselves. For example, the conflict management skills of Officers Commanding during a situation where deploying soldiers are dissatisfied with the condition of

unserviced military vehicles. Role-plays can be enacted to assist Officers Commanding how to practise listening skills and provide feedback directly, but neither passively nor aggressively. The role play can be discussed with the protégés. Protégés are not forced to accept feedback, advice or guidance, but are able to exercise their self-determination rights. The contract in itself gives structure to the process and this implies that time is constructively utilised for learning on issues jointly decided on by the protégé and the supervisor. Role plays, role modelling or two-way mirror utilisation are excellent techniques to allow the protégé to participate optimally in his real-life experiences and in the process learning actively to correct behaviour.

(v) **Principle 5**: **Experience of the protégés** themselves are the richest resource of adult learning. Each Officer Commanding (OC) however, will differ with regard to their experiences. Feedback on a role play or role rehearsal is essential to ensure that the protégé is in a position to know what to improve. A trust relationship between the mentor and protégé is to the benefit of honest feedback and positive response. Mentors should prepare the protégé for negative feedback and deal with feelings of disappointment and clarify that even the negative aspects of learning, as these aspects are all necessary to contribute to later successful and positive experiences.

(vi) **Principle 6**: Individual differences among adult learners increase with their age and experience, and **learning should be presented in a meaningful way** that would **fit in with the adult learners' learning style**, tempo of learning and time schedule. Time for repeating behaviour or information is a way of recalling or refreshing prior learning and in this manner learning takes place on a conscious level, and knowledge and skill become integrated. The diagnostic instruments can be utilised in this regard by the military social worker as mentor to determine whether the learning style is dependent, collaborative or independent.

The use of adult learning principles will increase the likelihood that protégés will learn, be committed to the goals of the process, and utilise the problem-solving process to generate solutions for identified problems in their working environments. This will further create a climate for a trusting mentor-protégé relationship and ensure maximum output regarding learning. The basic adult learning principles will remind

the military social worker at all times that the learning process is an individualised process in which the protégé, like the supervisee, is a partner in the learning process.

5.3   VALUES OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS AS MENTORS

The values of the military social worker as mentor is, according to the researcher, embedded in the professional practice principles in social work. These principles will be discussed below and, in summarising this section, the value of these principles in the mentor-protégé relationship will be highlighted. These principles are divided into two categories. Firstly, those that are directly applicable to the social worker, and secondly, those that relate directly to social work practice activities.

5.3.1 Principles linked to the military social worker as mentor

Johnson and Yanca (2007:76) emphasise the importance of the helping person. The helping person is the major tool of working with other people. Helping persons should have no expectation that the help they provide would be reciprocated. Such a picture of the helping person, who is the social worker in this case, thus requires special character qualities. Some of these special qualities are indicated in the principles identified by Miley, O'Melia and Du Bois (1995:118-121), and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:68-71). These principles would most certainly contribute positively to the mentor-protégé relationship.

Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:68-71) identified six principles that should be synonymous with the professional profile of any practising social worker. These principles are supported by Miley et al. (1995:118-121), who encourage social workers to **practise social work** bearing in mind the aims of social work and remaining within the boundaries of the social work profession. **Social workers have themselves** as their primary practice tool, meaning that military social workers have their own unique way of building relationships with Officers Commanding and are comfortable with their own personality and past experiences. Their own self-knowledge and self-acceptance are vital to the way that they will deal with transfer or counter-transfer situations from protégés. Military social workers who know their practice style and have the ability to do regular introspection are well equipped to deal with the values, perceptions, life styles, strengths and shortcomings of their protégés, as they themselves are not afraid to look at the hidden aspects of themselves.

The **maintenance of professional objectivity** is an important principle, especially because the OC and the military social worker may at times, because of their positions as officers or soldiers, share the same concerns raised by the OC in the mentoring session. The military social worker will have to be neutral without conveying an image of lack of interest or being uncaring. On the other hand, the military social worker should practise a certain degree of emotional detachment to ensure mental health and prevent burnout. Military social workers should be able to **respect human diversity** and consult with Officers Commanding (OC) irrespective of their religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation or intellectual abilities. In respecting people of all creeds and colours, military social workers are able to avoid pre-empting conclusions or making decisions based on over-generalisation and stereotypes.

The profession of social work recognises that many human problems derive from discrimination and oppression that restrict people's opportunities to achieve self-actualisation. Military social workers should therefore **challenge social injustices** in the SANDF and put programmes in place to eradicate these injustices. Long-term planning is important as many of the SANDF's injustices are a reflection of the pre-1994 apartheid era and one cannot expect change to occur in a short period of time. Continuous **enhancement of professional competence** is imperative for any social worker who wants to remain current and keep abreast of broader issues that affect human functioning. Military social workers will have to invest in their own professional growth in order to practise as competent military social workers. It is suggested that chief military social workers subscribe to mentoring journals, enrol as members of mentoring forums, or complete a tertiary course that would substantiate their mentoring role. Military social workers as mentors who will practise as such will have to register at a mentoring professional council in South Africa and comply with mentoring standards.

5.3.2 Social work professional practice principles as mentor

The practice principles of confidentiality and self-determination were discussed in Chapter Two and will briefly be clarified here. These principles are reflected in the literature of authors such as Biestek (1957), Hepworth and Larsen (1993), Miley et al. (1995), and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003). These principles are summarised in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2: SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE PRINCIPLES

Practice principles	Clarification of practice principles
Acceptance	Conveys positive regard for clients' strengths and potential for growth.
Individualisation	Affirms each clients' unique and distinctive characteristics.
Non-judgmental	Maintains non-blaming attitudes towards clients.
Objectivity	Promotes professional caring, concern and commitment in working with clients.
Self-determination	Upholds clients' rights to exercise their own decision making.
Access to Services	Promotes and fosters resources and opportunities.
Confidentiality	Respects clients' right to privacy.
Accountability	Ensures competent professional conduct and comportment.
Vision to a problem situation	New ideas, perspectives and change strategies should be presented in a hopeful and realistic manner.
Build on client strengths	The abilities and potential should be the focus instead of the deficiencies.
Philosophy of Normalization	Manner in which to assist people with challenges to integrate in their communities.

Source: Adapted from Miley et al. (1995:114); Sheafor & Horejsi (2003:76,79)

The above practice principles will only become meaningful, once they are internalised and applied in practice by all military social workers. As this mentoring role will be a new one, it is important that military social workers also subject themselves to introspection and supervision of their mentoring service delivery in order to ensure that their own values and prejudices do not detract from their professional objectivity and compliance with rendering a non-discriminatory service to their protégés. These principles also ensure that the integrity of the mentor-protégé relationship are maintained and that the military social worker seeks the goals of the protégé and asserts their priorities. In order to be accountable, military social workers will have to evaluate the effectiveness of their mentoring role and provide feedback to their Directorate Social Work, Officers Commanding and other involved stakeholders.

The researcher is of the opinion that these social work practice principles must be aligned with the Batho Pele principles that were developed in 1997 to transform the South African public service (Department of Welfare, 1997:15-22). The Batho Pele principles emphasise the importance of excellent quality standard service delivery,

fair treatment, effective non-verbal and verbal communication, access and information with regards to services and resources, and lastly, preventative measures to counteract mistakes and failures as far as the consumer is concerned (Department of Welfare, 1997:15-22). The social work profession is based on empowerment of people, and the Batho Pele principles echo this point of departure of our profession. Military social workers can succeed when they put their protégés first in the mentoring process by applying the Batho Pele principles in conjunction with these principles.

5.4   SKILLS OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS AS MENTORS

This section of the chapter will focus core skills as they relate to the mentoring role of the chief military social worker. The assessment and contracting skills also correspond with the phases of the social work intervention process (Figure 5.1), as well as with the phases in the different mentoring processes (Table 6.1), for example data gathering, contracting, problem-solving and re-assessment. One must keep in mind that although these skills are discussed separately, they can at times be utilised in combination with each other. Different situations in the mentoring process, for example, the specific mentoring phase or type of mentoring (individual, formal/informal mentoring, spot, group or peer mentoring) will determine which skills are to be implemented. The continuum of simple to complex interventions will most certainly dictate what skills are suitable for the circumstances.

5.4.1 Assessment skills

Authors such as Miley et al. (1995:257), Garvin and Seabury (1997:172-251), Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:244-325), and Johnson and Yanca (2007:216) all affirm the **assessment skills** of social workers. These authors underline the flexibility of social workers to assess more than one system in their interaction in their environment and their skilfulness in operationalising these assessments into workable data. The role of military social workers will require sound assessment skills to assist the protégé to identify goal-setting areas for intervention. The military social workers' knowledge of developmental and ecological perspectives, role theories, organisation development as well as human functioning dynamics will most certainly complement this skill. Considering the vast array of assessment tools such as social history grids, genograms, ecomaps, workgrams (Miley et al., 1995:265-274), and the

life-cycle matrix and person-in-environment system (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:264, 311), military social workers will be competent to assess the needs/problems of the protégé in the context of the workplace or home life and monitor the progress of the process.

5.4.2 Contracting skills

Johnson and Yanca (2007:237-238) describe a contract as a promissory agreement between people with the intent to stipulate the mutuality as to what is agreed upon and the nature of the interaction between the people as well as its specific and clear nature. In order to reach this mutual agreement, the military social worker will have to display great **contracting skills** to determine the written or oral nature of the contract, goal clarification, the period of the mentoring sessions, inclusion of multi-professional team members or other key individuals, consensus as to the circumstances under which to refer the protégé, and the accountability of both the mentor and protégé with regards to preparation, work assignments, confidentiality and when and how evaluation and termination take place. Contracting might be regarded as a tiresome process. However, once it has been established in writing, it provides direction to the mentoring process, creates trust between the parties, ensures accountability and allows for joint review. At times the rank difference between the Officer Commanding and the military social worker can work in favour of the OC. Should this rank superiority be abused and ground rules violated, then military social workers can refer to the content of the contract to protect their professional image. In the same context senior officers can utilise the contract as their protection should the military social worker behave unethically.

5.4.3 Facilitation skills

Military social workers are involved in the intervention methods of group, community and organisation development work. The implementation of programmes revolving around these methods and in-house personnel development in-service training programmes, have given military social workers credibility regarding their **facilitation skills**. The facilitation skills of the chief military social workers will assist them to facilitate discussions in an unbiased and opened manner. They provide military social workers as mentors with the ability to give structure to the facilitation of team-building exercises or meetings that need to co-ordinate the business plans, budgets and performance reviews of about ten Staff Officers and nine officers in charge of health

centres and sick bays. These facilitation skills can also be utilised by Officers Commanding to support their service managers to negotiate and obtain logistical services from general support bases. Such facilitation of the budget, for example, will provide clarity on the topic and the flexibility of the facilitator will allow for open-ended questions. The facilitator utilises the facilitation skills to explore the topic of budgeting, yet be able to bring back members who lead the discussion away from the topic. Officers Commanding will be able to benefit from the application of facilitation skills, especially when applying them during emotionally and cognitively demanding meetings.

5.4.4 Problem-solving and decision-making skills

Problem-solving and decision-making skills overlap in their application. Decision-making is viewed as a step in the problem-solving process. Although the military social worker is regarded as the expert in these two skills, it is important that the self-determination rights of the OC remain the primary source of deciding how the problem should be resolved. The military social worker will activate and facilitate the problem-solving process, yet the responsibility to exercise choices resides with the OC. Garvin and Seabury (1995:297) encourage social workers to assess the abilities of their clients to use their logical processes to solve problems. This can be determined by utilising a rating list that directs questions pertaining to the problem. The social worker can ask open questions to generate ideas, interpret information and motivate the client to process the solutions. Mattaini (1997:57) identified the problem-solving steps that can be operationalised practically in the context of the specific problem to empower the client to deal independently with future problems. These steps specify the problem, identify the options and the consequences of each one, select the best available option, and evaluate the outcome. Germain and Gitterman (1996:46) observed that when individuals are allowed to make decisions that affect them personally, their self-esteem improves. The authors also observed that individuals' sense of competence is strengthened and their skills for future mastery maintained.

5.4.5 Interviewing skills

The core of social work is to involve the client in conversation in order to initiate the helping process. **Interviewing skills** are thus an important point of departure for the helping process to start. The following interviewing skills have been identified for

casework, group work and supervision in the literature, and can also be utilised in mentoring.

- Listening, which includes encouragement, clarification, paraphrasing, reflection, summarising and exploring silences (Mattaini 1997:125-126; De Jong & Berg, 2002:21; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:148-150; Johnson & Yanca, 2007:179).

- Questioning can be open ended, close ended, direct or indirect to enhance the relationship and communication (Miley et al., 1995:178; Hepworth, Rooney & Larsen, 1997:151-153; De Jong & Berg, 2002:22,26; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:147-148; Johnson & Yanca, 2007:180-181).

- Summarising is utilised to restate to clients their thoughts, actions and feelings (Miley et al., 1995:177; De Jong & Berg, 2002:27-29).

- Paraphrasing (Hepworth et al., 1997:149; De Jong & Berg, 2002:29) and

- Reflection (Ivey, 1994:119; De Jong & Berg, 2002:36; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:148).

In addition to the above interviewing skills, helping techniques should be identified to complement them as they cannot be implemented without the support of the following helping techniques:

- Support techniques that include acceptance, recognition, generalisation, validating the clients' feelings and clarification (Miley et al., 1995:98,176, 185,358).

- Confrontation (Neukrag, 1994:94-96; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:396,397).

- Roleplay (Neukrag, 1994:324; Germain & Gitterman, 1995:118; Hepworth et al., 1997:425-426).

- Brainstorming (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:437-438).

- Advice (Doyle, 1992:194; Germain & Gitterman, 1995:117; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:378-380).

5.4.6 Communication skills

Just as interviewing skills are imperative for the implementation of the helping process, so **communication skills** are at the heart of social work. All the literature

that the researcher consulted identified two components of communication, that is the verbal (messages with regards to feelings, cognitions and responses) and non-verbal components (eye contact, posture, voice). The literature refers further to the exchange of communication between a sender and receiver, and caters for possible distortions between sending off the message and the time before it reaches the receiver (Johnson & Yanca, 2007:168-169; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:139-145).

The Department of Corporate Communications is designated to deal with media briefings. Occasionally, however, Officers Commanding can address the media, for example, with regards to the launching of programmes (Masibambisane projects, World AIDS day, Women's day) in alignment with the Department of Social Development. Military social workers can do role reversals or role plays with Officers Commanding to prepare them with regards to clear and specific exchange of communication, avoiding words or giving examples that would be offensive or misunderstood by the public, guarding of tone of voice, body posture, overuse of phrases or clichés, and facial expressions.

Officers Commanding are exposed to an environment in the workplace that easily induces frustration which can in turn overflow into anger and conflict. This anger can either be expressed, suppressed, remain unexpressed or result in physical or emotional violence. Kilburg (2000:161-162) noticed that when anger is eventually expressed, it would be followed by withdrawal from any form of angry expression until the pattern repeats itself at some later stage. The withdrawal will take place as executives will question their own leadership expectation of perfect performance and forget that they are also prone to making mistakes. Rothwell (1996:23) links withdrawing from the communication process to type of leadership-, communication- and conflict management styles. The researcher is of the opinion that Officers Commanding themselves undergo periods of build up as they are exposed to changes in the organisation and several closely spaced deadlines. At times they have to be the bearers of negative messages because of personnel lay offs or budget cuts. Military social workers can utilise their communication skills to empower Officers Commanding to express their frustration in such as way as to prevent destructive episodes of open conflict or taking flight in addictions. Techniques such as introspection, reframing, validation of feelings, catharsis and confrontation can be utilised to raise awareness of what is happening with their emotions, thinking patterns

and responses. Their behavioural and response patterns towards themselves and other parties with whom they interact are analysed in order to establish new ways of expressing frustration and anger constructively. Managed self-talk and listing strong emotions on crisis cards might be a way of addressing these frustrations.

In a cross-cultural organisation it is also important that Officers Commanding learn how to join, socialise among and excuse themselves from cross-cultural small group discussions. Non-verbal communication of members in their units should be interpreted and understood in the context of a certain group's background. For example, one needs to understand that when certain groups express their welcome by means of a loud noise or praise singing, it should not be regarded as disrespectful when another group will only salute or shake hands. Sensitivity and respect is required with regard to differences in one's own culture in comparison to military culture. However, when appropriate, the maintenance of military culture should be communicated honestly and directly.

The view is often expressed that society presumes that it is easier for women than men to express their deep emotions. This is one of the gender differences and stereotypes that society has formed for men and women that is confirmed by Wilks (1998:32), who exposed the Venus and Mars myths that man are more inclined to be rational in comparison to women being emotional. When men express deep emotions, then some would judge them as either weak or not sufficiently masculine. But in their roles as Officers Commanding, they do at times experience certain traumas within their own family or that of their employees. In such circumstances communicating on an emotional level would be healthy and not regarded as weak or inappropriate. Military social workers are thus in a position to play a vital role to break down defences with regard to emotional communication and teach Officers Commanding to become emotionally intelligent and connect with their own emotions. On the other side, one needs to understand that female Officers Commanding themselves might not be in touch with emotional communication skills and their skills in this area too would need to be developed. In the same way that they are being taught how to connect emotionally, they should also be taught how to derole emotionally, especially after attending funerals of their employees in their capacity as the unit OC. Emotional intelligence as a communication skill is given a high priority by

Higgs and Dulewicz (2002:24). These authors recommend that mentors as well as protégés be equipped with the following emotional intelligence elements.

TABLE 5.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENT ELEMENTS

Serial Number	Emotional intelligent elements	Description of emotional intelligent elements
1	Self-awareness	Awareness of one's own feelings and ability to control them. Set belief in one's own ability to manage emotions and to control impact in a work environment.
2	Emotional resilience	Performing consistently in a range of situations under pressure and to adapt to appropriate behaviour. This includes the ability to retain focus in the face of personal criticism.
3	Motivation	Drive and energy to achieve results, to make an impact and balance short- and long-term goals.
4	Interpersonal sensitivity	Being sensitive to the needs of others and their perceptions when arriving at decisions.
5	Influence	The ability to persuade others to change a viewpoint, where necessary.
6	Intuitiveness	The ability to arrive at clear decisions and to drive their implementation when presented with incomplete or ambiguous information, using both logic and emotion.
7	Conscientiousness	The ability to display clear commitment to a course of action in the face of challenge and to match words with deeds.

Source: Adapted from Higgs & Dulewicz (2002:24)

It is important that, as much as the protégé should be equipped with emotional intelligent elements, the mentors themselves should cultivate them. Both mentor and protégé need to be able to deal with emotional aspects within the mentor relationship and having an understanding of emotional intelligence and being able to access the seven emotional intelligent elements in Table 5.3 can only strengthen the mentor-protégé relationship.

Whenever a social worker embarks on a social work-client relationship, there will be roles that will be required to ensure that the partnership relationship in casework is a positive experience for the client. These same roles will also be applicable in the mentor-protégé relationship, and will be highlighted.

5.5   ROLES OF MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS AS MENTORS

The current roles that military social workers perform are aligned with the demands of their stakeholders in the various service arms, the occupational environment, vision and mission, as well as strategic areas of the Directorate Social Work and SAMHS. In the context of a mentoring role, the aim and functions of mentorship, the needs/problems of the protégé, social work theories, models, approaches and methods would determine the roles to be performed in the helping process. Various authors, for example, Compton and Galaway (1989), Miley et al. (1995), Garvin and Seabury (1997), Sheafor and Horejsi (2003) and Johnson and Yanca (2007), reflect on several roles that a social worker can perform, yet the researcher will focus only on those roles that military social workers can utilise in their mentoring role.

5.5.1   Enabler role

Compton and Galaway (1989:49) present the enabler's role as consisting of intervention activities that are "directed toward assisting clients to find the coping strengths and resources within themselves to produce changes necessary for accomplishing", whereas Miley et al. (1995:17) describe an enabler as someone who consults with individuals and families to provide opportunities for clients to resolve challenges in social functioning. Garvin and Seabury (1997:313-314) support this description and emphasise further the empowerment role the enabler plays to assist the client towards maximum social functioning. Garvin and Seabury (1997) reflect on the difficulty of executing this role when the client is demoralised and does not have faith in his or her own abilities to change the problems or needs. The military social worker will have to keep this in mind as any change in any organisation can be demoralising. The mentoring process in itself can entail uncertainty for the protégé, who might be afraid that they might fail in this role or not be able to expose themselves in a mentor-protégé relationship. The military social worker will thus dig deep to enable the protégé to gain trust in the mentor-protégé relationship, operationalise problems into workable means, and create learning opportunities through which the protégé can experience skills application and gain confidence through positive feedback and recognition.

5.5.2 Educator role

Miley et al. (1995:23-25), Garvin and Seabury (1997:315-316) and Johnson and Yanca (2007:226) use the term "educator" interchangeably with "trainer, teacher or scholar", but the researcher's preference is for the term "educator". All these authors highlight the purpose of this role to develop the skills of the clients in order to enhance their life tasks and role performance. This demands that the military social worker should have a sound knowledge base of adequate training skills, role theory and the human development cycle. The military social worker should not forget that Officers Commanding also contribute in terms of their expertise, for example, the knowledge and skills obtained during completion of their civilian and military courses, and experiences gained in each job and rank they fulfilled in the SANDF.

The Directorate Social Work selects and trains its own military social workers to become supervisors. This supervision course contributes to ongoing development of military social workers' ability to educate and train other military social workers (Command Standing Work Procedure No 34/98, 1998). According to Miley et al. (1995:25), however, it is important that education should be supported by scientific procedures and that a proper assessment of the needs of the clients takes place and their learning styles determined. As already mentioned, military social workers have excellent knowledge of the assessment phase of case and group work and supervision, as well as tools that can assist in determining the needs of the protégé. The military social worker will reflect at all times on the principles of adult education and individualise the mentorship programme. Lewis (1996:161-162) provides a very useful tool, the Kolb learning cycle (see also Spangenberg, 1990:73-76), consisting of four components to describe the learning style of the learner, for example, activist, reflector, theoretician and pragmatist. This cycle can be useful in determining what training aids, resources and models of learning can be integrated in alignment with the learning style of the learner and to promote their personal and professional growth. Officers Commanding (OCs) can be involved in personal and management development workshops such as supervisors' training programmes and parental skills training.

5.5.3 Change agent role

Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:65,66) link this particular role with establishing change within the person and his or her environment, for example, the person him/herself,

his/her workplace, community or other larger systems. As already mentioned, to date the researcher has not come across the active implementation of a mentorship programme for OCs in the SAMHS. As change agent, the researcher would utilise this role to influence the Human Resource Department with regard to updating of personnel development policy. The role as change agent can influence the Joint Senior Command and Staff Course personnel who co-ordinate the curriculum of OCs. The climate can also be set for the enrolment of Officers Commanding into mentorship programmes after their promotions into OC positions.

The researcher is realistic enough to realise that military social workers per se do not have the authority on decision-making pertaining to the implementation of post-course mentoring programmes for Officers Commanding. However, their role as change agents and their knowledge of the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C), should contribute positively towards raising awareness of the benefits of implementing post-course mentoring programmes for Officers Commanding. The approach of organisation development lends itself positively to this role of change agent especially, when task committees need to be bonded to form a team, multi-cultural conflict needs to be defused, or any injustices or discrimination needs to be unpacked. The military social workers will have to utilise their problem-solving, decision-making, negotiating and role-modelling skills. What the military social workers mediate or advocate as part of their change agent roles, they must be able to live. They will have to be familiar with the dynamics of change and the nature of human resistance when they are practising these roles. Positive feedback is vital to act as a catalyst for continued practising of changed behaviour.

5.5.4 Broker role

Johnson and Yanca (2007:226) described the broker as someone who enables people to reach appropriate services by providing information after assessing the needs of the individual and the nature of the resources available. The importance of follow-up services is highlighted by Miley et al. (1995:21) and Garvin and Seabury (1997:317-318). The researcher has emphasized that military social workers will pay attention to the mentoring role in the context of their professional knowledge, skills and values, as well as practice experience gained in the military environment. Meaning, the boundaries of their roles will be within the framework of social work.

Should a protégé be selected for the mentoring process, but their needs or problems cannot be dealt with by the military social worker, then the response should be professional and ethical. The best practice would be to refer the protégé to the appropriate person within the multi-professional team or a senior person within the line function of the protégé, for example, another senior Officer Commanding. When military social workers are the referral agents, it will be their responsibility to ensure that the protégé did receive satisfactory service from the source to whom they were referred.

5.5.5 Mediator role

Garvin and Seabury (1997:320) describe the purpose of mediation as being to improve existing connections and relationships that the client has with resources in their environment. These authors emphasise that the mediator must be able to work with both the client and the resource. Compton and Galaway (1989) provide the researcher with a description that highlights the difference between mediation and advocacy. Mediation is presented as the resolution of a dispute through give and take on both sides, whereas with advocacy the emphasis is placed on a win for the client or clients are assisted in winning on their own behalf. The researcher's practice experience has taught her that this role demands a lot of tolerance, diplomacy, time and effective conflict-resolution and communication skills. These qualities and skills are required because the agenda of both parties requires that they secure a win in their own right. The neutral role of the social worker is of the essence to create trust and credibility between both parties, as distrust or suspicions of favouritism can lead to any party withdrawing from participating in the mediation process. Officers Commanding deployed in peace-keeping missions on international soil can benefit from having learned this role should they ever land in a situation where they will have to negotiate peace between the local population and South African soldiers in the event a misunderstanding.

5.5.6 Workload manager role

Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:62-63) describe the purpose of this role as having to provide an efficient service to the client and be responsible to the employing organisation by ensuring a balance in obligations between the client and the organisation. They identify the functions under this role as work planning, time management, quality assurance monitoring and information processing. Work

planning ensures that the social workers assess own their workload and prioritise according to importance and urgency. Work planning thus also requires excellent administrative skills.

Time management demands that the social worker be aware of the working hours and prioritise appointments with clients accordingly and learn how to utilise the organisation's computer and other technological resources as these technologies contribute to speedy execution of administrative tasks and to rendering a quality service. Quality assurance monitoring is implemented when social workers assess their service delivery by means of reviewing their records, conducting job performance evaluations and participating in review conferences with colleagues or volunteers. This role is applicable when the military social worker assists the OC in dealing with role conflicts, stress management, Staff Officers performance assessments, problem-solving and decision-making requiring organising skills.

5.5.7 Staff developer role

This role can at times overlap with the educator's role as the staff developer's role will result in educating the individual in order to establish growth and development. Weinbach (1998:161) confirms that the staff developer role "contains some elements of both education and training", though the emphasis of education is on the immediate problem areas. This role also emphasises the development of an individual by means of personnel development methods. Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:63-64) categorised this role as having four focus areas. They are employee orientation and training, personnel management, supervision and consultation. The OC will not orientate, train or deal with personnel management of new staff as this would be the execution area of the Human Resource Department and the Staff Officer under whom the new employee resides. However, the OC himself will have to be orientated in his new job with regards to job expectations, area and tasks of responsibilities, organisation policies and procedures. Officers Commanding will have first-hand experience of the mentoring process and will be in the best position to advise their Staff Officers on the importance of identifying their sub-ordinates for mentoring, especially those who have the potential and need to be prepared for higher positions in the organisation.

The Officer Commanding (OC) in charge of Staff Officers will have to exercise some degree of supervision over them, apart from Staff Officers' work obligations been overseen by their respective Directorates. The military social worker can thus assist Officers Commanding with regards to the utilisation of basic adult education skills to assist them in monitoring their delegations to Staff Officers. It is important that Officers Commanding understand the importance of peer consultation and that they select their peers properly, as this is a continued source of support after the mentorship process is terminated.

5.6   CONCLUSION

In this chapter the knowledge, values and skills of social workers have been discussed from a generalist perspective in order to transfer their application to a specialist area regarding the field of mentoring. The knowledge component reflected those areas that will inform the military social worker about the intervention processes of casework and group work, supervision, and the experiences and context of the client. The researcher applied the adult learning principles by proceeding from what is known (casework, group work and supervision) to the unknown (mentoring).

It was important to start with the intervention processes in social work service delivery and supervision, as these methods and functions in social work are what is known to the chief military social worker. Supervision was discussed not only as a process, but more detailed information was also provided. Supervision as an element of social work staff development revealed more similarities than differences to the nature of mentoring. Now that the researcher has determined that military social workers do have a solid foundation of knowledge, skills and values to mentor the OC, the next chapter will shed more light on substantiating the contention that there are more similarities than differences between the intervention processes, supervision and mentoring.

Six basic adult learning principles highlighted the involvement of the supervisee (protégé) in the learning process. These practice principles further challenged military social workers to be self-critical with regard to practice evaluation and to continuously promote effectiveness and efficiency in their roles as mentors to Officers Commanding.

Core social work values have been promoted. These values are significant and should be internalised and applied in practice by social workers. Both micro and macro skills have been elaborated upon because they are necessary for competent practice. Competent practice requires that the military social workers integrate their knowledge, values and skills to the benefit of the social work profession.

The roles (enabler, educator, workload manager and staff developer) of the protégé make it possible for them to participate and make choices with regard to their own needs or problems. Social workers perform various roles in casework, group work and supervision. Only those roles that would be utilised in the context of mentoring have been highlighted in this chapter.

This chapter has shown that casework, group work and supervision are executed according to a well-structured process. The military social worker (who has completed the military supervision course) has knowledge of the intervention processes and supervision, and it is important that they too have knowledge of the mentoring process. Chapter Six will therefore address the nature and content of the mentoring process to ensure that chief military social workers execute their role as mentors to Officers Commanding in the SAMHS effectively and efficiently.

CHAPTER SIX

THE MENTORING PROCESS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

Mentoring, like the casework, group work and supervision processes, involves different phases in the intervention process. The mentoring process differs from, but is also similar to, other social work intervention processes and that of supervision. The similarities are evident in the phases and the interaction between two parties, for example, the supervisor and supervisee in supervision, and the social worker with an individual, family or couple in the casework intervention process. In comparison, the mentoring process involves the mentor and protégé. The mentor is described by Barcus and Wilkinson (1995:20-16) as the person who is traditionally more senior than the protégé. The mentor is responsible for guiding the protégé through his or her career by giving advice built on the mentor's knowledge, position and experience. The protégé, on the other hand, is the inexperienced person who is assigned to the mentor (Parsloe, 1995:15). In this research the military social worker as mentor is considered to be experienced in the field of human relationship skills, especially micro skills, and can provide Officers Commanding (the protégés) with the necessary support to enhance their human relationship skills, for example intra- and interpersonal relationship skills, conflict management and time-management skills. The Officers Commanding (OC), however, do not come like empty vessels to the mentor-protégé relationship, but bring their own competencies in other areas, for example, leadership, operations and strategic planning.

This chapter will focus on the mentoring phases by discussing the different phases in the mentoring process. For this purpose, Sweeney's (2003a:3-4) mentoring process (see Table 6.1: Different mentoring processes) has been in order to discuss the mentoring process comprehensively, as this is the overall emphasis of this chapter. This chapter will provide the military social worker with knowledge on how to execute the mentoring process in the pre-planning, planning, middle and ending phases. This chapter concludes by comparing the differences and similarities of the intervention processes in social work and supervision, as discussed in Chapter Five with the mentoring process. The next section will discuss the mentoring processes of various authors.

6.2   DIFFERENT MENTORING PROCESSES

The mentoring process is characterized as having different stages/phases by various authors such as Koonce (1994:37-40), Peters (1996:41), Chao (1997:16), Bell (2000:54-56), Prinsloo (2001:33) and Sweeney (2003a:3-4). The mentor and protégé engage in different activities at each stage/phase of the process. These mentoring processes are illustrated in Table 6.1: Different mentoring processes, which serve as the point of departure for the discussion of the mentoring process.

TABLE 6.1: DIFFERENT MENTORING PROCESSES

Authors	Phases/Stages of mentoring	Mentoring activities
Koonce, 1994:37-40	Pre-coaching	• Parties consisting of protégé's boss, protégé and coach meet. • Goals, time frames and assessment schedules are established. • The boss commits to his support role.
	Data gathering	• Confidential interviews are conducted with protégé's colleagues, boss and sub-ordinates (360-degree assessment). • Psychometric tests completed to obtain info re strengths, interests, working styles and approaches to problem-solving and decision-making.
	Coaching	• Relationship building. • Meet for 7 months during working hours. • Deals with issues that surface during in-house interviews and assessment process. • Feedback based on assessment. • Action plan executed in terms of behaviour change and behaviour sustainability. • Extra reading material to sustain self-awareness and self-monitoring of behaviour.
	Follow-up	• Give protégé a break after 7 months to monitor independent functioning. • Self-reflection is encouraged. • Follow-up and consult for further maintenance.
Peters, 1996:41	The contract	• Creating a contract and reach consensus with regards to working partnership, roles, results, time and energy that will be invested.
	The discussion	• The coach and protégé (pair) analyse the 360-degree feedback. • Explore with regards to organisational goals. • Contextualise and compile key themes.

Authors	Phases/Stages of mentoring	Mentoring activities
	The plan	• Compile themes in terms of specific behavioural goals and involve boss of protégé in refinement process. • Determine time frame and location of coaching sessions.
	The ongoing session	• Agreement on meeting once a month to review progress and ideas for action if needed. • Assess contract and goals and, if needed, review them based on new information or insights.
	The follow-up and reassess-ment	• After 6 to 8 months, a formal progress review is conducted. • Additional training in communication and other skills are provided if required. • Protégé proceeds to work independently from coach.
Chao, 1997:16	Initiation	• Relationship begins with the first 6 months to a year.
	Cultivation	• Lasts from 2 to 5 years. • Relationship described as intense.
	Separation.	• Over 6 months to 2 years the relationship separates. • Structural and psychological separation occur.
	Termination	• Relationship changes from a mentorship to a collegial or peer-like relationship.
Sweeney, 2003a:3-4	Introduction	• A connection is created. • Backgrounds, interests and personal information are shared.
	Foundation	• The purpose of mentor relationship is clarified and consensus reached. • Mentor-protégé roles, relationship, expectations and process are explained.
	Orientation	• Stress is reduced and team feeling is increased. • If required, orientation to workplace geographical area, new job responsibilities, work processes, competencies and expectations.
	Collaboration	• Prepare and plan as a team for protégé assignment. • Mutual sharing of ideas, discover work flow, time and paper work management. • Collaboration with regards to work effectiveness, learning and development.
	Problem-solving	• Joint analysis of issues and problems. • Development of options, strategies, plans for implementation and evaluation of results.
	Personal framework	• Building strong mentor-protégé relationship. • Reinforce protégés self-esteem and confidence. • Explore each others' dreams, views and strengths as employees and persons.

Authors	Phases/Stages of mentoring	Mentoring activities
	Professional framework	• Planning activities as a sequence. • Assessing results and adjusting activities to increase effectiveness. • Focusing on accomplishing the purpose of the plan.
	Professional development	• Mutual feedback and support for learning. • Effectiveness is the norm.
	Transition	• Peer relationship develops. • Independence is promoted. • Links protégé with other staff and creates team concept for support.

Most of the authors in Table 6.1 have identified four to five phases; however, Sweeney (2003a:3-4) identified nine stages and this could be the result of extensive research and, consequently, the way in which the mentoring process has evolved. Nevertheless, the processes of all these authors show commonalities in that they appear to have a beginning, middle and ending phase, which is similar to the case work intervention process. These authors also emphasise the importance of the mentor relationship and the fact that this relationship should be participatory, trustworthy and mature. These four mentoring processes were selected to illustrate (in Table 6.1) different mentoring processes and how they have expanded from 1994 to 2003, as well as their similarities to what is shown in Figure 5.1: Phases of the social work intervention process.

It is imperative that the military social worker should have knowledge of, and insight into, the various factors that impact on the mentoring process. These factors will most certainly impact on the interactions between the mentor and protégé, the process itself and the effectiveness of the implementation of the mentoring activities. Military social workers must take cognizance of the mentoring aims, the target groups, requirements when launching a mentoring programme, roles of a mentor, administrative tasks and alignment with policy. The Command SWP/6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2) of section 5.2.1.3, the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) and the South African Naval Order on Military Training for Officers: Part 2 (2003:1-7, Appendix A-1 to A-4) will assist with such compliance.

Although the literature discussing the mentoring stages/phases does not refer to a pre-planning, planning, middle and ending phase, the researcher took the initiative to divide Sweeney's (2003a) phases under these headings, based on her knowledge of the processes of the methods in social work and supervision and transferring it to the mentoring process of Sweeney (2003a:3-4). The following phase will be the first phase in the mentoring process and discussed as the pre-planning phase. The pre-planning phase will include the goals and co-ordination of the mentoring programme, whereas the planning phase will include the introduction, foundation, orientation and collaboration phase.

6.3 THE PRE-PLANNING PHASE

6.3.1 Organisational goals and objectives

The mentorship programme must fit into the organisational structure and policy supporting such a programme for it to be successfully implemented. The SANDF has already, through its Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C), indicated its commitment to the application of the mentorship programme in the various service arms (SA Army, SA Navy, SA Air force and SAMHS) by giving this instruction to be executed by the various service arms. In SAMHS the Command SWP/6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2) does exist but, as mentioned, in the Western Cape this guideline as well as the policy instruction from the DOD, have not to date been implemented on the ground. The SA Navy (SAN) appears to be in the forefront with their visible implementation of the policy instruction of the DOD. The SAN does not just have its documents (Director Naval Personnel Naval Order on Mentorship, 2001:1-8, Appendix A-1 to C-2 and South African Naval Order on Military Training for Officers: Part 2 (2003:1-7, Appendix A-1 to A-4) in writing, but the orders are actively applied in a structured way amongst their staff. It is thus important for the implementation of a mentorship programme to succeed that there is full commitment from the executive management of the SAMHS.

Matulovich (1996:20) stresses the importance of being conscious of the organisational goals and objectives that must be achieved through mentorship. This will ensure that the correct measurement tools are utilised to monitor and evaluate whether the mentorship programme has set out what it undertook to achieve in

alignment with organisational goals and objectives. Military social workers should thus have knowledge of how the mentoring process will fit into the staff development programme of SAMHS and need to consider the organisational goals and objectives.

The objectives of the Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:3-4) are:

- "to facilitate the successful incorporation of members and employees into the organization and to ensure the systematic transfer of skills, knowledge, behaviour and attitudes from senior to junior employees.

- to create capability and competence which will ensure that members are fully functional.

- to meet increasing demands of the organization for capable and competent personnel regardless of race, gender and disability.

- to provide members and employees with abilities and prepare them for future work demands thereby ensuring capable and flexible Human Resources in the long term, and

- to enhance the development of commanders'/managers' capability to coach and facilitate learning as part of their leadership role."

The objectives of mentorship in the Western Province Medical Command (Now Area Military Health Unit Western Cape) No 6/97 (1997: Appendix A-1) is:

- "to ensure an effective mentoring and on-the job-training programme are in place and the effective implementation thereof by all staff-officers in their areas of responsibility.

- to ensure that knowledge production and distribution in the SANDF reflects the diversity of the SANDF and that of the entire South African society.

- to ensure that training builds up on the experiences already held by the members of the SANDF.

- to provide equal opportunities to previously disadvantaged members.

- to help build a SANDF whose members are always eager to learn from their experiences and those of others, and

- to maximize mutual understanding and promote high standard of efficiency, discipline, hard work and quest for success."

It is clear from the above objectives of the DOD Policy on Mentorship (1999) and the SWP No 6/97 (1997) that the SANDF focuses mostly on the career function of mentoring. It is known that the career function of mentoring links with the technical expertise that the mentor should have to mentor the protégé (Russel & Adams, 1997:2). This function is most likely to be performed by a senior line function manager of the protégé. However, the mentoring activities (see section 6.3.5 on the training of mentors) of the DOD Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:6) cater for the psycho-social and role modelling function of mentoring. It is important that military social workers understand the objectives of the organisation for mentoring, and be able to link their knowledge and skills in social work with these organisational objectives for mentoring. Otherwise, military social workers will not be able to market their role as mentors and the organisation will not value the contributions that military social workers want to make. However, the mentoring activities to be performed by mentors in the DOD Policy for mentorship (1999) correspond well with the psycho-social and role modelling functions in mentoring (Russel & Adams, 1997:2). The attributes and characteristics required by a mentor (DOD Policy on Mentorship: DOD Instruction, 1999:5,6 and Command SWP No 6/97(1997:A-2) further match the knowledge, values and skills of social workers (see sections 5.2., 5.3 and 5.4).

The next section will discuss the activities that need to be planned and organised, before the actual mentorship programme can be launched in the SAMHS.

6.3.2 Co-ordination of the mentorship programme

A co-ordinator must be appointed to co-ordinate the method of mentoring which is directed at the development of staff. Fisher (1994:30) and Matulovich (1996:20) advise that the function of the co-ordinator can at best be executed by the human resource manager or the training and development co-ordinator of the organisation in which the mentorship programme is going to be implemented. This would mean that in the SAMHS, the Human Resource Staff Officer on unit level would occupy this umbrella position and liaise between military social workers in specialist posts such as workplace, training or personnel development and other military social workers. These specialist post military social workers would thus perform the role of co-

ordinator on behalf of the other military social workers. The co-ordinator would perform the following functions as identified by Matulovich (1996:21):

- "determines the organizational readiness for mentorship.

- obtains the identification particulars of the protégés.

- selects the mentors.

- supports the mentors and protégés in the compilation of their mentorship contract.

- organizes the training of the mentors, protégés and other management personnel involved in the mentoring process.

- intervenes when problems occur in the mentor-protégé-relationship.

- provides contractual feedback on the progress of the mentorship programme and

- monitors and evaluate the outcome of the mentorship programme."

The above shows similarities with the steps that the Command SWP No 6/97 (1997: Appendix A-1) identified before a mentoring programme can be launched.

The researcher is of the opinion that the involvement of other senior executive personnel concerning progress feedback in the mentoring process of the OC should be contracted with the OC. This type of feedback in itself can jeopardise the trust relationship between the mentor and protégé. Therefore the military social workers should be transparent in how they deal with feedback outside the mentor-protégé relationship to prevent tension in the mentor-protégé relationship and compromising ethical behaviour. However, the input of senior executive management who supervise and monitor the growth of the OC, as well as fellow Staff Officers being employed as the Officers Commanding sub-ordinates, can provide valuable information to the mentor that can contribute to the growth and development of the OC.

Fisher (1994:31) points out that the productive time of employees is the biggest resource that must be made available by the organisation and therefore it requires proper co-ordination to ensure that a well-planned **schedule** is drawn up to execute the different aspects in the mentoring process. These schedules must be indicated,

for example, for the selection, induction and training of mentors and protégés and proper exit processes (Lewis, 1996:179). These schedules ensure that time is utilised productively in the mentoring process and that value is added to the organisation through the active participation of the protégé in the mentoring programme. The selection of the mentors and the protégés will now be discussed.

6.3.3 Selection of the mentors and protégés

The pre-planning phase of the mentoring process is further structured by the selection of the mentor and protégé. Selection must occur within the framework of organisational goals and objectives. It is important that the military social worker clarifies the purpose and functions of the mentoring process. Congruence should exist between the understanding of the process by the military social worker and Officers Commanding (OCs). Such an understanding will prevent unrealistic expectations of the OC in terms of rapid career advancement, automatic selection as a fast tracker, or selection as line-function mentor to other protégés in the organisation as part of their leadership role.

The following Tables 6.2 to 6.5, further provide the co-ordinator with information on how to select the mentor and protégé to create a successful mentor-protégé partnership relationship. Table 6.2 will enable the co-ordinator to compile a profile of what they require of a mentor and provide potential mentors with a standard to measure their suit-ability to mentor. The characteristics of a mentor are illustrated in Table 6.2 as follows:

TABLE 6.2: CHARACTERISTICS OF A MENTOR

Serial Number	Characteristics of mentor
1	Supportive
2	Patient
3	Respected
4	People-orientated
5	Encouragement/motivator
6	Respectful of others
7	Teacher/trainer
8	Self-confident
9	Achiever
10	Values the organisation and its work

Source: Adapted from Shea (2003:173)

Shea (2003:173) only mentions the characteristics, whereas the Command SWP No 6/97 (1997: Appendix A-1, A-2) elaborates upon it by stating that the mentor should have:

- "a sound and seasoned knowledge of SAMHS and the specific area of responsibility in which mentoring will take place.
- the ability to encourage, motivate, create an open atmosphere to develop trust.
- good interpersonal skills for counselling and coaching/mentoring.
- a good record of developing people.
- possess a wide range of skills and understanding to pass on, and
- an interest in mentoring and a willingness to spend time in doing it."

The characteristics of the mentor mentioned in Table 6.2 are important traits for the military social worker to possess. As a mentor various roles are performed and these roles demand being patient, supportive, respectful and confident. Officers Commanding bring their own experience and knowledge to the mentor-protégé relationship. Hence, it is important that military social workers as mentors respect their life experiences, knowledge and skills. As mentor the role of trainer and teacher will be invaluable. The trainer or teacher characteristic will also benefit the mentor to activate the protégés learning goals and to facilitate their achievement. These characteristics also overlap with the expectations that protégés hold of mentors, clarification of the social work practice principles in social work (see Table 5.2) and the principles which underlie basic adult learning (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:176-193). The characteristics of the protégé are illustrated in Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3: CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROTÉGÉ

Serial Number	Characteristics of a protégé
1	Listener
2	Act on advice
3	Meets commitment
4	Check ego at the door - ask for and be open to feedback and criticism
5	Be open-minded and willing to change
6	Motivated
7	Trustworthy
8	Self- aware
9	Understands programme objectives/ processes

Source: Adapted from Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004:47)

The characteristics of the protégé shown in Table 6.3 should be acknowledged by the military social worker as mentor. These characteristics can either be discussed as expectations by the mentor or protégé, or they can be incorporated into the evaluation and feedback sessions. In this manner the protégé can spent time on introspection of their personal or work goals and set new goals or investigate the reasons why certain of the above characteristics have not developed. The mentor can support or redirect certain goals to develop these characteristics, if they are not yet part of the protégés character.

Table 6.4: What protégés want/expect from a mentor, will provide information to the mentor about the expectations of the protégé and assess whether they can achieve them, or whether the expectations should be revisited. It also stimulates thinking as to what the mentor should not expect from the protégé.

TABLE 6.4: WHAT MENTEES (PROTÉGÉS) WANT/EXPECT FROM A MENTOR

Serial Number	Wants/Expectations
1	Encouragement
2	Support
3	Honesty
4	Candid information and advice
5	Holistic picture of the organisation
6	Honest appraisal of capabilities
8	Availability of time without interruptions
9	Guidance

Source: Shea (2003:172)

Table 6.4: What mentors often want/expect from a protégé, will provide information to the protégé about the expectations of the mentor and assess whether they can achieve them, or whether the expectations should be revisited. Table 6.5 will show what the mentor expects from the protégé.

The information provided in Tables 6.2 to 6.5 with regards to the characteristics and wants/expectations of mentor/protégés are helpful to the co-ordinator, as well as to both the mentor and protégé. Each of them can utilise this information to determine their own goals for mentoring and to discuss the differences and commonalities of how they view the ground rules of the mentoring process. The wants/expectations provide a point of departure to establish the mentoring relationship, getting to know

one another and asking questions. Information about what can be expected from the mentor and protégé also remove uncertainties and allow both to settle into the mentoring process. It would also enable the mentor to assess his/her own agenda for becoming a mentor and whether he or she is motivated to commit to addressing the protégés' expectations.

TABLE 6.5: WHAT MENTORS OFTEN WANT/EXPECT FROM A PROTÉGÉ

Serial Number	Wants/Expectations
1	Initiative in revealing their relevant needs and aspirations
2	Careful listening
3	A focus on solving problems
4	Patience
5	Candour, honest feedback and discussion
6	Punctuality and consistency in attending meetings
7	Willingness to incorporate appropriate changed behaviour
8	Alertness to valuable inputs from other sources
9	Openness to new ideas

Source: Shea (2003:173)

Military social workers need to prepare themselves for the fact that in this phase of sharing experiences and information the OC might explore the mentoring experiences of military social workers. Military social workers should be prepared to answer truthfully. It is important that in the same way that potential line function Officers Commanding (OCs) receive training on their roles as mentors, so military social workers likewise undergo in-service training as a group in this regard. Military social workers will be able to refer extensively to their social work training as generalist and occupational military practitioners and the similarities of the case work and supervision process with the mentoring process. Such motivation combined with an in-service training programme on mentorship programmes should provide sufficient information to sell the competencies of military social workers as mentors to OCs. This information is important to the Officers Commanding as they must feel comfortable with the military social workers' mentoring capabilities and be able to accept or reject mentoring. The provision of a Curriculum Vita to the OC can be utilised as a source of information that can enhance the trust relationship between the military social worker and the OC and facilitate the getting-to-know process.

The orientation of the mentor and protégé will now be reflected upon.

6.3.4 Orientation of the mentors and protégés

According to Meyer and Fourie (2002:2-3), it is beneficial when potential mentors and protégés nominate and volunteer themselves, as this also demonstrates their commitment to the mentorship programme. They suggest joint induction training for mentors and protégés as such an arrangement will provide valuable opportunities for relationship building, and creating boundaries in terms of existing relationships to encompass the roles of mentor and protégé. The researcher's own co-ordinating and programme implementation experience over the past 15 years in SAMHS as military social worker working with senior management on unit level are all supporting factors in the call for a process of specific marketing to sensitise OCs with regards to joint induction training with other military social workers as mentors. The researcher is also of the opinion that the sceptical view amongst senior executives in the SAMHS when it comes to their development by the multi-professional team also makes this sensitising of OCs important. Olesen (1996:25) supports the researcher's notion in that she affirms that top executives do not change overnight, even when they are convinced that coaching is a necessity. She motivates her observation by noting that executives are "more reluctant to bare their innermost insecurities to a complete stranger, or, worse yet, someone who works just down the hall." Military social workers have to be aware of the fact that OCs did not assume their positions by focusing on their weaknesses, and therefore to enrol them in joint induction training is a definite challenge. The very fact that a DOD mentorship policy exists, as well as a unit mentorship guideline on unit level for the Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (not yet implemented) might be proof enough of the resistance perhaps among some top-level, middle and lower-level management. This leads to employees in the SAMHS not being exposed to development that could impact on their intra- and interpersonal development. It is for this reason that the Matulovich's view (1996:22) is supported that during the orientation phase both mentors and protégés be informed with regards to:

- "The reason for selection as a candidate for the mentoring programme.

- The advantages of the programme explained.

- The organisation's expectations explained for example in terms of time, commitment, career path, and

- The opportunity to voice expectations, objections, fears or concerns that protégés might have regarding the mentoring process."

This information will contribute to a reduction of resistance and reluctance to disclose among Officers Commanding with regard to the criteria demands of such a mentorship programme. Botha (2000:139) highlights the importance of providing protégés with a portrait of both their strengths and weaknesses, as well as the areas for development during this selection and training stage in the pre-planning phase of the mentoring process. It is also important that mentors and protégés fit the attributes of a mentor and protégé.

6.3.5 Training of the mentors

Chapter Five reflected on the requirements that military social workers should already possess in order to mentor Officers Commanding in the SAMHS. However, not all military social workers are trained in supervision, and it is essential that once they have qualified in the military social work supervision course, they continue to refresh their supervision knowledge and skills. Not only should this be applicable for supervision, but in all other areas that require excellence in social work service delivery. This section under training will focus on training pertaining to mentoring functions, types of mentoring, differences and similarities of mentoring with coaching, counselling, therapy and other staff development methods. In this section the researcher provides the necessary information for ongoing training of chief military social workers as mentors.

6.3.5.1 Functions in mentoring

The military social worker should be trained in the **functions** of mentoring in order to align it with the organisational goals and objectives.

They should be aware that mentoring focuses both on **career and psycho-social functions** and that their roles should be marketed within the boundaries of these functions to avoid misrepresenting their roles and creating a false sense of expectations of what they can offer to Officers Commanding. A third function is

referred to as the **role modelling function**. The following mentoring functions will provide a clear platform to the role of the military social worker as mentor.

- **Career functions** focus on the enhancement of the career advancement of the protégé which emphasises activities such as providing the protégé with sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection and challenging assignments (Russel & Adams, 1997:2).

- The **psycho-social function** in contrast serves to enhance the protégé's sense of competence, identity and work-role effectiveness. Psycho-social activities include role modelling, acceptance and confirmation, counselling and friendship (Russel & Adams, 1997:2).

- Scandura and Ragins (1993:254) found **role modelling** as a distinct function of mentoring and separate from the psycho-social function. Sosik and Godshalk (2000:104) identify role modelling activities as involving behaviour and attributions with protégés to identify and emulate mentors who are trusted, respected, possess referent power and maintain high standards.

The following mentoring activities mentioned below overlap with the above-mentioned mentoring functions. A discussion of the links between the mentoring functions and mentoring activities will follow once the mentoring activities have been identified.

6.3.5.2   Activities in mentoring

The mentoring activities are divided into three categories of activities in the DOD Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:5-6):

- **Transmission of skills** (skills transfer and people management);

- **Personal support** (psychological support, confidence building, assistance with personal life);

- **Organisational intervention** (protection through provision of supportive work environment, access to resources, posting/promotion.

The **career function** (career advancement, sponsorship, coaching) and **organisational intervention activity** (supportive work environment) on mentorship

show similarities. This function and activity are focused solely on advancing the career of the protégé and appear to be more technically orientated than human orientated. In contrast with the career function and organisational intervention activity, the **transmission skills and the personal support activities** show a resemblance with the **psycho-social function**.

It is necessary to have knowledge about the boundaries and the restrictions of these functions and activities in order to remain ethical. Because of the ethical requirements in social work and boundary practice within the area of social work service delivery, the military social worker must refrain from executing the **career function**. However, the military social worker should have knowledge about the content of the career function and organisational intervention activity, as the Officers' Commanding social and work functioning cannot be managed in isolation from each other. The military social worker should render a holistic mentoring service to the OC and realise that career unhappiness might impact on the psycho-social function.

It should also be taken into consideration that the manner in which military social workers understands the description of **organisational intervention** is more holistic than that of the DOD's Policy on Mentorship (1999), which refers to the organisation intervention activity. The way the DOD interprets **organisational intervention activity** is that it focuses solely on the employees' career advancement. Solutions are provided to address obstacles in the way of organisational advancement. The employee is aligned with resources to become promoted in the SANDF. In contrast to his, military social workers' understanding of organisational intervention is more comprehensive, as stipulated in the Social Work Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998), in the section describing the activities of workplace intervention.

Workplace intervention deals with the role of the military social worker to assist the military organisation to establish processes and structures that would promote optimal productivity, high morale and the social well-being of its employees. Organisational intervention will further align the social worker's thinking, with the way in which French and Bell (1990:17) describe organisation development, namely as a top-management-supported effort to improve an organisation's problem-solving and renewal processes through a more effective and collaborative diagnosis and management of organisational culture. Within this context, organisation development

would address interventions in the area of creating effective work teams or sound intercultural relationships.

Military social workers should therefore be careful not just to impose their own knowledge, skills and attitudes on mentorship, but should critically analyse the requirements, expectations and their own abilities to meet the demands in question of the DOD Policy on Mentorship (1999). Based on these similarities and differences in understanding the functions and mentoring activities, military social workers must develop an insight about their restrictions in the field of mentoring. Other options should be introduced to the Officers Commanding (OC) in terms of referrals to the multi-professional team, for example, the line-function OC as mentor, or the industrial psychologist who can in fact deal with other areas of expertise within these mentoring functions. Military social workers should also be orientated about how other concepts such as coaching and counselling overlap with, and differ from, mentoring. These similarities and differences will now be discussed.

6.3.5.3 Differences and similarities between mentoring, coaching and counselling

The clarification of the differences and similarities in the **concepts of mentoring, coaching** and **counselling** is necessary to determine what is the most suitable way the needs of the OC can be addressed. As already mentioned, Parsloe (1995:73) describes mentoring as "one step removed from the direct line management responsibility and concerned with the long-term acquisition and application of skills in a developing career by a form of advising and counselling". The Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:2) refers to mentoring as "the process of using specially trained individuals to provide guidance and advice that will help to develop the careers of the protégés allocated to them". Both of these definitions emphasise the role of advisors in terms of the protégés career development, whereas the definition of mentoring in the South African Naval Order on Military Training for Officers: Part 2 (2003:A-3) emphasises the role of the mentor in terms of providing direction, goal setting, guidance, support, and creating learning and developmental opportunities for the protégé. Table 6.6: Dimensions of mentoring, coaching and counselling, illustrates the differences and similarities in the concepts of mentoring, coaching and counselling.

TABLE 6.6: DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING, COACHING AND COUNSELLING

DIMENSIONS OF PROCESS				
Process	**Time**	**Content**	**Focus**	**Typical operations**
MENTORING	Long term	Career, family role, current performance that is future-related	Developmental. Covers all life structures: current and future	Creating career opportunities Encouraging extensive programmes of development for example degree programmes, certification, professional licensing Fostering and supporting career decisions
COACHING	Short to medium term	Job-related learning	Learning and development for current or future job	Helping improve or transform individual and team performance through learning and workspace design
COUNSELLING	Varies: typically short term	Remedying motivational or attitude problems	Remedial or developmental Any area of a person's life space	Active listening Exploring feelings and Ideas Breaking frames of reference Examining values, goals and variables that create unsatisfactory or satisfactory personal outcomes

Source: Mink, Owen & Mink (1993:22)

Mink et al. (1993:22-23) show (Table 6.6) that the mentoring processes clearly indicate long-term intervention in comparison with coaching and counselling, which are mostly short term. However, counselling can vary in that it has the possibility to become long term, depending on the problem. The **mentoring** content almost encompasses both coaching and counselling content in that it is very broad and includes the functioning of a person as a whole in terms of his/her career, family and work roles. It should, however, be noted that **coaching** is very specifically related to skills development that would enable the employee to do his/her specific job. The coaching dimension would best be executed by a line-function specialist when it deals with technical skills development. For example, an employer can orientate a new employee in his/her specific job or empower different team members to perform their respective roles competently in order for the team to achieve its task team goals. Coaching is more closely linked to the skills development activity that would resort under the educational function in supervision. In the area of conceptual and human relationship skills, military social workers will be able to perform the role of

coach in that military social workers are trained in applying the systems approach competently that would benefit the development of conceptual skills. As experts in human relationship dynamics, military social workers will be able to develop the Officers' Commanding human relationship skills.

The **counselling** dimension appears to focus on the person as employee that is the person in the context of his/her work-related problems and not personal problems. The focus of the counselling process includes any area of the life space of the person and therefore addresses problems on a level of the employee as person. This means that the employee's personal problems are also addressed, for example, their financial or marital relationship problems. Counselling is thus not only related to workplace problems, but also problems on a personal level.

Mink et al. (1993:23) point out that mentoring, coaching and counselling are all developmental in their focus, apart from the fact that counselling can also be remedial. This common developmental focus means that these processes can run simultaneously; in other words, an employee can receive counselling from a military social worker on their divorce, receive coaching from their line-function management on their job-specific skills (for example, execution of unit operational plans) and mentoring from the military social worker with regards to the impact of balancing roles in becoming a first-time parent with the demands of entering a promotional post on executive level. A multi-team approach can be considered, if the employee is assessed as presenting with the need for all areas of mentoring, coaching and counselling.

Hay (1995:60) points out that mentoring concerns itself with the facilitation of growth and feedback in processes between the mentor and protégé, whilst coaching has to do with checking the learning and feedback on performance. In contrast to mentoring and coaching, counselling raises the person's awareness and provides feedback in terms of the person's interactions. The author finds similarities in that mentoring, coaching and counselling all share the aspects of addressing specific tasks or problems, organisational aspects to be considered and individual aspects that are important. This further includes core skills such as establishing rapport, questioning, listening and giving feedback. As pointed out, the feedback is a commonality. However, the areas of feedback differ as well as the contexts in which individual and organisational tasks and problems are discussed.

This fine line between these three dimensions prompts the military social worker as mentor to do a thorough assessment in the foundation phase and to clarify the differences and similarities between the concepts of mentoring, coaching and counselling. Discussions should include options in terms of who would be the ideal professional person in the multi-professional team to intervene. If not, military social workers as mentors run the risk of crossing the boundaries of what is regarded as ethical and professional behaviour, in that they could perform a dual role as therapist and mentor, or therapist and coach. Social work ethics should thus govern multi-facetted roles that could have implications for role conflict and for what interests of the client to prioritise. The next sub-section refers to the differences and similarities between mentoring, supervision and therapy.

6.3.5.4 *Differences and similarities between mentoring, supervision and therapy*

Kadushin and Harkness (2002:199-204), in their discussion of the difference between supervision and therapy, caution the **therapist** against assisting the employee to become a better person instead of a better worker. Like supervision, the emphasis of mentoring is to assist the employee with growth and development that would benefit organisational goals. Kadushin and Harkness (2002:203,205) advised that the supervisor should keep the focus on the professional identity of the worker and not the personal identity. Their reason is that the mandate for supervision holds a direct relation with the policy of the organisation, the needs of the client and the supervisees responsibility to render an effective and efficient service to these client systems. The **supervisor** is not sanctioned to be simultaneously a therapist to the supervisee and a guardian of agency standards. The impact on the mentor-protégé or counsellor-protégé relationship is also different. The protégé who enrolled in the mentoring programme and who is suddenly being treated as a client in a counsellor-protégé relationship might withdraw from the mentor-protégé relationship as he/she might feel that intra-personal information shared might jeopardise career advancement. This information can be paralleled to explain why the military social worker does not act at once as mentor and counsellor **(therapist)** to the protégé, because the emphasis of the intervention plans and the impact on the relationship for mentoring and counselling are different. However, the psycho-social function activities of mentoring do include counselling and in this context it is suggested that

military social workers as mentors follow the guidance provided by Kadushin and Harkness (2002). Kadushin and Harkness (2002:203-204) advise that only when the supervisee's behaviour, feelings, and attitudes create difficulty in the performance of professional tasks, and then only, do such indicators become a legitimate concern justifying the supervisor's intervention on a personal level of the supervisee's life. Such behaviour, feelings and attitudes must be job-related before the supervisor can intervene on a therapeutic level.

Apart from having a clear understanding of the concepts of mentoring, coaching and counselling, it is also necessary that military social workers should have knowledge of the differences and similarities between the **concepts of educational supervision, consultation and in-service-training**, before undertaking a mentoring contract with the protégé. These differences and similarities are explained below.

6.3.5.5 *Differences between mentoring, educational supervision, in-service-training and consultation*

Educational supervision specifically is regarded as supplementing in-service training by individualising general learning application to the specific performance of the individual worker. **In-service-training** is a more specific form of staff development and "refers to planned, formal training provided to a delimited group of agency personnel who have the same job classification or the same job responsibilities" (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:130-131). **Consultation**, on the other hand, according to Munson (1993:11), has no official sanction by the agency, meaning that the agency does not formally or by policy assign a consultant to the practitioner.

Munson (1993:11,169) states further that practitioners are free to decide whether they want to seek consultation and whether they want to implement the advice and recommendations of the consultant. The suggestions and recommendations of the supervisor are not necessarily rejected by the supervisee, as the supervisor performs from a position of authority which is mandated by the agency and their suggestions and recommendations are most of the times directives to be executed by the supervisee. The consultant can be employed inside the same organisation as the practitioner or an outsider. Organisational, programme and case consultations can be applied separately from each other, or as a combination of the former three

consultations. External consultants do operate with a cost. If the organisation does not have a formal agreement with an external consultant with regards to consultancy services rendered, then the organisation cannot be held accountable for service fees on behalf of a practitioner who utilised such paid consultancy services. Supervision that is mandated and assigned by the organisation holds no costs for the supervisee.

6.3.5.6   Different types of mentoring

This section will draw the differences between internal and external mentoring, spot mentoring, group and peer mentoring, and formal and informal mentoring.

(a)   Internal and external mentoring

Internal mentoring is executed by internal mentors, whereas **external mentoring** is executed by external mentors. Pantry (1995:12) and Lewis (1996:12) also refer to **external mentors** to develop the professional and personal skills of the protégé. These external mentors are employees from another organisation. For the purpose of this study, the military social worker will only have to be aware of the existence of the difference between an external and internal mentor. Hence, the focus is on the military social workers who are internally employed in the SAMHS. Lewis (1996:62) notes the disadvantage of an external mentor. The author is of the opinion that expert knowledge and complex interactions within the organisation in which the protégé is employed in are absent in the knowledge and skills framework of the external mentor. It would thus be in the interest of the OC to utilise either the mentor service of the military social worker or that of other line-function staff in the SAMHS. One would expect that the military social worker as internal mentor would be well acquainted with the history, structure, processes, culture, behaviour and communication systems in the military environment.

(b)   Spot mentoring

Spot mentoring will be explained by reflecting on the functions in supervision and the functions in mentoring. Military social work supervisors are able to perform the **full spectrum of the supervision functions** for their supervisees, whereas the military social worker as mentor will be able to execute **mostly the psycho-social functions of mentoring.** The career functions require mostly technical knowledge and skills of the mentor, and therefore the line function supervisor on the level of the OC would be

most suitable to accomplish this area of mentorship. This form of mentoring is referred to as **spot mentoring**, because the protégé might spend time outside the overall mentorship contract with the primary mentor. The mentor responsible for spot mentoring is someone who has specialist experience in an area the primary mentor does not have. Spot mentoring forms part of the wider initiative of the protégé's mentorship programme and should be contracted in the overall mentorship contract. Feedback in terms of how spot mentoring benefits the wider context of the overall mentorship process should be integrated and discussed. Such a discussion will assist in evaluating the circular process and draw the development of the protégé into a coherent development strategy (Hay, 1995:44-45). This specialist, who will be responsible for spot mentoring, can either be a coach, or a peer consultant inside or outside the organisation. This type of spot mentoring can also be done through the medium of in-service training. This method is supported in the way that Munson (1993:11,170) and Kadushin and Harkness (2002:130-131) describe the consultant and the purpose of in-service training.

(c)   Group and peer mentoring

Similarly to the difference between group and peer supervision, mentoring shows differences between group and peer mentoring. **Group mentoring** is an alternative form for members who do not have access to individual mentorship opportunities and focus on benefits of role modelling, networking, psycho-social support and feelings of belonging that derive from group interaction. In group mentoring protégés benefit from the teaching/advice of a mentor, as well as exchange ideas and receive feedback as a group. **Peer mentoring**, on the other hand, accommodates co-workers who provide both career and psycho-social support based on their similar experiences. Peers are in the best position to view each other's performance and provide career feedback. Additional benefits of peer mentoring are derived from the fact that various protégés in the group will take responsibility for activating learning and leadership amongst their peers. There is less chance of members falling into patterns of dependency as individuals in the group will confront these dependencies (Russel & Adams, 1997:5). The role of group facilitator can also rotate in peer mentoring as every member can get a chance to act as the group facilitator.

Both these types of mentoring show definite features of overlap, in that both utilise more than one member; they are composed of members with similar needs and use

the members to facilitate achievement of goals. The difference is that members who participate in group mentoring are not necessarily peers and can consist of senior and junior members, hence a mix of experience and inexperienced members. Peer mentoring can be established out of group mentoring, however, peers can either meet formally or informally.

(d)   Formal and informal mentoring

The Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:3-4) defines **formal mentorship** as "…a structured personal and professional development phase for selected members or groups". Formal mentorship will take place in the organisational structure and includes the matching and training of mentors and protégés. The whole process of formal mentorship will be monitored and evaluated, whereas **informal mentorship** will take place at any time between individuals without being registered in the DOD mentorship programme (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:4). Authors such as Young and Perrewe (2000:612) have also identified **formal and informal mentorship**; they described formal mentorship as a conscious decision by management to pair members of an organisation in comparison to informal mentorship, which results from a personal bond between the mentor and protégé based on their common interests.

6.3.5.7   Differences between the types of supervision and mentoring

In analysing the types of supervision and mentoring, one would conclude that group supervision and group mentoring could be regarded as formal, whereas peer supervision and peer mentoring would be regarded as informal and indirect. The latter can, however, be structured and formally organised with an agenda. It is formal in the sense that group mentoring would be facilitated by a facilitator outside the direct group (Hay, 1995:45), for example, the military social worker as mentor, whilst a peer mentoring group can be facilitated by an Officer Commanding (OCs) who is part of the peer group. Peer mentoring would also be considered as indirect mentoring, as the mentor would not be directly present to observe the process first hand, but would depend on the feedback given by the OC who attended the peer group or the notes that were kept on the process. The set-up of peer mentoring also appears to be more comfortable and relaxed for protégés.

The group mentoring would be particularly relevant when the military social worker facilitates groups where the goals are to enhance social functioning, or interpersonal or social relationships in areas of life skills deficiencies. Such life skills topics can include time management, occupational stress management, communication, conflict management, teambuilding, organising skills or how to conduct effective Officer Commanding staff council meetings. Newly appointed OCs will find that groups are a safe place to share their vulnerabilities, experience giving and receiving support, and expressing themselves without being judged by their sub-ordinates. Other benefits that groups hold are the fact that OCs are able to learn more about themselves, how to handle both positive and negative feedback, and how to change negative behaviour constructively. Team-building skills are an asset for newly appointed OCs who have to bond with their Staff Officers, with whom they work in close co-operation. OCs delegate and depend on Staff Officers for the execution of DOD Policies, Business Plans and Directives to ground level. This method can surely be implemented effectively in the mentor-protégé relationship.

In the same way that the Command SWP No 34/98 (1998:5) makes room for consultation once the formal process of individual supervision or group supervision has been terminated, so peer mentoring should be built into the Command SWP No 6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2). This is to ensure that once the mentoring process has been terminated and the protégé has accomplished the goals and objectives of mentoring, protégés have a resource that would act as an extended support system, should the need arise. The Command SWP No 6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2) does not mention the difference between formal or informal mentorship, or other alternative forms of mentoring, for example, peer mentoring. The Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C) pertinently mentions formal and informal mentoring and thus provides the protégé with other forms of support outside the traditional mentoring relationship. This is indicative of how seriously the Department of Defence views competent employees and the importance of continuous self-development and the upkeep of a learning organisation.

6.3.5.8 Type and classification of evaluation

Knowledge of the utilisation of the various diagnostic and assessment tools is of the essence for the military social worker as mentor. Not only are these tools applied in

the beginning phase of the mentoring process, but continuously until the ending phase of the mentoring process. The utilisation of these assessment tools (Learning Style Inventory (KOLB) (Spangenberg, 1990:73-76), the Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale (Keirsey, 1998) or the Foci for Coaching Executives (Figure 2.2: Kilburg, 2000:63), wheel of life or SWOT analysis), should be contracted with the protégé. For evaluation purposes, the military social worker and the OC should discuss the **type and classification** of evaluation that is going to be utilised. For example, Johnson and Yanca (2007:284-285) identify **summative and formative types of evaluation** and differentiate between **qualitative** and **quantitative evaluation** as an evaluative **classification**. These authors describe summative evaluation as concerned with outcomes and effectiveness. Formative evaluation is concerned with looking at the process of the work and how the work during the various steps in the service influenced the final outcome. Formative evaluation in context of the mentoring process will focus on the nature of the mentor-protégé relationship, the content of the mentoring sessions and the environment in which the work occurred.

Qualitative evaluation will focus on requesting Officers Commanding to relate their experiences and thus obtaining a comprehensive picture of service from their perspectives. Quantitative evaluation is evident when data are required through numbers and averaging the responses of those involved in the survey (Johnson & Yanca, 2007:285). The disadvantage is that the data obtained from quantitative evaluation will lack the direct experience of the OC. However, qualitative evaluation is more cost effective than quantitative evaluation which is time consuming (Johnson & Yanca, 2007:285).

The above information is important for military social workers, as they need to assess whether the protégé needs to be supervised by a line-function specialist in a more senior position than the OC, a line-function specialist outside the SAMHS who is operating as a consultant in the SA Army, SA Navy or SA Air force, or whether the protégé needs to be included in a group of other Officers Commanding for in-service training. The various variants of staff development should ideally be discussed during joint training of mentors and protégés to bring the two parties on par and provide protégés with the opportunity to consider their needs in alignment with organisational goals and objectives for mentorship. These different forms of staff development can also be reflected upon in the contract phase of the mentoring process, as a refresher

to the protégé. The last factor to be considered in the pre-planning phase of the mentoring process is the matching of the mentors and protégés.

6.3.6 Matching of mentors and protégés

The matching of mentors and protégés is about ensuring that the mentor and protégé are compatible in their mentor-protégé relationship. All the factors to ensure a match should be assessed, for example, learning needs, learning styles, personal characteristics. Koonce (1994:37) and Sweeney (2003a:2) emphasise the importance of the relationship fit between mentor and protégé. Other authors such as Teke (1995:37), Allen, Poteet and Russell (2000:271), Sosik and Godshalk (2000:102), and Meyer and Fourie (2002:2-4) concur with this emphasis and elaborate in detail on matching factors important to secure the relationship fit. It is clear from the DOD mentorship programme (DOD Instruction, 1999: 4) that it is important for there to be a good match between the mentor and protégé.

Meyer and Fourie (2002:3) consider this stage to be critical in the mentoring process. Although they support the natural matching between mentor and protégé, they recognise the importance of matching taking place on a formal level through interviewing; during this process information is shared and a dossier is generated to enable the protégés to choose a mentor. These authors also support the utilisation of assessment instruments and assessing what the mentor and protégé regard as important to be achieved in the mentoring process as information that can determine the matching between mentor and protégé. Both also express their sensitivity towards the type of diagnostic instrument to be considered in order to prevent compromising of mentors and protégés questionnaire batteries for completion. The assessment instruments that can be utilised to match the mentor and the protégé will now be discussed.

6.3.6.1 Assessment instruments

Koonce (1994:38) advocates the **360-degree assessment**, which entails gathering information by interviewing peers, superiors and sub-ordinates to determine the nature of the protégés interaction in his work environment. He is of the opinion that this information can rarely be picked up in gathering data through the form of written questionnaires. This author also subjects protégés to a psychometric test in order to

identify strengths, interests, preferred ways of working with and managing others, and determining approaches to problem-solving and decision-making. Assessments and tests should be specific in what it wants to achieve to prevent the protégé being subjected to unnecessary data gathering.

Some **tests and questionnaires** are beyond the scope of practice of social workers and, when required, should be done in support of the multi-professional team member, for example, a psychologist who is qualified in psychometric testing or registered to complete and analyse a specific questionnaire for the purpose of matching and assessing strengths and weaknesses. The Directorate Social Work also has a team of military social workers in the Research, Training and Development Department at the Military Psychological Institute, Tshwane who specialise in this field and who will be able to assist chief military social workers, should a specific assessment instrument be required in the mentorship programme.

Military social workers who completed the two-year in-house supervisor's course are competent in completing the **Learning Style Inventory (KOLB)**, which can be utilised to determine the learning style of the mentor and protégé (Spangenberg, 1990:73-76). Spangenberg (1990:75) confirms that this instrument can be used in education, counselling and management development. Its usefulness is demonstrated in terms of ascertaining:

- How learning styles relate to problem-solving;

- How one learns to improve one's learning skills; and

- How careers are closely related to certain learning styles.

The author concludes that the KOLB instrument is short, easy to apply and self-administered.

A second instrument with which military social workers in the Western Cape is well acquainted with is the **Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale** (Keirsey, 1998). In 1997 25 military social workers in the Western Cape received a week in-service training on the utilisation and application of the Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale, as presented by Mrs Linda Struwicht (Keirsey, 1998). Mrs Struwicht holds the copyright on this book in South Africa, and these military social workers are legally able to apply this

instrument to their client systems and interpret the results. The Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale is similar to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1998) in that it also identifies basic preferences of people with regard to perception and judgment, thinking and feeling, sensation and intuition either on an introvert or extrovert continuum. The Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale (Keirsey, 1998) can be utilised in situations where co-operation is required, career management, team building, time management and creative problem-solving. At present the researcher utilises this instrument in pre-marital counselling, marital counselling, supervision, to facilitate change management amongst management teams, leadership training, supervisor's training programmes and life skills training pertaining to team cohesion and time management. It has proved to be a workable instrument that provides accurate information about the personality of the person in terms of strengths and weaknesses, characteristic ways of dealing with colleagues, contributions in teams and irritations at work. The Keirsey Bate Temperament scale (Keirsey, 1998) can therefore definitely be utilised as a measuring instrument and utilised as a pre-, middle and post-assessment tool to evaluate growth in terms of weaknesses, maintenance of strengths, change resilience and functioning in teams. The next section will reflect on the personal characteristics that can be considered in the matching phase of the mentor and protégé.

6.3.6.2 *Personal characteristics*

Hay (1995:110) and Lewis (1996:182) identified other aspects to be considered, for example, gender, culture, age, background, education/qualifications, ability to support and challenge, and role modelling as determinants to match mentors and protégés. In a similar way, Kadushin and Harkness (2002:297-309) identified age, race and gender as factors impacting on the already established supervisor-supervisee relationship. These matching factors of Kadushin and Harkness (2002:297-309) will be briefly discussed to show how it can impact on the mentor-protégé relationship.

(a) *Age*

When the supervisor is younger and less experienced than the supervisee, such circumstances can result in the supervisor presenting with feelings of insecurity, defensive behaviour and less certain of entitlement to the position as supervisor

(Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:297). An older and more experienced supervisor would be more respected for their experience, acknowledged for their fund of knowledge and actively consulted because of their experience. These same factors can be applicable to the mentor-protégé relationship in that Officers Commanding at times might be older. However, in terms of working experience in the SANDF, chief military social workers as mentors could be senior figures. The history of the non-statutory armed forces in South Africa, however, should not be negated. When the working experiences of Officers Commanding in previous non-statutory forces are taken into consideration, their experience and seniority, would unfold. The bottom line is that the SANDF is taking on a younger combat-ready work force and Affirmative Action and Gender Equity policies are being implemented. As a result, the age group of members being appointed in Officers Commanding (OC) posts is also becoming younger with less working experience in the SANDF. The profiles of employed Officers Commanding are thus different than before the integration of statutory and non-statutory armed forces in 1994.

The researcher takes note that most literature Barcus and Wilkinson, 1995:16-17; Parsloe, 1995:15; Shea, 2003:1,9; Cranwell-Ward, Bossons & Gover, 2004:26-27) describe the mentor as the senior person to the protégé; however, one should also consider the fact that military social workers in their own right are fully qualified and competent specialists in their field of training. Such a position thus bridges the difference that an age-gap can bring to the mentor-protégé relationship. Age should thus not be a determining factor to match the mentor and protégé; however, the right of self-determination of Officers Commanding will remain respected, if this factor proves to be decisive in how they wish to select their mentors.

(b)   Race

This factor can contribute to questioning of a supervisor's credibility, if such a supervisor is black and has just been promoted into a supervisor's post. A black supervisor will have to work harder to show a white supervisee that they are knowledgeable in their field of practice and, if the white supervisee has had no prior background of blacks being in positions of power and authority over whites, such a supervisee can treat the black supervisor in terms of a stereotype (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:297-298). On the other hand, a white supervisor will find it hard to win the trust of a black supervisee in that the black supervisee might perceive the

white supervisor as ignorant of the black experience and life style of black people. The white supervisor might also be hesitant to criticise the work performance of a black supervisee for fear of being labelled a racist (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:299). Same-race supervisory dyads can also lead to black supervisees expecting their black supervisors to advocate the special concerns of black staff and clients to higher authority in the organisation, and if they do not, being labelled as an Oreo, that is black outside and white inside (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:301-302).

The above dynamics may occur in the mentor-protégé relationship as the workforce in SAMHS is very diverse and represents the full spectrum of South African cultures and race groups. Military social workers should reflect on the possibilities of how a difference in the racial composition of the mentor-protégé dyads can influence the mentoring process.

The role of the military social worker as mentor to the OC will not be in a supervisory capacity. Therefore, the occurrence of tension from a position of authority and power of a black or white mentor over a white or black protégé will be less likely. However, questioning the competence of the mentor as a person of colour and perhaps expecting preferential treatment based on a same-race dyad could be more likely. Whatever the dynamics that Kadushin and Harkness (2002:297-303) mention in terms of race, it should not be ignored. It can be expected that military social workers and Officers Commanding, irrespective of their race dyad, would be able to deal with the demands of a mentor-protégé relationship. The important thing is to be guided by the common codes of civil behaviour, social work practice knowledge and skills pertaining to cultural diversity, the principles of social work and the military disciplinary code of conduct.

Tsukudu (1996:16) and Teke (1996:21) both acknowledge the value and importance of race diversity and emphasise that the roles rather than only the race diversity of the mentor and protégé should be the determining factor for a successful mentor-protégé relationship. They highlight the development of the skills of the protégé in terms of work competence and building up experience, and that the protégé should also accept the responsibility for sensitising the mentor in terms of the values and norms of employees from other race and cultural groups. Shea (1992:85) adds that the diverse nature of human resources in organisations should be celebrated and be utilised to the advantage of the mentorship programme. The author rightly

encourages celebration of this diversity in mentorship through inclusion instead of exclusion.

(c)   Gender

Soshik and Godshalk (2000:105) found that males are characterised generally as being task orientated, results-driven, competitive, rational, strategic and unemotional in comparison with females. Females are characterised generally as relationship orientated, nurturing, cooperative, intuitive/rational, emphatic and emotionally expressive. These characteristics are also the ones that, according to Scandura and Ragins (1993:262), enable women and men to gain more from their mentors in that men and women described themselves in androgynous terms. These men and women who described themselves in androgynous terms, appears to benefit more from career development and psycho-social support.

Scandura and Ragins (1993) acknowledged that their findings are limited by the overall low estimates of variance accounted for. Yet one interpretation, according to them, is that androgynous individuals (those who display both feminine and masculine characteristics) may have the potential to benefit more from mentoring relationships than individuals who display either exclusively feminine or exclusively masculine characteristics. They further found that the flexibility inherent in androgynous orientations may be a factor in the effective use of mentors. Whilst these authors could match gender orientation with the mentoring functions of career development and psychosocial support, it was unrelated to role modelling. The reason is that protégés want to respect and identify with their mentors. Kadushin and Harkness (2002:305) noted that studies done in this area indicated that gender is not a predictor of management orientation.

The gender role composition and mentoring relationship processes can be regarded as somewhat controversial, and should be managed in a sensitive way during the matching phase. For as much as there is research that supports the link between androgynous attributes strengthening successful response to mentoring functions, research has also been done that showed no clarity regarding a definite link between gender role composition and successful response to mentoring relationship processes. Ragins and McFarlin (1990), Covey (1997) and Ensher and Murphy (1997) have found that both female and male qualities in their own right contribute to

the successful outcome of mentoring relationship processes. For example, same-gender dyads provided more psychosocial support than diversified dyads, and that female mentors provide more exposure, counselling, promotional opportunities, and are more willing to mentor others. In contrast to this, male mentors are perceived to have more power to advance career opportunities. Sosik and Godshalk (2000:117) caution readers to utilise their results carefully and to acknowledge the reality of professions such as teaching and nursing, which mostly cater for female mentors. One would therefore most likely find more homogeneous mentor-protégé mentoring relationships.

The reality, however, is that because of the glass ceiling effect and traditionally male-dominated organisations, women do not reach the top echelons of management in large numbers. A study done in 1995 found 43% of women who had entered low-level supervisory positions are under-represented at the highest ranks of corporate leadership, thus holding only 2,4% of all leadership positions (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000:106-107). Consequently, it appears that women are most of the time thus forced to form mentoring dyads with male mentors and, very sadly, the norm become established that men have better networks that will promote female careers to top executive levels. Military social workers as mentors thus need to be realistic about how they themselves will be received and accepted as being mostly women mentoring other women. This will most likely occur should mentoring functions impact on the career development of these women. The same would apply for male protégés. This may very well suggest that the way protégés match themselves with mentors does in fact link with what they want in order to benefit from the mentoring relationship.

Kadushin and Harkness (2002:306-307) remark that some men as a norm do not react well when they are in a sub-ordinate position, for example, where the woman is the supervisor and they the supervisees. The military social worker as mentor will not be in a position of power over the OC. Yet their roles as educators, facilitators, change agents or advisers might create within male OCs a sense that they are sub-ordinate to the knowledge and skills of military social workers as mentors. Gender issues in the cross-dyad mentoring relationships thus require critical attention during the matching phase. If such negative dynamics caused by gender differences are not present in the pre-planning phase of the matching phase, the military social workers

should monitor such possible dynamics in the middle phase of the mentoring process. Should this present itself negatively, then it should be discussed and the differences should rather be used as a learning opportunity and the dyad encouraged to be continued, to relate towards one another as professionals and soldiers.

During the matching phase, the possibilities of sexual harassment should be openly discussed as a way of acting preventatively. Any organisation that manages a mentorship programme should keep in mind that same-gender as well as cross-gender mentor-protégé relationships could possibly lead to sexual harassment. The literature did not present much about the impact of sexual harassment in cross-gender dyads, but Ragins and Cotton (1991) and Hurley and Fagenson-Eland (1996) did refer to protégés' fear of potential sexual advances made by male mentors. These authors highlighted the importance of organisations developing guidelines to manage sexuality and intimacy in cross-gender mentorship.

In the supervisor-supervisee relationship the supervisor is regarded as the senior by virtue of the appointment. However, in the case of the military social worker as mentor and OC as protégé relationship, Officers Commanding will be in a position of power, authority and status by virtue of their hierarchical position. This position has the potential to make both parties equally vulnerable to some form of harassment. It appears that since most military social workers currently are women and most OC posts are currently held by men, military social workers will have to sensitively introduce the DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (SANDF Order, 1998:2,3). This policy specifically refers to the management of sexual harassment in the Department of Defence as part of the mentoring contract.

(d)   Rank

Apart from the above factors that can impact on the matching of the mentor and protégé, it is also important to reflect on **rank** differences between military social workers as mentors and the Officers Commanding as protégés. In the military context the OC will be in a senior position, but for the purpose of the mentor-protégé relationship, the military social worker will be the specialist based on professional knowledge, skills and attitude base, as mentioned.

Military social workers as mentors will be ranked Captains, Majors, Lieutenant Colonels and Colonels in comparison with Officers Commanding (OCs) as Colonels (one rank above Lieutenant Colonel and two ranks above Major). Fourie (1991:36) supports the specialist position of mentors over their protégés. Mentors in this phase possess an advantage in terms of their knowledge and skills, whereas protégés who engage in this phase are described as having the potential to be developed either on a career or psycho-social basis. It is thus important that military social workers are not discouraged by these rank differences and career experiences of OCs when discussing background, interests and other personal information.

Wright and Werther (1991:29) make the point that it is to the advantage of the mentoring process when the mentor is neither a peer nor a supervisor of the protégé. Peers are seen as equals and, lightly put, able to lend a hand but not likely to offer greater wisdom. These authors also see the dual roles as mentor and supervisor as being in conflict with one another and hold the view that it is best for the advice-giver to be neither a peer nor a direct supervisor of the protégé. In this context the diversity in ranks and professional experiences can therefore be considered as an asset rather than liability. Military social workers must remain confident and focused on the goal of mentorship and the expertise that they bring to the mentor-protégé-relationship.

6.4   THE PLANNING PHASE

The planning phase extensively addresses the connecting of the mentor and protégé after the selection, orientation, training and matching process. The emphasis in the planning phase is the **introduction, foundation, orientation and collaboration** between the mentor and protégé. In this phase the mentor and protégé are jointly planning the needs of the protégé more specifically. The orientation phase in the pre-planning phase focused on the broader aspects of the mentor and protégé, whereas this phase introduces more specific and individualised issues between the mentor and protégé, for example, needs, goals, expectations and roles. For the orientation phase Sweeney (2003a:3) draws similarities with the preparation phase of the supervision process discussed in section 5.2.1.3(b)(i), and should be utilised as a cross-reference. Funk and Kochan (1999:93,95) refer to this phase also as the groundwork and warm-up phase. They emphasise the establishment during these

two phases of the mentor-mentee (protégé) relationship. Goals are identified and the approach is discussed as to how strengths and weaknesses are going to be assessed.

6.4.1 Assessment tasks and tools used for introduction, foundation and orientation

Bell (2000:54) considers it important to **build rapport** in the introduction phase and to strip the relationship of any nuances of power and command. It is important to surrender to the process of learning rather than controlling the relationship. It is necessary to create the connection between the mentor and protégé. Bell (2000) highlights the fact that the success of the mentoring relationship can be determined by the tone of the first meeting as to whether the relationship will be fruitful or fraught with anxiety or fear. What is considered necessary to create a fruitful connection depends on whether the mentor is able to transmit a welcoming response with open posture, eye contact and a personal greeting. Mentors who convey power by peering from behind the desk, crossing their arms and making the protégé do all of the approaching are setting the mentor-protégé-relationship up on the basis of uneasiness (Bell, 2000:54). Hay (1995:75) agrees that voice tone and tempo, pattern of breathing and any repetitive body movements are important non-verbal communication aspects to consider when establishing rapport with the protégé. McLeod (2004:171) encourages coaches to keep their eye contact natural and flexible to the needs of the coachee (protégé). He warns that some coaches may be disturbed by prolonged and direct eye contact. It is, however, important that the coachee is noticed through quality attention and skilful ability to demonstrate that he/she is being heard and understood. Compatibility, control, competence, co-operation, caring and challenge are important styles that contribute to a positive progressive mentor-protégé relationship. Conformity and conflict are potential drawbacks in the mentor-protégé relationship and need to be worked through in this phase to move the process (Hay, 1995:76).

The core skills of **listening and questioning** will be important tools that the military social worker will have to apply to enable protégés to participate in providing information about their portfolios. Other tools which can be utilised to assess the portfolio and learning needs of the protégé are identified as mind mapping and personal constructs, lifelines, genograms and SWOT analyses (Hay, 1995:81-90).

Mind mapping and personal constructs invite the protégé to "brain dump" the contents of their minds for inspection. Information of the brain is stored as patterns and these patterns can be linked with higher-order patterns, and when put on paper it produces a map of the mind. When these mind maps are assessed, corresponding constructs of how the protégé views other people, organisations and life in general are activated. These mind maps and personal constructs provide for depth in understanding the world view of the protégé. Hay (1995:84), however, cautions mentors to utilise the skill of paraphrasing to prevent misinterpreting the information provided by the protégé during the mind-mapping process. O'Connor and Lages (2004:98), on the other hand, caution the coaches with their own mental map not to attempt to bring the protégés world view in line with theirs, but to allow the protégé to exercise freedom in their own world. The assessment tools can be tiresome to complete. McLeod (2004:171) points out to coaches (mentors) that, should the session exceed an hour, a pause for breathing, stretching or a refreshment break, where appropriate, may be welcomed by the coachee (mentor).

A lifeline provides information about the protégé according to significant life events. The lifeline uses a horizontal scale of time and a vertical scale of "feeling good", or success, or satisfaction or whatever else the mentor chooses. A line is drawn against these scales, starting at birth, to show the ups and downs of life (Hay, 1995:84). The military social worker as mentor can utilise the lifeline to assist Officers Commanding to understand their own history. OCs can view repeating patterns and also similarities in feelings whenever they encounter a loss or change. An increased awareness of their own reactions and behaviours will support their problem-solving and decision-making abilities when faced with generating alternatives. This same tool can also be utilised as part of the evaluation phase when expectations for the future, belief systems about their future and fears about future can be explored (Hay, 1995:84-86).

The wheel of life is considered to be an excellent assessment tool to assess the present position and balance of life of the protégé. The wheel is divided into eight quadrants and the protégé is requested to attach a percentage of their satisfaction in the quadrants of physical environment, health, career, relationships, romance, self-development, finances and fun and recreation at the time of completion (O'Connor & Lages, 2004:59-61). This tool can be utilised as a measurement instrument across the beginning, middle and ending phase of the mentoring process. The mentor can

therefore measure whether satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurred in any of the above quadrants of the wheel of life as the mentoring process progressed. Continuous evaluation of the process will enable the mentor and protégé to revisit the progress on goals and, where necessary, to adapt these goals to address areas showing signs of stagnation.

Some of the assessment tools will be utilised two or three times during the mentoring process. The military social worker should clarify the single-system design, the requirements from the OC, what will be measured, and where and when the measurement will take place (Johnson & Yanca, 2007:287-288). Such transparency will enhance the trust and partnership relationship between the military social worker and the OC in the mentoring process. It is important that the coach (mentor) avoids using assessment tools that might be a challenge to the coach/mentor. McLeod (2004:239) suggests that coaches work with tools within their frame of reference and that they learn from feedback whether the tool was utilised effectively or not. The next section will focus on the goals and agreement/contract in the foundation phase in Sweeney's (2003a:3) mentoring process.

6.4.2 Mentoring goals and the agreement in the foundation phase

The foundation phase emphasises the purpose of the mentoring relationship (Sweeney, 2003a:3). In this phase the goals and agreements are aligned with the functions of mentoring, that is the career, psycho-social and modelling functions.

These **goals** should be balanced by the demands of the protégé, and should mostly reflect the goals that are consistent with the values of the protégé. The protégé should take ownership of these goals (Egan, 1994). Gay and Stephenson (1998) as well as Millwater and Yarrow (1997), support this non-directive approach in identifying goals. The latter two authors demonstrated in their research on mentor relationships that externally imposed goals serve only to disempower protégés and provoke their active resistance. Mink et al. (1993:150-151) identify goals in terms of needs and wants. These are mostly identified by the protégé; however, these goals should be mutually agreed upon. The mentor must allow for general as well as specific mentoring goals. General goals should not precede specific goals, otherwise the process will stagnate and focus only on the day-to-day tasks of the protégé.

Alexander and Renshaw (2005:235-237), and Meyer and Fourie (2002:4) identified the SMART acronym for the goals as follows:

"***S**= Specific/Stretched. The goals must be written in a language that relates to the specific and that would 'stretch' the learners to perform.

***M**= Measurable. There must be a way to ensure that the goal has been achieved or progress has been made in achieving the result.

***A**= Achievable. The question is whether the result can be expected within the time frame.

***R**= Relevant. The task or activity must be relevant to the learner.

***T**= Time frame. There must be a point in time when the result must be available."

In supervision the learning needs can be determined by means of the self-identified needs of the supervisee or by means of the work performance tendencies detected in educational evaluations, reports, workload and statistics. Goals must be prioritised and objectives can be set on a knowledge, attitude and skill level (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:19-20). All possible implications and obstacles of the goals in the contract should be discussed and those goals with the least negative consequences or obstacles should be prioritised for implementation. It is important that the mentor ensures that all the resources and the learning environment are in place to address the learning goals of the protégé. It is important that an assessment includes what resources are available and what is not. Questions should be asked and discussed as to what alternatives exist, if resources are not available in the organisation and whether any costs are involved to access those resources. Hay (1995:91) deems it necessary to ask the question as to what options are available to address how the goals are going to be addressed in the action plan. Hay (1995) identifies spot mentoring, visits to other organisations and reading, whilst Olesen (1996:27) identified seminars, volunteer work, job or assignment rotation, books and seminars, or having protégés mentoring another employee, as means to evaluate whether goals have been achieved. The following section will reflect on the agreement/contract that occurs in the foundation phase.

Hay (1995:76-77) deems it necessary to undertake a verbal or written **agreement/contract** between the mentor and protégé that encompasses the long-term developmental alliance. She highlights the benefits of a contract to ensure that a clear understanding exists between the parties with regards to administrative aspects. These administrative aspects refer to how often the parties meet, length of the sessions, place where mentoring takes place (procedural contract), their respective roles and responsibilities (professional contract), how they will interact (personal contract) and expected behaviour (psychological contract), (Hay, 1995:77,78).

In supervision the responsibility and roles in terms of preparation for the supervisory session are equally important for the supervisee and the supervisor, and should be included in the contract. In her discussion of the preparation of the supervisee, Botha (2000b:128) emphasises that the supervisee should attend the supervision session prepared in order to discuss their educational evaluations. Such discussions ensure their own understanding of the feedback from the supervisor and which areas still require follow-up. Both supervisee and supervisor should study the supervisee's process notes on the session to execute tasks identified for the next planning session. Preparation provides the supervision process with focus and direction. The supervisor is able to discard or adapt the structure of the session, depending on the immediate need of the supervisor. In this way supervision is focused and selective and not a haphazard process (Botha b, 2000:129).

Olesen (1996:27) agrees with Hay (1995:77) that contracting on the aforementioned areas is important. The mentor should recognise that protégés have heavy work schedules and that most are subjected to work pressures. This contributes towards their desire to meet with mentors quickly fading. Olesen (1996) therefore emphasises the importance of contracting target dates, meeting times and deadlines. This prevents protégés, especially on executive level, from reverting to behaviours that worked for them in the past just to get through day-to-day work demands, and thereby negating the mentoring agreement. Clutterbuck (2001) does not view the success of a mentoring relationship as based on the existence of a learning contract between mentor and protégé. In a study that Clutterbuck (2001) conducted within the National Health Service, he found that amongst 100 pairs of mentors and protégés,

only 20% had a formal contract. He concluded that the important aspect is that both mentor and protégé discuss the mentoring relationship.

The literature mostly supports the importance of a contract (Hay, 1995:77; Olesen, 1996:27; McLeod, 2003:164-170; Shea, 2003:81-84; Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004:176-177). Botha (2000 b:126) recognises the benefit of structuring the supervision session with supervisees. Such structured physical arrangements both provide the opportunity to the supervisor and supervisee to plan their own work activities, and ensure an organised work environment.

Hay (1995) and Olesen (1996) agree that a contract keeps the mentor and protégé accountable, as well as others involved in the process, for example, the executive's direct supervisors. Other benefits of the contract identified by Hay (1995:77) are:

- "…a clear understanding of the purpose of the interactions,

- an opportunity to agree the methods of working together,

- side steps potential problems of either party changing ground rules in the future without mutual agreement by making it clear that this would breach the contract,

- provides a mechanism by which either party can seek agreement to a change,

- reinforces the fact that they have mutual responsibilities for the mentoring process,

- takes care of the administrative aspects, such as arrangements to meet regularly,

- establishes boundaries, so that parties know where mentoring stops and how it might fit in with other contact that they have with each other".

Hay (1995:77) emphasises the importance of review periods being built into the contract after every four sessions, and then after every six-month period. Military social workers need to keep constantly in mind that evaluation occurs throughout the mentoring process and not just as part of the actual evaluation and termination phase of the process.

It is also important that the protégé be informed about the expectations of the organisation in terms of administrative, procedural and professional demands. The

military social worker as mentor should discuss openly with Officers Commanding the expectations of the organisation in terms of time spent on mentoring sessions and whether record keeping should be disclosed. The view of the organisation with regards to mentoring should be explored and whether the mentoring contract includes the manager's expectations of the protégé or others involved in the organisation (Hay, 1995:79). Once the contracting has been finalised between the mentor and protégé, it will be beneficial for the parties to conclude the planning phase with collaborating on work effectiveness, learning and development (Sweeney, 2003a:3).

6.4.3 Collaboration

The mentor should involve the protégé in collaborating on issues of preparation and planning for the action plan (Sweeney, 2003a:3). O'Connor and Lages (2004:63) pose questions that lay the foundation for what will happen, or not occur, in the action phase as follows:

"- What does the client need to do?

 - What will they have to stop doing? What habits do they have that are maintaining the obstructions and what is present in their life that is hindering them? The client will need to evaluate their habits, stop some and build others.

 - What will the client need to do more of?

 - What will the client need to do differently?

 - What exercises and tasks can you assign that will allow them to do this?"

Collaboration already sets the climate for joint discussions in the middle phase. Through collaboration the mentor and protégé can communicate the progress in the planning phase and whether the protégé and mentor are satisfied with the goals, contract, roles and tasks to be executed in the middle phase.

The third is **the middle phase** that will focus on the **joint discussions** between the mentor and protégé. These discussions will include the goals that have been set, the needs or problems that should be addressed, roles and tasks that need to be executed and what aspects of the contract should be reviewed. New ideas or plans should be integrated in the revised contract, based on information obtained through

continuous joint evaluations. The military social worker will impart valuable knowledge and micro skills to enhance the psycho-social functioning of Officers Commanding in areas of challenging stressful assignments, role modelling, work role effectiveness, dealing with sub-ordinates who are not staffed or have been retrenched. Continuous evaluation will take place in terms of the growth and development of the OC to deal independently of the direction and suggestions of the military social worker. The middle phase will set the climate for gradually reintroducing the termination of the mentor-protégé-relationship because goals have been met or other factors arise, perhaps influencing an unplanned termination of the mentor-protégé relationship.

6.5   THE MIDDLE PHASE

Funk and Kochan (1999:97,100-101) refer to this phase as the working phase. In this phase the attention is on how the mentor and mentee (protégé) function together in terms of empowerment and participation. The focus is on **problem-solving and the personal and professional framework**. The authors agree that this phase present the protégé with both challenges and opportunities that the protégé would under ordinary circumstances not have pursued. The protégé is also confronted with new lessons and ways of doing things that they might not be comfortable with, for example, how to use and present material, how to interpret political signals in educational culture, and how to grasp the political structure of their organisation. Active listening and a trust relationship are necessary to accommodate the protégé in examining their own ways of approaching tasks and thinking processes through. The protégé's creative ways of brainstorming problems should be supported and enabled. This should contribute to the confidence of the protégé and future independent task execution. As new issues will arise, this means that the contract content be flexible in order to accommodate the needs of the protégé, not initially identified in the planning of the mentoring process.

6.5.1 Tasks of the mentor with regards to the problem-solving, personal and professional framework

In order to enhance the learning of the protégé in dealing with these challenges and opportunities, Bell (2000:55) deems it necessary that the mentor should ask permission to give advice. **Advice** should not be given in such a manner that it

creates resistance and resentment in the protégé. The author suggests that advice should be framed in such a way that the protégé understands its intention. The personal and professional framework should therefore be taken into consideration when giving advice. The advice should be clear of ambiguity that can leave the protégé more confused than assisted. Kilburg (2000:116) also adopts this permissive approach of Bell (2000:55) and suggests that the mentor and coach use statements such as "could" instead of "should", making suggestions and providing ideas that "might be considered, explored, reflected on, or thought about". Military social workers should at all times accept differences in the way that Officers Commanding (OCs) view themselves, their emotions, behaviour, cognitions and problems. These differences should be communicated. The military social worker as mentor can utilise the ecological perspective, role theory or cognitive-behavioural theory to deal with differences in perceptions or ways in which behaviour in context of family-work life is perceived. The OC should be respected and accepted in the way that assertiveness is portrayed.

Continuous reflection on the goals set in the contract and the mentoring functions is necessary in order to strategise they way in which these goals should be implemented. It is important to assess whether the goals that have been implemented have achieved the desired results and whether the required resources were utilised (Sweeney, 2003a:3). During this joint evaluation of results, it is important that the mentor reflects upon the purpose of evaluating the outcomes and the rationale for the feedback.

Relationship, interpersonal communication and conflict management skills are important during feedback discussions. The protégé might not understand the feedback and therefore requires clear and precise messages from the mentor to engage the understanding of the protégé. The mentor should allow the protégé to ask questions and the mentor must paraphrase feedback. Protégés can also be in denial about certain points of the feedback, because such feedback can refer to areas where behavioural or attitude changes are required. Protégés may therefore reject feedback. The use of techniques such as confrontation, clarification, interpretation and reconstruction can assist the mentor to contextualise perceptions about the feedback (Kilburg, 2000:62). Kilburg (2000:62) encourages mentors and coaches to be direct with protégés who struggle with significant emotional responses

and conflicts in their working environment, relationships and personal lives. Kilburg (2000) cautions that these techniques have the potential to make the protégé vulnerable and should therefore be used with great care and sensitivity.

The mentor should apply the **use of feedback** sensitively. Mentors themselves must be mature enough to accept that the protégé might not in all cases view feedback as valid. Alexander and Renshaw (2005:221) add that even when the feedback is valid, the protégé might decide not to act upon it. The military social worker as mentor should communicate the consequences of such behaviour to the protégé and provide emotional support for the processes of exploring change. Principles of adult education should be applied continuously when the military social worker as mentor may experience a position of being challenged by the Officers Commanding (OCs) as protégé. The military social worker must respect and accept that the OC has a vast reservoir of experience and as the mentor-protégé relationship grows, so does the extent of the protégés own autonomy and self-evaluation of their competencies and abilities to direct their own assignments. The roles of educator, motivator and enabler should consistently be enacted by the military social worker as mentor, and independent problem-solving, effective time management and team-building skills should be recognised and rewarded through positive verbal and written feedback. Principles of basic adult learning principles and social work roles are discussed in detail in this chapter under the section dealing with the knowledge of the military social worker and will not be elaborated upon in this section.

Feedback should nurture the confidence of the protégé to reflect positively on mistakes made and to be encouraged to view them as building blocks to prevent the same errors in future. Sweeney (2003b:2) is of the opinion that mentors need to understand that the protégé's future good judgment will depend learning from the poor judgment of their past experiences. In circumstances like these, Bell (2000:55) encourages mentors to show empathy and to be receptive to the feelings of the protégé. The mentor-protégé relationship should be strong enough to support the protégé to express bad judgments. A safe environment should be created where the protégé can experience that his or her feelings are validated and appreciated. When the protégé asks questions about the errors that have been made, they must feel that the mentor is tuned in and is aligning discussions in the direction of their needs. Feedback should not just focus on the mistakes, but should equally underline the

positive areas in which the protégé had developed and excelled. Fourie and Meyer (2002:5) underline the importance of feedback relating to the learning process and how the performance of the protégé can improve.

Sweeney (2003b:2) encourages mentors to share their knowledge and wisdom with their protégés and the author suggests that one of the best ways of sharing high-level information is to allow the protégé to "shadow" the mentor during work. Whereas Sweeney (2003b:2) refers to the term "**shadow**", Botha (2000b:130) refers to the term **modelling**. Through modelling the supervisor will intentionally and unintentionally teach the supervisee by means of resources such as reading reports on interviews, listening to recordings of interviews, studying video recordings of interviews, observation through one-way screens or sitting in on interviews conducted by the supervisor or other social workers. Other techniques of learning can also be utilised, for example, co-therapy with the supervisor or verbal case presentation.

Through shadowing, the protégé can observe what the mentor does, how it is done and can ask questions on the spot as to why it is done in a particular way. The *what* and *how* can be learned through observation; however, the *why* is information that can only be learned by the protégé by means of directing questions to the mentor. What the protégé asks will prompt the mentor to unpack and articulate their thought processes, weighing of alternatives and choices, and the reasons for making the choices they did. Systems theory can be utilised to stimulate systems thinking which can benefit the OC in the manner they think through the problem-solving process.

Mentoring goals can also be achieved through live supervision (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002:156), when the military social worker as mentor, for example, accompanies the OC to one of their Officer Commanding Staff Council meetings, where the OC meets with the Staff Officers. The communication, negotiation, conflict management, relationship and meeting skills can be learnt through **observation** and discussed afterwards. Other areas which can be discussed in retrospect after such a meeting is the OC's personal mastery in the area of managing his own authority and power in relation to other colleagues, the way in which inputs are marginalised for the sake of his own decision-making, the way in which boundaries were negated, or whether answers to questions were given instead of admitting that they too do not

have the answers. How Officers Commanding respond under pressure or when frustrated are all areas that can be observed and discussed.

The OC can also learn **interviewing skills** (Miley et al., 1995:177; De Jong & Berg, 2002:21; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003:147) in the context of communicating the position of their unit members who are not staffed and the impact of a lack of resources on service delivery. The mentor can enhance interviewing skills by means of the techniques of role-plays and role reversals. This process enables the protégé to access the information they need to acquire for their own growth and how to communicate sensitive matters effectively to their superiors.

This phase should once again focus on **joint evaluation** of the development and integration of knowledge and skills of the OC in their work environment. Areas of development are strengthened and weaknesses are acknowledged as areas that require continued attention. The military social worker and the OC should assess what knowledge is still lacking that contributed to existing weaknesses, and what learning opportunities should be built into the mentoring programme to address the weaknesses. Joint evaluation sets the climate to determine whether the mentor-protégé relationship can be terminated or whether outstanding learning needs should be addressed. The fourth and last phase, the ending phase, covers what should be evaluated and what factors determine whether the mentor-protégé relationship can finally be terminated.

6.6   THE ENDING PHASE

Funk and Kochan (1999:99) refer to this phase as the long-term status phase. The long-term effects and the evolvement of the mentoring relationship are evaluated and terminated in this phase. The focus is here on **professional development** and **transition**.

6.6.1 Continuous monitoring and evaluation of professional development

Continuous monitoring of progress made in the achievement of goals stipulated in the contract ensure that the mentor and protégé can both reach consensus (or not) as to whether the mentoring goals have been achieved within the period of time that was set out for mentoring. The ability of the protégé to execute tasks independently of the mentor would be another way of determining the successful or failed outcome

of the process. In the case of supervision in the Directorate Social Work, the SWP (Standard Work Procedure) No 34/98 (1998:1-5) refers to monthly feedback reports of the supervisee and the quarterly progress reports compiled by both the supervisor and supervisee to assist as valuable information to evaluate the achievement of supervision goals. Likewise, The Department of Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999: 1-9, Appendices A-C) makes provision in Appendix B: Mentoring progress report: DOD and Appendix C: Mentor evaluation report: DOD, for reports that can be utilised to evaluate the mentoring process in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF).

Botha (2000b:264-269) provides the supervisor with an example of an evaluation report. This report includes the following headings:

"-Orientation regarding the organisation's administration.

 -Ability to build professional relationships with the client system.

 -Knowledge and skills in social work intervention with the client system (individuals, groups and communities).

 -Ability in the building of personnel relations.

 -Management of work and productivity (work performance).

 -Supervision (utilisation, preparation, execution of instructions).

 -Professional contribution and professional development.

 -Summary."

These criteria can be utilised by chief military social workers to add to existing structures of monthly feedback and quarterly progress reports within the Department of Defence (DOD). Since the above content of Botha's (2000b:264-269) evaluation report is related to the goals and functions of supervision, the military social worker can adapt these criteria so that they are relevant to the goals and functions in mentoring.

The 360-degree assessment involves other people besides the OC, and an open meeting should be scheduled during which all the key role players can contribute to their evaluation of the performance effectiveness of the Officers Commanding. The assessment tools, for example, the Learning Style Inventory (KOLB) (Spangenberg, 1990:73-76), the Keirsey Bate Temperament Scale (Keirsey, 1998), or the Foci for

Coaching Executives (Figure 2.2, Kilburg, 2000:63), wheel of life, or SWOT analysis are again completed, reviewed and discussed. Discussions and feedback can revolve around the following issues.

- Were the goals and objectives in the contract achieved and, if change did not occur in some areas, why not?

- If the mentor-protégé relationship was unsuccessful, was it the result of poor adaptive behaviour of the OC to a mentor-protégé relationship or resistance to change? Was it due to the chief military social worker's under-estimation of the severity of the needs/problems of the Officers Commanding, over-estimation of their own ability to influence change within Officers Commanding, inaccurate assessment, lack of clarity on the coaching (mentoring) contract or poor choice and poor integration of knowledge and skills (Kilburg, 2000:66).

- Were the assessment tools accurate or should other standardised scales have been used?

- What knowledge, skills and environmental circumstances contributed to successful outcomes?

- Is the OC able to integrate the knowledge and skills that were learned in the workplace and personal lives?

- Is the OC experiencing more work/career satisfaction or work-family-life balance than before mentoring was initiated?

- What value has been gained from the evaluation for the OC and the organisation?

- How can the evaluative results improve future organisational mentoring programmes?

The military social worker should be prepared not only to focus on reasons why the mentoring process was a success, but must be realistic about the failures that do occur. Johnson and Yanca (2007:288) alert the researcher to the idea that "Evaluation is not just a matter of measuring success but also of measuring failure. Finding out that something is not working allows the client and the worker to change the plan." Under such circumstances the military social worker and the Officers Commanding (OCs) need to determine what new actions will be required to remove

barriers to effective goal achievement. The contract should be adjusted, as well as the period of mentoring adapted to accommodate the new actions.

Once all the goals and objectives have been achieved and the protégé can function effectively and independently, then the mentor and protégé can start to disengage gradually from the mentor-protégé relationship. Johnson and Yanca (2007:296) point out that, apart from termination taking place once the contracting goals have been met and the mentoring period concluded, it is also possible to identify other factors to account for why the partnership relationship can terminate prematurely. These reasons are as follows:

- "The worker is ending employment.

- The worker is transferred to a new position.

- The worker is absorbed in plans for a new job."

Johnson and Yanca (2007:296-297) encourage the worker to allow the client to ventilate their anger and resentment for breaking the working agreement. Such debriefing is important to prevent unresolved issues impacting on the new worker to whom the client is transferred. Officers Commanding and military social workers are both subject to transfers, promotions and international deployments (six months and longer) that could possibly relocate them to another province and even abroad, and so these factors can also contribute to premature termination of the mentor-protégé relationship. The military social worker should consider in advance those factors that may impact on the continuation of the mentor-protégé relationship and include them in the contract.

6.6.2 Transition

Transition is the last aspect under discussion of the ending phase. In the ending phase the mentor and the mentee (protégé) are regarded as **equal colleagues** based on the professional growth in experience and knowledge that the mentee undergone. The mentor-mentee relationship develops from a professional one into a friendship relationship (Funk & Kochan, 1999:99). According to Sweeney (2003a:2), the mentor will initially take on a directive role, but as the relationship grows towards transition, the protégé becomes more skilful and reveals professional maturity. The mentor now performs roles related to that of a supporter and encourager, and thus

less directive. The protégé might even link up with other "mentors" and in this way mentoring will become a team effort that will promote and strengthen interdependence and collaboration. The protégé develops other peer relationships that are beneficial once the transition from formal to informal mentoring takes place. The benefits of such a diverse mentoring process is that the process in itself becomes enriched. The progress of the protégé accelerates in such a way that the mentoring process can be terminated.

Bell (2000:56) advises the mentor not to terminate the mentor-protégé relationship with the mentor emphasising his or her own brilliance and warnings, but to give recognition and praise that would enhance the protégé's confidence. Dispensing final cautionary words should be avoided. Botha (2000:131) agrees with Bell (2000:56) and advises the supervisor to ensure that the atmosphere during the termination session is not emotionally charged and filled with uncertainties. The supervisor should leave the supervisee with hope and positive motivation.

Johnson and Yanca (2007:299-302) draw attention to the client's **feelings related to termination**. They describe termination as equal to a grief process for some, and the social worker should allow for enough time to enable the client to deal with ambivalent feelings associated with termination. The individual's values and experiences as well as cultural attitudes and beliefs about death can be reflected in the way in which they deal with termination. The social worker should be prepared to deal with such culminations. Other clients may experience termination as a relief, and this too the social worker may have difficulty in dealing with, since such feedback might be personalised. The worker should take cognisance of their own feelings and ability to skilfully terminate the working partnership. When social workers downplay their own feelings of discomfort, that's when the possibility arises that they may fail to enable the client to express their feelings around termination. When the disengagement process is minimised, the social worker may also lose an opportunity for further growth in the client to deal with feelings of grief and loss.

Gradual disengagement enables both the mentor and protégé to evaluate the maintenance of the integrated knowledge and skills, and allows the protégé to discuss their independent functioning. Instead of continuing with regular scheduled mentoring sessions, the meetings can now take place at longer intervals: for example, instead of meeting every two weeks, follow-up can now occur once a

month. **Future planning** can take place as to how the protégé plans to maintain change and what resources are going to be utilised to ensure sustainability of the change. Informal mentoring can be discussed on a consultative basis with the existing mentor, a new mentor or peers. Other colleagues can also be identified. Other resources such as journaling, attending conferences and workshops are further means of contributing to maintenance. Some protégés may even embark on their own journey of becoming mentors to advance the careers of others. Military social workers and Officers Commanding should accept from the start of the mentoring relationship that termination is an integral part of any working partnership and any process.

6.7   SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE SOCIAL WORK METHODS OF INTERVENTION, SUPERVISION AND THE MENTORING PROCESS

In order to emphasise the differences between the social work methods of intervention, supervision and the mentoring process, Table 5.1: Process in casework and Table 6.1: Different processes in mentoring will be discussed. These discussions will also refer to sections 5.2.1.2 (discussing the group work process) and 5.2.1.3(b)(i) (discussing the supervision process).

The casework, group work, supervision and the mentoring processes are characterised by an orderly structured process. The casework, group work, supervision goals and mentoring goals and functions can be executed through such an orderly structured process. The activities in each phase/stage of these respective processes are specifically highlighted. This will guide the military social worker as mentor in their early experiences of working through the mentoring process. The first two phases/stages of the mentoring process as indicated in Table 6.1: Different processes in mentoring (initiation, pre-coaching, introduction, data gathering, planning, contract), are very much reflected in the assessment and planning/contract phase of the case work intervention process. In contrast to this, coaching, ongoing action, collaboration/problem-solving/personal, professional framework and professional development phases/stages, strongly reflect the action phase or middle phase of the casework and supervision process (Tables 5.1 and 6.1 and section 5.2.1.3(b)(i)). What the mentoring process refers to as the follow-up, re-assessment,

transition and termination phase/stage, the casework and supervision intervention process refers to as the evaluation and termination process.

The way the client or protégé is linked up with the case work intervention process or mentoring process will depend on the referral, intake and contact procedures of the specific organisation. In the military milieu each unit has a decentralised military social worker to whom clients are referred to either by themselves, family members, supervisors, staff-officers or OCs. If it is a problem of an employee at person level (personal level), then the member would have a choice to get involved in the case work process or not. If it is a work-related problem, it would be in the member's best interest to enrol in the social work intervention process. However, the client can exercise his or her self-determination to participate or not to participate. It is preferred that the client utilises their unit social worker. Should there be reasons that this would not benefit the client, then such exceptional reasons would be taken into consideration. The client can be referred to a social worker of another unit. If expertise does not exist internally to deal with the specific problem or need, then (provided that finances are available) the member can be referred externally to professional persons in private practice. The reality is that the way that clients are involved in the casework process can restrict their choice of who they would like to select as their military social worker. This is created by the structure, positioning, availability of sufficient manpower and equal representivity in terms of gender and race of military social workers in the SAMHS.

Literature on the mentoring process reflects a flexible procedure on the part of the protégé. Protégés choose their mentors and if the mentors do not meet the requirements that the protégés expect their mentors to have, then the mentoring process does not proceed further than the pre-coaching or contact phase. The mentoring process is thus influenced by the way in which the organisation designs its management procedures of planning and executing a mentoring programme. The relationship in the casework process is just as important, though matching factors in the intake and contact phase does not play a determinative role for the outcome of the casework goals. Social work ethics, values and principles that guide social workers in their practice bridge the negative barriers that could possibly contribute to therapeutic relationship strain (Hepworth & Larsen, 1993; Miley et al., 1995; Sheafor & Horejsi, 2003). Social workers are also skilled in various techniques and roles to

address these barriers that could impact on the relationship. Social workers are also professional enough to realize that the self-determination rights and decision-making abilities of the clients should be respected should they choose not to proceed in the casework process beyond the contact phase.

It is evident that Chao (1997) (in Table 6.1) did not utilise a separate phase for evaluation and appeared to have incorporated it into the separation phase. The context in which social workers will use the term "separation" will be associated with the termination phase, though Chao (1997) refers to it as an umbrella phase for two phases (action, evaluation). This is the conclusion the researcher has drawn as nowhere in the termination phase are activities regarding evaluation mentioned. The evaluation phase in Chao's process, is not elaborated upon, and the length of mentoring (three to eight years) is considered extensive compared to Sweeney (2003a:2), who indicated that the process could be three years. However, with additional support it could be extended to four years. The Director Naval Personnel Order on Mentorship (2001:3) indicates that Naval Officers are enrolled in a mentorship programme over a period of eighteen months to three years; however, informal mentorship can proceed outside the SA Naval mentorship programme.

Peters (1996:41) does not mention the contact phase, and the implementation of the action plan is not pertinently highlighted. The processes described by Koonce (1994:37-40) and Sweeney (2003a:3-4) in Table 6.1, are regarded as specific and broad; as a military social worker the researcher could identify with their use as a mentor. Their processes reflected more clearly the casework process and brought a sense of simplification, confidence and ability to transfer existing knowledge and skills to the field of mentorship.

Chapter Five dealt extensively with the existing knowledge, skills and values that the military social worker already has pertaining to the casework, group work and supervision processes. Each of these methods of intervention in social work equips the military social worker as mentor to transfer existing knowledge and skills to the process of mentoring. Military social workers might not have specialised knowledge and skills in the field of mentoring or coaching, but the foundation of their social work knowledge, skills and values does provide a point of departure to orientate and train military social workers to be the mentors of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS. The similarities and differences between the intervention processes in social work and

supervision in comparison with the mentoring process provided a deeper look at whether military social workers will be competent in the role of mentor.

6.8 CONCLUSION

The mentoring processes of four authors have been outlined and one author's mentoring process was unpacked. The mentoring procedure should be utilised as an effective guideline for implementation in practice. The pre-planning and the planning phase of the mentoring process highlighted the importance of effective communication between the stakeholders to ensure that the mentoring programme is implemented successfully. The Department of Defence Policy on Mentorship would be the directive to ensure that mentorship programmes are implemented successfully.

The pre-planning phase included the description of the organisational goals for mentoring, and for the way that mentors and protégé should be selected and orientated. The training of the mentors was discussed extensively, as well as the factors involved in matching. The training section also requires military social workers to assess their personality traits and knowledge of both the content and process of mentoring. Military social workers function competently in their roles as military social workers, but they should also develop their knowledge, skills and experience concerning mentoring. The areas highlighted in the training section are a positive steppingstone for further expertise development, training and growth in the field of mentoring.

The application of the mentoring process is important for successful mentoring to occur. However, a fit in the area of personal characteristics is also a contributing factor for a successful mentorship programme. Hence, there is a need for the inclusion of sensitive discussions around race and gender discrimination in the workplace. The researcher is of the opinion that military social workers, as change agents, should understand that intervention in these areas is critical practice and requires creative intervention strategies.

The role of the multi-professional team and experienced line-function Officers Commanding as mentors were also reflected upon. These line-function Officers Commanding can be utilised as resources and alternative options to develop the Officer Commanding. Clear boundaries have thus also been defined between the

role of military social workers, line-function Officers Commanding and other multi-professional team members. Such boundary management is important to maintain accountability and professional ethics.

In the planning phase the preparation of both the mentor and protégé, the importance of establishing a trustworthy partnership relationship between the Officer Commanding and the military social worker was emphasised. This type of partnership relationship is regarded as a good platform from which to achieve the mentoring goals.

The middle phase of the mentoring process dealt with the integration of the military social worker's knowledge, skills and values with respect to the social work intervention processes and supervision, for example, implementation of skills and techniques such as assessment, interviewing, questioning, active and reflective listening, giving and receiving feedback, encouragement, empowerment, role modelling, respect, confidentiality and evaluation. These skills and techniques are applied to work through the contracted goals and objectives of the mentorship programme. The tasks of the mentor pertaining to problem-solving, personal and professional framework were discussed.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the mentoring process, evaluation methods and tools were identified and discussed from the beginning to termination phase of the mentoring process. Evaluation and termination are important phases of the mentoring process. They enable both the mentor and protégé to make immediate adjustments to the mentorship programme. The ending phase contributes to valuable information being obtained to improve future mentorship programmes in the military organisation. Once the role, task, knowledge and skills demands as discussed in Chapter Five have been integrated into the mentoring process, it will be implemented with greater competence and confidence by the military social worker as mentor. Continuous practice and experience in the implementation of the mentoring process will establish military social workers in yet another field of service delivery beyond occupational social work.

In conclusion, the difference between mentoring, counselling and supervision appear to be situated in the differences in the roles of mentor, counsellor and supervisor. The supervisor role, for example, is not therapeutic in nature, whereas the counsellor

role can be of a therapeutic nature. The difference is not situated in the definition of mentor, counsellor and supervisor. The casework, supervision and mentoring processes are all processes that enable, support and encourage learning to take place, hence the similarities in the definitions.

Chapter Seven will provide the empirical data related to the theoretical knowledge, skills and values of the military social worker in practice.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS: KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND VALUES OF THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKER TO EXECUTE MENTORING

7.1   INTRODUCTION

Occupational social work creates a connection between the social work profession and the world of work. It also generates specialist knowledge in the area of work that will inform occupational social work practice and policy (Mor Barak & Bargal, 2000:4). Against this background, the military social worker can therefore be afforded access to opportunities such as mentoring as part of new initiatives, legislation and policies that were adopted in the workplace, for example, the DOD Policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action (South African National Defence Force Order, 1998) and the DOD Policy on Mentorship (Department of Defence Instruction, 1999:1-9, Appendices A-C).

Social workers are governed by the Social Work Code of Ethics (RSA SAC SSP Act of 1987) that provides guidelines for social workers concerning their conduct. It is therefore imperative that the protocols stipulated in this particular Act are adhered to in order to avoid crossing the boundaries of other professions in the field of mentoring.

Chief military social workers and those with a higher ranking than Captain who will render a mentoring service to Officers Commanding will require the necessary knowledge, skills and attitude as to how to incorporate the Officers Commanding into a mentoring process. The chief military social worker will have to know which kind of mentoring process to follow and how existing intervention methods in social work service delivery and supervision can be applied to carry out their role as mentors to Officers Commanding.

The objectives of this study were to provide an overview of military social work in the SANDF (Chapter Two), to describe the work environment of the Officer Commanding and the challenges of their functions, tasks and roles in the SAMHS (Chapters Three

and Four), to describe the required knowledge, skills and values of military social workers as mentors (Chapter Five), and to provide chief military social workers and those who have a higher ranking than Captain with a framework for the mentoring process and to relate it to the casework, group work and supervision processes in social work (Chapter Six).

These objectives were formulated to achieve the aim of the study, which was to provide chief military social workers with a framework for a mentoring process for Officers Commanding in the South African Military Health Service (SAMHS).

Chapter Seven discusses the results of the study that was undertaken with the military social workers.

7.2   EMPIRICAL STUDY

The following sections describe the process of the empirical research undertaken.

7.2.1   Research method

The research method was exploratory in nature as the researcher was aware of the range of training military social workers were exposed to. Whether there was a link between the methods in social work intervention processes and the supervision and mentoring processes, however, had not been researched before from a social work perspective.

The universe was restricted to chief military social workers in specialist posts (rank of Captain) and those with a higher ranking from Major to Colonel in all nine provinces of South Africa. This restriction has been explained in Chapter One. Where the researcher refers to military social workers, the reference is to chief military social workers in specialist posts and those with a higher functional appointment and rank than Captain. This specific category of military social workers also includes civilian military social workers.

Quantitative research methods were utilised by means of closed and open questions in a questionnaire format.

7.2.2 Sampling and data gathering

Permission was obtained from the respective Staff Officers for Area Military Health Formation, Tertiary Military Health Formation and Mobile Formation (Appendix 7.1). Appendix 7.1 indicates that the researcher also undertook to make the results of the empirical study accessible to all the social workers whom participated. A questionnaire was used as data-collection method. The questionnaire (Appendix 7.2) was completed in groups in the respective provinces. The questionnaires were forwarded via the SAMHS internal confidential mail system to the Staff Officers and completed in groups either during in-service-training programmes or personnel meetings. The questionnaires were returned to the researcher via the SAMHS's confidential internal mail system.

De Vos (2001:155-156) believes that the group-administered questionnaire is an advantageous method of gathering information. This method saves both time and costs as a group of respondents is dealt with at one time, and consequently exposed to the same stimuli simultaneously.

The sample for this study represents all the chief military social workers in specialist posts and those with a higher ranking from Captain to Colonel. This specific method is referred to by De Vos (2001:198) as non-probability sampling, and more specifically purposive sampling, as all the military social workers who participated had the characteristics relevant to the research study. The universe that participated was 46 military social workers (N=46). Fifty (50) questionnaires were distributed to be completed; however, only 46 were completed in groups. Those who did not complete the questionnaires could not for reasons beyond their control. One Colonel was on a six-month military course, one Staff Officer was on annual leave (rank Lieutenant-Col), one Area Manager (rank of Major) was on deployment leave (returned from three-month deployment in Congo) and one operational specialist social worker (rank of Captain) was on three-month deployment in Burundi.

Data were gathered from 46 (N=46) participants. The questionnaire consisted of Section A, which provided identifying information, Section B deal with work information, Section C social work responsibilities, Section D experience of supervision, Section E supervision training, Section F experience as supervisor, Section G types of supervision, Section H occupational social work within the military

environment, Section I the internal and external environment of the Officers Commanding, Section J an overview of the functions and demands of Officers Commanding, Section K requirements for the military social worker to execute mentoring, Section L working relationships, Section M mentoring, Section N mentoring policies, procedure and legislation, Section O the mentoring process, Section P characteristics of the mentor, Section Q expectations of the protégé towards the mentor, and Section R training of the mentor.

The quantitative data are presented below in the form of tables and figures. The data were statistically analysed with the assistance of Ms Mariana Le Roux, a senior Psychology lecturer at the Psychology Department of the University Stellenbosch. The responses to open-ended questions were analysed and used to draw conclusions.

7.2.3 Identifying information

7.2.3.1 *Gender.* The first factor that was investigated was the gender of the military social workers. These findings are indicated in Table 7.1.

TABLE 7.1: GENDER OF THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS

GENDER	FREQUENCY (f)	PERCENTAGE (%)
Male	9	19,6
Female	37	80,4
TOTAL	**46**	**100**

N = 46

Table 7.1 shows a vast difference in representation between male and female military social workers. The 37 (80,4%) female participants clearly outnumbered the nine (19,6%) male participants. These findings correspond with those of Sosik and Godshalk (2000:117), who acknowledge that professions such as teaching and nursing cater mostly for female mentors. This would thus also be true for the profession of social work and will influence the gender composition between the Officers Commanding and the military social worker in the mentoring dyad. With the SANDF regarded as a predominantly male environment, one is likely to find a heterogeneous mentor-protégé mentoring relationship (with respect to gender) in the SAMHS between the military social worker and the Officer Commanding.

7.2.3.2 ***Language***. The findings are as follows.

TABLE 7.2: LANGUAGE OF THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS

LANGUAGE	f	%
Afrikaans	31	67,4
English	37	80,4
Xhosa	6	13,0
Zulu	8	17,4
Sotho	4	8,7
Tswana	7	15,2
Other	2	4,3

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

The majority of the participants, that is 37 (80,4%), are able to communicate in English, whereas 31 (67,4%) participants indicated that they are proficient in Afrikaans. The third most spoken language is Zulu, which eight (17,4%) participants identified as a language they can speak. This was followed by language proficiency in Tswana (7 or 15,2%), Xhosa (6 or 13,0%) and Sotho (4 or 8,7%). Two (4,3%) participants indicated their language proficiency in other languages such as Swahili and Ndebele respectively.

A close relation is depicted in the findings for English (37 or 80,4%) and Afrikaans (31 or 67,4%) in comparison to Zulu (8 or 17,4%), Tswana (7 or 15,2%) and Xhosa (6or 13,0%) languages amongst military social workers.

The post-1994 integration of the SANDF impacted on language representivity in the SANDF. Most of the participants who participated in this research were from Area Military Health Formation (35 or 76,0% - see Table 7.4), which also explains the diversity in the languages. Area Military Health Formation represents military social workers from Gauteng, Northern Cape, North West, Limpopo, Cape Town, Bloemfontein and Mpumalanga. These areas each have its own dominant language. This diversity of languages will contribute towards bridging possible barriers between the mentor and the protégé in the mentoring relationship.

7.2.3.3 Qualifications. The data collected on qualifications are reflected in Table 7.3. Participants had only one choice by selecting their highest qualification.

TABLE 7.3: QUALIFICATIONS OF THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS

QUALIFICATIONS	f	%
Higher Diploma in Social Work	5	10,9
BA Social Work or BA Soc Sc (3 years)	5	10,9
BA Social Work or BA Soc Sc (4 years)	17	36,9
Honours degree in Social Work	5	10,9
Masters degree in Social Work	12	26,0
Doctorate in Social Work	1	2,2
Other	1	2,2
TOTAL	**46**	**100**

N=46

The data indicated that a majority of participants (17 or 36,9%) obtained their social work qualification through a BA Social Work or BA Soc Sc (4 years) degree, whereas 12 of the participants (26,0%) are practising military social work with a Masters degree. The third largest group of highest qualifications indicated three similar results for a Higher Diploma in Social Work, BA Social Work or BA Soc Sc (3 years) and Honours in Social Work, for example each represented five participants (10,9%). All three qualifications indicated that five (10,9%) participants were qualified in these categories of qualification. One (2,2%) participant is qualified with a doctorate in social work, whereas the other qualification indicated by one participant (2,2%) was identified as a two-year diploma in human resource management, training and development. As a whole, more than one quarter of the 46 participants have a postgraduate qualification. These findings indicate that military social workers are not just satisfied with their basic social work qualifications, but are willing to invest and develop their professional knowledge, skills and values on a postgraduate level.

7.2.4 Work information

7.2.4.1   Headquarter or formation. The following data represent the headquarter or formation in which the military social worker is employed.

TABLE 7.4: HEADQUARTER OR FORMATION

HEADQUARTER OR FORMATION	f	%
SAMHS Headquarter (HQ)	1	2,2
Area Military Health Formation	35	76,0
Tertiary Military Health Formation	9	19,6
Mobile Military Health Formation	1	2,2
TOTAL	46	100

N=46

More than a third (35 or 76,0%) of the participants who participated in this study are employed in Area Military Health Formation, while nine participants (19,6%) are from Tertiary Military Health Formation. The other two participants were from SAMHS HQ (2,2%) and Mobile Military Health Formation (2,2%) respectively. These findings indicate that the military social workers are well distributed across South Africa, as Area Military Health Formation's military social workers (35 or 76%) are available and accessible in all nine provinces, whereas Tertiary Military Health Formation's military social workers (9 or 19,6%) are accessible from Cape Town (Wynberg, Simon's Town), Thaba Tshwane and Bloemfontein.

7.2.4.2   Years of work experience. The participants' years of work experience are distributed in a way that reflects the former defence forces and civilian organisations in which they were employed prior to and after 1994 (Table 7.5).

TABLE 7.5: YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE

YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE	0-5		5-10		10-15		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
South African Defence Force	8	17,4	4	8,7	1	2,2	13	**28,3**
South African National Defence Force (SANDF)	8	17,4	15	32,6	22	47,8	45	**97,8**
Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
Non-statutory forces	7	15,2	3	6,5	2	4,3	12	26,0
Other welfare Organisations	11	24,0	5	10,9	3	6,5	19	**41,3**
TOTAL	34	74,0	27	59,0	28	61,0		

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Thirteen (28,3%) participants indicated that they had worked in the South African Defence Force (SADF). Eight (17,4%) of the 13 participants had been employed for at least five years, whereas four (8,7%) had been employed for between five to ten years in the SADF.

One member (2,2%) did not participate in the category for the SANDF, hence only 45 participants instead of 46 participants are reflected. A majority of 22 (47,8%) participants had been employed for at least 15 years in the SANDF, whereas 15

(32, 6%) had been employed for at least ten years. None of the participants had previously been employed by the former TBVC countries. Seven (15,2%) of the 12 (26,0%) participants in the non-statutory category had been employed for at least five years. Of the 19 participants (41,3%), 11 (24,0%) were employed in welfare organisations specified as Child Welfare, CAFDA, Department of Social Development and FAMSA. These statistical data show a broad variety of work experience in terms of years and different organisations. Such diversity of exposure will contribute positively to mentoring the Officers Commanding.

In addition to the above, Figure 7.1 illustrates the data for the total years of work experience of the 46 participants, that is the total sum of work experience in the SADF, SANDF, TBVC, other non-statutory forces and other welfare organisations. It should be noted that four (8,7%) participants did not provide the data required for Figure 7.1.
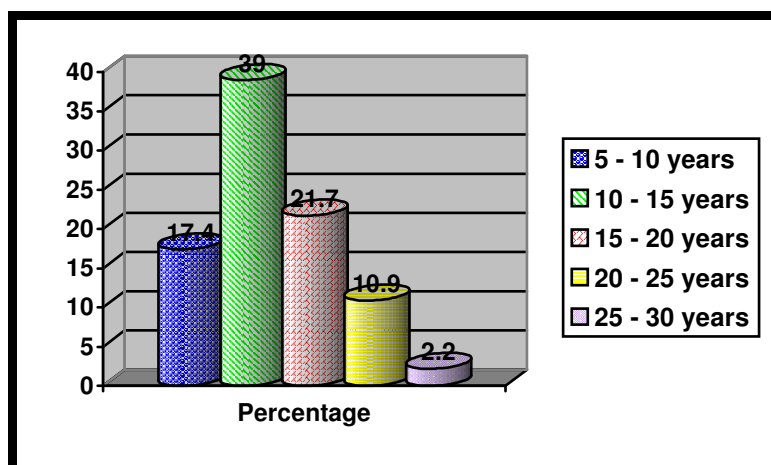
FIGURE 7.1: TOTAL YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE

N=46

None of the participants indicated total work experience of between 0-5 years. These findings are in line with the fact that this study focused only on participants who are chief military social workers in specialist posts and those with a higher military rank than Captain. The participants in specialist posts are appointed in these posts only if they have six and more years of work experience. These guidelines are stipulated in the Directorate Social Work's personnel management core's official documentation.

Figure 7.1 indicates that the two highest percentages of work experience were firstly in the category between 10 to 15 years (18 or 39,0%) and secondly in the category between 15 to 20 years (10 or 21,7%). Eight (17,4%) have between five to ten years of work experience. Five (10,9%) have a total work experience of at least 25 years in comparison to one (2,2%) participant who has at least 30 years work experience.

The above results indicate that the years of work experience correlate well will what the literature defines as appropriate for a mentor. Authors such as Barcus and Wilkinson (1995:20-16), Parsloe (1995:73), Shea (2003:1,9) and Cranwell-Ward et al. (2004:26-27) describe the mentor as traditionally being more senior than the protégé. Although only one (2,2%) participant matched the rank of Officer Commanding (Colonel) as per Table 7.6: Rank, the results of total years of work experience of the military social workers place them in a senior position in the workplace. The fact that one quarter of the military social workers (26,0%) have Masters degrees adds to the quality of the knowledge and skills that military social workers bring to the mentoring relationship.

7.2.4.3 ***Rank***. The participants' rank data are reflected in Table 7.6.

TABLE 7.6: RANK

RANK	f	%
Captain (Capt)	14	30,4
Major (Maj)	17	36,9
Lieutenant-Colonel (Lt Col)	11	24,0
Colonel (Col)	1	2,2
Civilian	3	6,5
TOTAL	46	100

N=46

It is evident from Table 7.6 that the Majors (17 or 36,9%) are predominantly the highest rank represented in this empirical study, followed by the Captains (14 or 30,4%) and the Lieutenant-Colonels (11 or 24,0%). The lowest rank represented is the civilians (3 or 6,5%) and the Colonel (1 or 2,2%). It should be considered that the military overwhelmingly employs uniformed members, thus the civilians are not well represented. The post structure (see Figure 2.1: Structure of the Directorate Social Work) of the Directorate Social Work, caters for only two posts of Colonel, hence these data are well represented in this rank category.

Irrespective of the fact that only 1 (1,1%) of the participants matches the rank of the Officer Commanding (Colonel), Fourie (1991:36) endorses the professional and specialist position of mentors over their protégés. Wright and Werther (1991:29) acknowledge neither the advantage of the mentor being a peer nor a supervisor of the protégé, because in the professional and experience context, the knowledge and skills of the professional person are regarded as an asset rather than a deficit.

7.2.4.4   Work positions. Table 7.7 reflects the work positions that the participants hold in the Directorate Social Work. It should be noted that social workers who occupy specialists posts and area managers are also partly responsible for executing production work, hence the fact that the respondents had more than one choice which they could exercise, depending on the work they do.

TABLE 7.7: WORK POSITIONS

WORK POSITIONS	f	%
Production social worker	18	39
Research and development specialist	2	4,3
Workplace development specialist	6	13,0
Personnel development specialist	6	13,0
Operational development specialist	6	13,0
Family pathology specialist	2	4,3
Violence and Abuse specialist	1	2,2
Chemical Substance specialist	2	4,4
Training development specialist	1	2,2
Area Manager	9	19,6
Staff Officer two: Level three (Area/Tertiary assistants to SO 1 Level three)	4	8,7
Staff Officer one (SO1): Level three	2	4,3
Staff Officer one: Level four	11	24,0
Policy and Planning Manager: Level two	1	2,2
Performance Manager: Level two	0	0

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Of the 46 participants, 18 (39%) are production social workers who carry out direct social work with clients. More than half (26 or 56,5%) of the 46 participants indicated that they occupy specialist posts (from research and development through to training development specialist in Table 7.7). Nine area managers (19,6%) are responsible for the performance management of those in production and specialist posts, whilst 11 (24%) Staff Officers are managing those in specialists and production posts, with the support of the area managers. These 11 (24%) SO1s on level four align with the rank percentage of 24% (see Table 7.6: Rank) of the Lt Cols. The SO1s on Level 4 report directly to the SO1s (2 or 4,3%) on Level 3. Only one (2,2%) participant is responsible for policy and planning in the Directorate Social Work.

It appears from Table 7.7 that the majority of military social workers will be able to render a generic and a specialist service to Officers Commanding. A variety of posts are covered, which provides for a diverse range of interventions. These results correspond with Garber and McNelis's point (1995:1726) to the effect that military social work "…encompasses a full range of generalist and specialist setting and requires skills that range from individual therapy to policy practice". Luitjies (2000:12) further explains that such diversity in services implies either general or specific fields of social work, which demands knowledge and skill that vary from individual therapy to policy formulation. This is the range of services that military social workers will be able to render to Officers Commanding in their mentor role.

7.2.5 Social work responsibilities

7.2.5.1 Intervention methods and functions in social work. The methods and functions used by military social workers to perform their work are indicated in Table 7.8.

TABLE 7.8: INTERVENTION METHODS AND FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL WORK

INTERVENTION METHODS AND FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL WORK	f	%
9.1 Casework	36	78,3
9.2 Group work	28	60,9
9.3 Community work	36	78,3
9.4 Research	30	65,2
9.5 Administration	39	84,8
9.6 Management	32	69,6
9.7 Supervision	17	37,0

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Most participants reported administration (39 or 84,8%), casework (36 or 78,3%) and community work (36, 78,3%) as the most utilised methods and function in their daily work of social work service delivery. Management (32 or 69,6%), research (30 or 65,2%), group work (28 or 60,9%) and then supervision (17 or 37,0%) followed. Administration is indicated as the most utilised function. This should be considered in the context of the accountability measure for social workers, for example, compliance with the Social Service Professions Act (Act 110 of 1978), which demands updated report writing and maintaining statistical data.

Supervision (17 or 37,0%) is rated as the lowest used function. This can be explained by the fact that this is a specialist post. Only six personnel development specialists (6 or 13,0%) (responsible for supervision) participated in this study (refer to Table 7.7) and the utility of supervision also depends on how many social workers are on supervision. Other participants who completed the section on supervision could possibly have been area managers and staff officers who are qualified as supervisors and attends to this function when personnel development specialists are on military courses or on deployments outside the country. It is evident, however, that the group 3work method is not often used by the participants in their areas of service delivery.

7.2.6 Experience of supervision

7.2.6.1 *Experience of supervision.* The following data reflect whether the participants did or did not receive supervision in the former South African Defence Force (SADF) and the present South African National Defence Force (SANDF).

TABLE 7.9: EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISION

EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISION	YES		NO		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
SADF	8	17,4	4	8,7	**12**	**26,1**
SANDF	32	69,6	2	4,3	**24**	**73,9**
TOTAL	**40**	**87,0**	**6**	**13,0**	**46**	**100**

N=46

From Table 7.9 it is evident that supervision is regarded as a priority, hence 32 (69,6%) military social workers did receive supervision in the current SANDF, compared to only two (4,3%) who did not receive supervision. Eight (17,4%)

participants indicated that they received supervision in the former SADF, compared to four (8,7%) who did not receive supervision. Overall the trend appears to be positive as 40 (87,0%) military social workers did receive supervision compared to six (13,0%) who have no supervision experience as a supervisee.

The six (13,0%) participants who did not receive supervision indicated the following reasons:

- The participant joined the SANDF after already being employed 13 years at the participants' previous place of employment, and underwent a two-week orientation programme in the military;

- No supervisor was allocated to the participant when the participant joined the SADF;

- Two members indicated that the workload was too much and no one was interested in supervision;

- The participant reported that there was no supervision at the time when the participant was appointed in the SADF. However, the participant was guided by senior military social workers who taught the participant a lot (peer or informal supervision).

From the above findings it can be concluded that since the former SADF the value of supervision has been recognised for the better and that more social workers had received supervision in the current SANDF. This can also be linked with the fact that a supervision standard work procedure had been compiled as a guideline for the practice of supervision (Command SWP No 34/98, 1998).

Orientation, peer and informal supervision, however, had taken place where formal supervision was not provided. Orientation is recognised in the supervision process of the Command Standard Work Procedure No 34/98: Execution of Social Work Supervision in Gauteng Medical Command (1998) and the mentoring process by authors such as Meyer and Fourie (2002), and Matulovich (1996) as a component of personnel development. Supervision received by colleagues is categorised as peer supervision or informal supervision by Coulshed and Mullender (2001:169). Informal supervision, though, is not regarded as a reliable form of supervision as, in the opinion of Coulshed and Mullender (2001), ad hoc discussions do not allow

individuals time to reflect on their work or to plan the supervision agenda beforehand and neither are such discussions recorded. This type of supervision is only valued when the social worker experiences a crisis.

7.2.6.2 Period of supervision. The findings on the period of the supervision of participants are indicated in Table 7.10.

TABLE 7.10: PERIOD OF SUPERVISION

PERIOD OF SUPERVISION	SADF		SANDF		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
One year	3	6,5	18	39,1	**21**	**45,7**
Two years	4	8,7	9	19,6	**13**	**28,3**
Other	2	4,3	4	8,7	**6**	**13,0**
TOTAL	**9**	**19,5**	**31**	**67,4**	**40**	**87,0**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

It should be noted that six participants (13,0%) did not provide their data for the duration of their supervision period. This correlates with the six participants who did not receive supervision, as indicated in Table 7.9. Some of the participants who could have been busy with supervision in the South African Defence Force (SADF) could have proceeded with supervision in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). Hence there could be an overlap in the way that the participants exercised their choice of completing this section.

Of the nine (19,5%) participants, three (6,5%) enrolled for one year and four (8,7%) participants for two years in supervision in the former SADF. In comparison to these findings, 21 (45,7%) participants received supervision for one year in the SANDF, whilst 13 (28,3%) participants were involved for two years in the current SANDF.

Two (4,3%) participants in the former SADF and four (8,7%) participants in the current SANDF, indicated other periods of duration of their supervision. The two participants in the SADF indicated their periods as three months and less than a year respectively. The four participants in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) indicated their periods each as four supervision sessions, four months, 18 months and three years respectively.

The period of supervision (between three months to maximum three years) that was indicated by the participants for supervision in the Directorate Social Work correlates with the period for mentoring. The mentoring period is identified by Koonce (1994: 40) as seven months, Peters (1996:41) as eight months, Chao (1997:16) as between two and five years and Sweeney (2003a:2) as between three and four years. In comparison, the Department on Defence (DOD) Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:3) indicated theirs as three years.

7.2.7 Supervision training

*7.2.7.1 **Formal supervision training.*** The following data reflect the formal supervision training of the participants inside or outside the military that would qualify them to give supervision in the SANDF.

TABLE 7.11: FORMAL SUPERVISION TRAINING

FORMAL SUPERVISION TRAINING	f	%
9.1 Yes	30	65,2
9.2 No	15	32,6
TOTAL	**45**	**97,8**

N=46

One participant did not answer this section. More than half (30 or 65,2%) of the participants indicated that they are qualified to give supervision, whereas one third (15 or 32,6%) of the participants reported that they have no formal supervision training that qualifies them to give supervision.

The 30 (65,2%) participants explained their formal supervision training by providing data on what type of training they received and the period of the training. Although 30 participants participated, only 28 members specified their formal training.

- Of the 30 (65,2%) participants, 27 (90%) participants indicated that they were formally selected to do the Directorate Social Work's in-house supervision course. The duration they indicated varied between six months, one year and 18 months. Some participants participated between 1983 and 1984, whereas others participated between 1992 to 2007. Participants indicated pre-course assignments, a two-week residential course and a year post-practical assignment during which the participant was allocated a mentor. This

information correlates with the Command SWP (Standard Work Procedure) 34/98: Execution of Social Work Supervision as discussed in Chapter Five.

- Of the above 27 (90%) participants, six (22%) participants indicated that besides their participation in the Directorate Social Work's in-house supervision programme, they also completed a module on supervision as part of their Master's degree.

- Of the 27 (90%) participants, two (7,4%) participants from the former non-statutory forces indicated that they had received a two-week in-house supervision course; however, they also attended the Directorate Social Work's in-house supervision course from 1999 to 2000.

- One member received six month's supervision in-house training at the Department of Health, but is not currently practising supervision in the SANDF.

It is evident that most (27 or 90%) of the participants had received their formal supervision training in the military by means of the Directorate Social Work's in-house supervision training. It can also be concluded that some of the participants had also been trained in supervision at university level and not just in the military. The training of supervisors is supported by Botha (2000 b) and Kadushin and Harkness (2002), who emphasise the training of supervisors because of their responsibility for the effective and independent functioning of the supervisees in terms of their knowledge, skills and values. These authors support the view that supervisors must be multi-skilled and possess theoretical knowledge and practical experience in their effective practice of supervision.

7.2.8 Experience as supervisor

7.2.8.1 Years of experience as supervisor. The following findings refer to the total years of experience as supervisor inside and outside the military.

Most participants have at least ten years experience as a supervisor, compared to seven (15,2%) participants who have at least five years supervision experience. One (2,2%) participant has between 15 to 20 years and one (2,2%) participant has at least 25 years experience as a supervisor.

Fifteen (32,6%) participants have no experience as a supervisor. These results correspond with the data in Table 7.11 which indicate that 15 (32,6%) participants

have no formal training in supervision. The results in Table 7.11 indicate that 30 (65,2%) participants did receive formal supervision training.
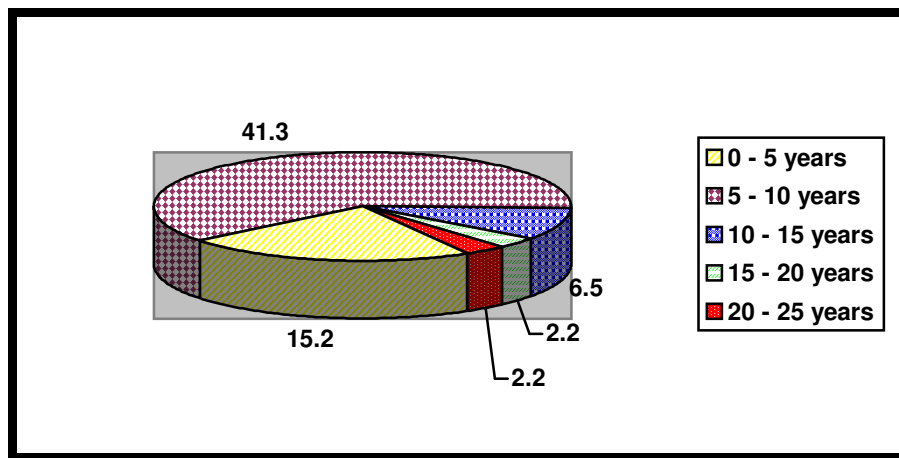
FIGURE 7.2: YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS SUPERVISOR

N=46

In the results of Figure 7.2, however, it is evident that an additional participant does have supervision training, considering that 31 (67,4%) of the participants indicated that they do have experience as a supervisor. It should also be noted that one participant did not provide the data for Table 7.11 and one can thus conclude that the one additional participant indicated in Figure 7.2 is the participant who omitted the data for Table 7.11. Alternatively, one can conclude that one person had given supervision without any formal supervision training, which in this case, places the organisation, the client, supervisee and supervisor at risk of possible complaints.

Such experience indicated in the above results of Figure 7.2 is recognised by Kadushin and Harkness (2002:297) as an asset in the supervisor-supervisee relationship. Kadushin and Harkness (2002) are of the opinion that an experienced supervisor would be more respected for their experience, and acknowledged for their knowledge and active utilisation of their experience. From this it can be deduced that military social workers will be able to utilise their experience in the supervisor-supervisee relationship, and transfer it to their mentor-protégé relationship with Officers Commanding.

7.2.9 Types of supervision

These data are reflected as follows.

TABLE 7.12: TYPES OF SUPERVISION

TYPES OF SUPERVISION	f	%
Individual supervision	44	95,6
Group supervision	40	87,0
Peer supervision	30	65,2
Informal supervision	38	83,0
Formal supervision	38	83,0

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

A significant number of participants (44) indicated individual supervision (95,6%) to be utilised in the Directorate Social Work (DSW). This was followed by group supervision (87,0%), informal and formal supervision (83%), and peer supervision (65,2%). All of these types of supervision that the participants identified are recognised by Munson (1993:169-171), Brown and Bourne (1996:144-145). and Kadushin and Harkness (2002:143-147,264). These types of supervision also correlate with the types of mentoring, for example, internal mentoring, group and peer mentoring, formal and informal mentoring as defined by Pantry (1995:12), Russel and Adams (1997:5), the DOD Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:3-4), and Young and Perrewe (2000:612). Military social workers will thus be able to transfer their knowledge of the different types of supervision to the different types of mentoring.

It appears that the participants are not aware that there are more similarities than differences between individual supervision (44 or 95,6%) and formal supervision (38 or 83,0%), hence the different results for these two factors. Coulshed and Mullender (2001:169) and Kadushin and Harkness (2002:143) both describe individual and formal supervision as supervision sessions that occur on a one-to-one basis between the supervisee and supervisor, structured, focused and within a context. The participants also appear to be more familiar with group supervision (40 or 87,0%) than peer supervision (30 or 65,2%). Informal supervision (38 or 83%) along with formal supervision (38 or 83%) received the same percentage. However, Coulshed and Mullender (2001:169) do not regard this informal supervision as reliable and recommend formal supervision it (see section 7.2.8: Experience of supervisor, for their reasons).

7.2.10 Occupational social work within the military environment

*7.2.10.1 **The practice model positions.*** The following positions were selected by the participants as being suitable in the mentoring of the OCs:

TABLE 7.13: THE PRACTICE MODEL POSITIONS

THE PRACTICE MODEL POSITIONS	f	%
Restorative interventions	19	41,3
Promotive interventions	31	67,4
Work-person interventions	42	91,3
Workplace interventions	40	87,0

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Of the 46 participants, 42 (91,3%) and 40 (87%) participants indicated that the work-person intervention (42, 91,3%), followed by the workplace intervention (40, 87%), were suitable in the mentoring of Officers Commanding. The promotive intervention (31 or 67,4%) and then the restorative intervention (19 or 41,3%) followed. All of these positions which the participants identified as suitable for the mentoring process have been discussed in Chapter Two and identified in the Directorate Social Work Military Practice Model (Directorate Social Work, SANDF, 1998). When one reflects on the objectives of mentoring, for example, successful incorporation of members into the organisation, developing capable and competent personnel, providing members with abilities to prepare personnel for future work demands, as discussed in Chapter Six with reference to the DOD Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999:3,4) and the Western Province Medical Command SWP No 6/97 (1997: Appendix A-1) – it appears that all of these positions can be applied in the mentoring process by the military social worker to achieve the objectives of mentoring and meeting the needs of the Officer Commanding.

The results of Tables 7.7: work position, 7.8: intervention methods and functions in social work and Figure 7.1: total years of work experience, confirm the competence of military social workers to mentor in all four of these positions. The positions address individual, group, community, policy and planning, research and management needs and problems.

*7.2.10.2 **Social work practice frameworks.*** The participants were asked which of the following social work practice frameworks they should have knowledge of to be

effective in the mentoring of Officers Commanding. The findings are presented in Table 7.14.

TABLE 7.14: SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE FRAMEWORKS

SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE FRAMEWORKS	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
The systems theory	46	100	0	0	0	0
The ecological perspective	37	80,4	4	8,7	1	2,2
Cognitive- behavioural theory	38	83	3	6,5	2	4,3
Role theory	33	71,7	9	19,6	0	0
Organisational development	43	93,5	3	6,5	0	0

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

From Table 7.14 it can be concluded that the majority of the participants (46) rated systems theory as important (100%), followed by organisational development (43 or 93,5%), but three (6,5%) participants were uncertain. The cognitive-behavioural theory was rated as important (38 or 83%), but three (6,5%), participants were uncertain, whilst two (4,3%) participants rated it as not important. The ecological perspective was rated important (37 or 80,4%), whereas four (8,7%) participants were uncertain and one (2,2%) participant regarded it as not important. Role theory was selected by 33 (71,7%) participants as important and nine (19,6%) as uncertain.

The above results indicate that all the participants have excellent knowledge of the systems theory, organisational development and the cognitive-behavioural theory. Rodway (1986:516) describes systems theory as "…a current orientation to practice that focuses attention to the point where it belongs, the transactions that occur between individuals and their environments and the potential of the transactions for enhancing or diminishing the capacity of individuals to gain satisfaction from life to promote the satisfaction of others". Military social workers will thus be able to assess the needs and problems of the Officers Commanding in relation of other primary systems which they are apart of, for example, in the context of the workplace, their family, community and society.

This result also shows that military social workers understand what Meyer (1995:19-20) and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:89) mean when they state that people can never be removed from their environment, but should be seen as interacting with their

environment. Three-quarters (37 or 80,4%) of the participants had knowledge of the ecological perspective. This perspective, according to Balgopal (1989), Rankin (1991) and Du Plessis (1999), provides a relevant framework for occupational social work in that it allows for flexibility in the choice of the social work method.

The goal of the ecological perspective, according to Germain and Gitterman (1986:618), is to understand the complex reciprocal relationships between people and environments, and corresponds with the aims and objectives of the social work profession (Greene, 1991a:1,12), the definition of occupational social work (Marais, 1993:18) and the aim of mentoring (Kilburg, 2000:63). This result may also be because systems theory and organisational development are frameworks which receive a great deal of attention during the training of military social workers during the Directorate Social Work's military occupational social work course, hence the ecological perspective and role theory are reflected as areas for improvement in knowledge of these practice frameworks. Alternatively, different universities may emphasise different practice frameworks and might even name these frameworks differently, so confusion may exist amongst the participants in their understanding of the practice frameworks.

7.2.11 The internal and external environment of the Officers Commanding (OC)

7.2.11.1 Internal environment factors of the OC in the SAMHS. The participants responded as follows to the question that addressed whether knowledge pertaining to the following factors in their role as mentor to OC's in the SAMHS was considered important to have.

TABLE 7.15: INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS

INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	IMPORTANT		UN-CERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Vision and mission of the SAMHS.	43	93,5	0	0	0	0	43	**93,5**
The military structure in the SAMHS.	40	86,9	1	2,2	0	0	41	**89,1**
The business plan and budget process in the SAMHS.	38	82,6	7	15,2	1	2,2	46	**100**
The organisational culture in the SAMHS.	44	95,6	1	2,2	0	0	45	**97,8**
Change in the SANDF.	43	93,5	2	4,3	0	0	45	**97,8**
Incentives and rewards in the SANDF.	35	76,1	7	15,2	1	2,2	43	**93,5**
Communication in the SANDF.	43	93,5	1	2,2	0	0	44	**95,6**
Military training and development of OCs in the SAMHS.	35	76,1	10	21,7	0	0	45	**97,8**
Other	7	15,2	1	2,2	0	0	8	**17,4**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Of the 46 participants, 44 (95,6%) indicated the organisational culture, vision and mission of the SAMSHS (43 or 93,5%), change in the SANDF (43 or 93,5%) and communication in the SANDF (43 or 93,5%) as important. The last three factors thus received the same results. The lowest findings in the category of importance were indicated for incentives and rewards in the SANDF (35 or 76,1%), military training and development of OCs in the SAMHS (35 or 76,1%), followed by other (7 or 15,2%). These responses of the participants correspond with the internal environment factors of McShane and Travaglione (2003:4) and what Lussier (1997:40) saw as factors affecting the performance of the employee.

Seven (15,2%) participants indicated that they were uncertain whether the military social worker should possess knowledge of the business plan and budget process in the SAMHS, or of incentives and rewards in the SAMHS in their role as mentor to Officers Commanding. One (2,2%) participant regarded these two factors as not important knowledge for the military social worker to possess in their role as mentors. Ten (21,7%) participants indicated that they were uncertain whether military training and development of OCs in the SAMHS is a factor of which military social workers require knowledge of in their role as mentors to Officers Commanding.

Seven (15,2%) participants identified other factors of importance that the military occupational social worker should have knowledge of in their role as mentors to Officers Commanding (OCs). The one (2,2%) participant that indicated 'uncertain' for the factor of 'other' did not specify the reason. The other factors of importance were identified as follows:

- "Previous experience of Officers Commanding,

- Officers Commanding general management of sub-ordinates,

- Officers Commanding ability to mentor sub-ordinates and their leadership styles.

- Political dynamics in the organisation.

- Leadership and management style of Officers Commanding.

- Personalities and communication of Officers Commanding.

- Officers Commanding ability to build teams and deal objectively with differences".

It is evident that from the other factors that seven (15,2%) of the participants are of the opinion that knowledge of leadership, management and life skills are important in order to mentor the Officers Commanding. Within a professional context it may be best to be cautious making the knowledge pertaining the personalities of the Officers Commanding (OCs) per se as a focus point in order to prevent military social workers from overstepping their area of service delivery boundaries and conduct themselves unethically. It is, however, an advantage to have knowledge of personalities, though, but not to diagnose the Officers Commanding. Referrals in this regard would be more appropriate.

7.2.11.2 External environment factors of the OC in the SAMHS. The participants responded as follows to the question that addressed whether knowledge of the following factors in their role as mentor to OCs in the SAMHS was important.

TABLE 7.16: EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS

EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Political factors	39	84,8	3	6,5	2	4,3	**44**	**95,6**
Social factors	44	95,6	1	2,2	1	2,2	**46**	**100**
Economic factors	38	82,6	4	8,7	1	2,2	**43**	**93,5**
Technological factors	32	69,6	10	21,7	3	6,5	**45**	**97,8**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

As indicated in Table 7.16, the majority of the participants (44 or 95,6%), rated knowledge of social factors, followed by political factors (39 or 84,8%), economic factors (38 or 82,6%) and then technological factors (32 or 69,6%), as important in order to mentor Officers Commanding. These findings relate to the external environment factors identified by Robbins (2000:103) and Robbins and Coulter (2003:70-73). Lussier (1997:44) mentions that these external environment factors affect the performance of the employee from outside.

Ten (21,7%) participants were uncertain that knowledge of technological factors was required to mentor the OC in the SAMHS, whereas three (6,5%) participants did not regard this at all as important knowledge to have in order to mentor OCs. Four (8,7%) participants were uncertain whether knowledge of the economic factor was required for the military social worker to mentor the OC, compared to one (2,2%) participant who regarded this factor as not important.

It seems that, as social workers, the participants related more to the social factors, for example poverty, unemployment, HIV/AIDS and the political factors, for example, peace, economic growth, social justice and democracy than to the technological factor. These findings also correspond with how the participants responded to the business plan and budget process in the SAMHS (38 or 82,6%) and incentives and rewards (35 or 76,1%) in Table 7:15: Internal environment factors of the OC in the SAMHS. These last two factors are both related to economics and in Table 7.16, 38 (82,6%) participants regarded it as important knowledge to have to mentor the OC. However, these internal and external factors are influencing each other systemically and the Officers Commanding (OC) cannot function without a business plan and budget, which are influenced by the economics of South Africa.

7.2.12   An overview of the functions of Officers Commanding

7.2.12.1   LCAMPS   Model. LCAMPS   stands   for   Leadership,   Command, Administration and Management Practices, Policies, Principles and Philosophies (South African Military Health Service (SAMHS) Guide, 2000:12-21). The following data indicate whether the participants are familiar with the LCAMPS Model.

TABLE 7.17: LCAMPS MODEL

LCAMPS MODEL	f	%
Yes	32	69,6
No	7	15,2
Uncertain	7	15,2
TOTAL	**46**	**100**

N=46

Thirty-two (69,6%) participants indicated that they are familiar with the LCAMPS model in comparison to seven participants (15,2%) who were not familiar with the model. Seven (15,2%) indicated that they were uncertain about whether they were familiar with the LCAMPS model.

Taking into consideration that knowledge about management and leadership was indicated as important in the mentoring of the Officers Commanding (see Table 7.15), it will therefore also be important that all military social workers who mentor Officers Commanding be trained in this model, as it includes mainly information pertaining to the Officers Commanding as manager, leader and commander. The information pertaining to this model will be benefit military social workers in addressing the needs or problems related to the functions, tasks or roles of the Officers Commanding.

7.2.12.2   Functions of the OC in the SAMHS. Participants were requested to select all the functions that in their opinion should be the functions of the OC in the SAMHS. The following findings reflect their responses.

TABLE 7.18: FUNCTIONS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS

FUNCTIONS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	F	%
Leading	43	93,5
Planning	44	95,6
Control	43	93,5
Organising	45	97,8

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

A significant number of participants (45 or 97,8%) indicated organising followed by planning (44 or 95,6%). A similar percentage (43 or 93,5%) was indicated for leading and control.

From the above, it is clear that all the participants have knowledge about the functions of a manager, as their responses correspond with the functions of a manager as explained by Weinbach (1998:8), Lussier (1997:10-11) and Robbins and Coultier (2003:7-9).

7.2.13 Requirements for the military social worker to execute mentoring

***7.2.13.1   Social work processes of intervention methods and supervision.** The findings on how the participants rated the importance of having knowledge of the processes of the intervention methods and supervision in the execution of mentoring are indicated in Table 7.19.

TABLE 7.19: SOCIAL WORK PROCESSES OF INTERVENTION METHODS AND SUPERVISION

SOCIAL WORK PROCESSES OF INTERVENTION METHODS AND SUPERVISION	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Process in Casework	43	93,5	1	2,2	2	4,3	**46**	**100**
Process in Group work	39	84,8	2	4,3	3	6,5	**44**	**95,6**
Process in Supervision	44	95,6	2	4,3	0	0	**46**	**100**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Of the 46 participants, 44 participants (95,6%) indicated having knowledge of the process in supervision as important in mentoring, whilst two (4,3%) participants indicated that they are uncertain in this regard. Knowledge of the process in casework was indicated by 43 (93,5%) participants as important, with one (2,2%) participant indicating uncertainty. Two (4,3%) participants indicated it as not

important, while 39 (84,8%) indicated that having knowledge of the process in group work was important in mentoring. Two (4,3%) participants were uncertain. Three (6,5%) participants regarded group work knowledge as not important in the mentoring process.

The participants have acknowledged the importance of having knowledge of the supervision process in order to mentor the Officer Commanding; however, it is of concern that the group work process did not receive the same acknowledgement. This finding as to how the participants view the importance of group work knowledge for the mentoring process also emerged in the findings shown in Table 7.8: Interventions methods and functions in social work, where just over half (28 or 60,9%) of the 46 participants use group work in their rendering of social work services to their clients.

7.2.14 Working relationships

7.2.14.1 Social work practice principles. The findings on what principles the participants regarded as necessary to maintain a professional and ethical working relationship with the Officers Commanding in the SAMHS are indicated in Table 7.20.

TABLE 7.20: SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE PRINCIPLES

SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE PRINCIPLES	f	%
Acceptance	45	97,8
Individualisation	44	95,6
Non-judgmental	45	97,8
Objectivity	43	93,5
Self-determination	44	95,6
Access to services	43	93,5
Confidentiality	45	97,8
Accountability	44	95,6
Vision to resolve a problem situation	43	93,5
Build on client strengths	42	91,3
Philosophy of normalisation	38	82,6

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

From Table 7.20 it is clear that an equal number of participants (45 or 97,8%) rated acceptance, non-judgmental and confidentiality as important, compared to 44 (95,6%) for individualisation, self-determination and accountability. This was followed by 43 (93,5%) for objectivity, access to services and vision to resolve a problem situation.

The importance of building on client strengths was indicated by 42 or 91,3% participants, whilst the lowest rating was indicated by 38 (82,6%) participants for philosophy of normalisation principle. The principles which the participants responded to as important to maintain a professional and ethical working relationship with the Officers Commanding are discussed by authors such as Biestek (1957); Hepworth and Larsen (1993); Miley et al. (1995), and Sheafor and Horejsi (2003).

It is apparent that the principle of philosophy of normalization did not draw the same response as the other principles. This indicates that perhaps that this principle is not as familiar to the participants as the others. Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:79) describe the principle of philosophy of normalisation as entailing a way in which the social worker can assist people with challenges to integrate in their communities. The application of the principle relates mostly to individuals who have been stigmatised and isolated in their communities based on their disabilities. This principle can thus have value for Officers Commanding who are physically challenged or facing isolation in their family, community or workplace on the basis of gender or racial discrimination.

7.2.14.2 Social work skills. The participants indicated the following skills that military social workers as mentors should possess.

TABLE 7.21: SOCIAL WORK SKILLS

SOCIAL WORK SKILLS	f	%
Assessment skills	43	93,5
Contracting skills	41	89,1
Facilitation skills	44	95,6
Problem-solving and decision-making skills	43	93,5
Interviewing skills	43	93,5
Communication skills	46	100

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

All of the 46 participants indicated communications skills (100%), followed by facilitation skills (95,6%), as the percentage for assessment skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills and interviewing skills (93,5%), compared to 41 participants (89,1%) who indicated contracting skills. The essential nature of these skills is emphasised by authors such as Garvin and Seabury (1995:297), Mattaini

(1997:125-126), De Jong and Berg (2002:27-29), Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:139-145), and Johnson and Yanca (2007:216,237).

The above results indicated by the participants for social work skills are a positive response, as the majority (43 or 93,5%) of the 46 participants selected these skills. These skills are all part of the foundation of a social worker's training and the profession of social work.

7.2.14.3 Social work roles. *The participants indicated the roles that are practised in the Directorate Social Work as follows (Table 7:22).*

TABLE 7.22: SOCIAL WORK ROLES

SOCIAL WORK ROLES	F	%
Enabler role	45	97,8
Educator role	45	97,8
Change agent role	37	80,4
Broker role	40	87,0
Mediator role	43	93,5
Workload manager role	39	84,8
Staff developer role	43	93,5
Catalyst role	41	89,1

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

The same percentage of 97,8% was indicated by 45 participants for the enabler and educator roles. The same number (43 or 93,5%) also applied to the mediator and staff developer roles. This was followed by the catalyst role (41 or 89,1%), broker role (40 or 87,0%), workload manager role (39 or 84,8%) and the change agent role (37 or 80,4%).

The findings reflect that most of the participants are of the opinion that the above roles are practised in the Directorate Social Work amongst military social workers and that they consider these roles as an integral part of their service delivery; this view is corroborated by Miley et al. (1997:17), Garvin and Seabury (1997:315-316), Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:63-66), and Johnson and Yanca (2007:226).

Thirty-seven (80,4%) participants indicated that the change agent role is utilised in the Directorate Social Work. This was the lowest response for all of the above roles. In contrast to this response, in the findings reflected in Table 7.14: Social work practice frameworks, organisational development received the second highest

response from the participants. Forty-three (93,5%) participants indicated it as important to have knowledge this practice framework in the role as mentor to Officers Commanding. It can thus be deduced that some military social workers will find it difficult to apply the organisational development practice framework, as the change agent role is not as often utilised as the other roles and, hence, the relevant knowledge and skills might be lacking. According to Sheafor and Horejsi (2003:65-66), the change agent role links itself with change within the person, their workplace, community or other larger systems, whereas Rothwell et al. (1995) associate the role of change agent with executing the organisational development process.

7.2.15 Mentoring

7.2.15.1 Definition of mentor. The findings on the correct definition of a mentor are depicted in Table 7.23.

TABLE 7.23: DEFINITION OF MENTOR

DEFINITION OF MENTOR	**f**	**%**
Someone who is young and newly appointed in the organisation or their specific jobs.	0	0
Someone who is traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégés through their careers by giving advice built on their mentors' knowledge, position and experience.	46	100
TOTAL	**46**	**100**

N=46

All the 46 participants (100%) responded correctly to the definition of a mentor. It can thus be deduced that all military social workers have knowledge of what a mentor is.

7.2.15.2 Definition of protégé. The findings on the definition of the protégé are depicted in Table 7.24.

TABLE 7.24: DEFINITION OF PROTÉGÉ

DEFINITION OF PROTÉGÉ	**F**	**%**
Someone who is young and newly appointed in the organisation or their specific jobs.	39	84,8
Someone who is traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégés through their careers by giving advice built on their mentors' knowledge, position and experience.	7	15,2
TOTAL	**46**	**100**

N=46

Of the 46 participants, 39 (84,8%), managed to define the protégé correctly. Seven (15,2%) of the participants defined protégé incorrectly. It is obvious from the findings in Table 7.24 that, although all the participants knew what a mentor is in Table 7.23, seven (15,2%) participants became confused as to what the difference between a mentor and protégé is, hence the incorrect responses. A protégé is defined by Parsloe (1995:15) as an inexperienced person who is assigned to a mentor. The protégé can also be young and newly appointed in the organisation or their specific jobs.

7.2.16 Mentoring policies, procedure and legislation

7.2.16.1 Policies, procedure and legislation. The findings on the policies, procedure and legislation that would assist the military social workers in the role as mentor are indicated below.

Percentage of members assisted by policies, procedure and legislation

- Skills Development Act
- Employment Equity Act
- DOD Policy on mentorship
- Command SWP

84.8   80.4
93.5   82.6
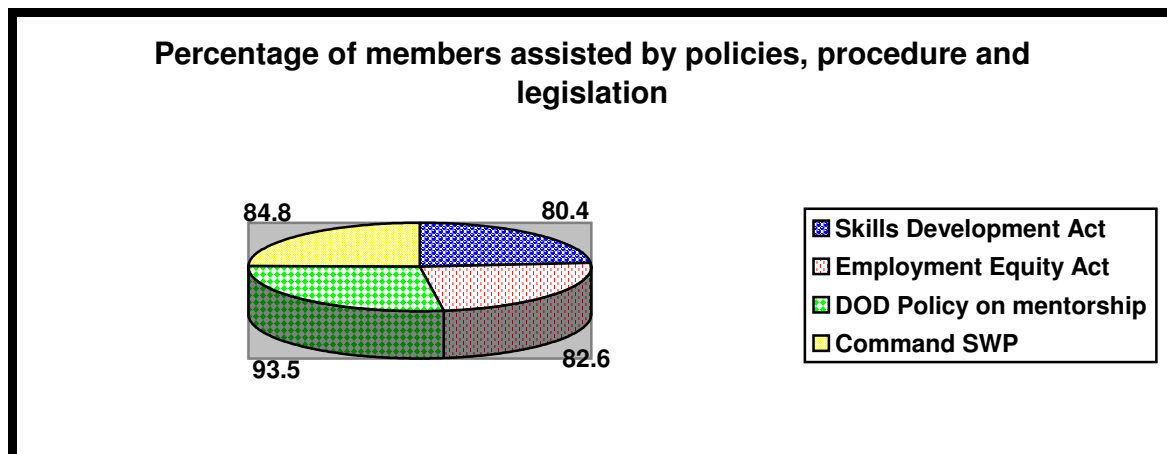
FIGURE 7.3: POLICIES, PROCEDURE AND LEGISLATION
N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Forty-three (93,5%) participants indicated that the DOD Policy on Mentorship would assist them in their role as mentor, whereas 39 (84,8%) participants indicated their choice of SWP: Mentoring and on-the-job training. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action were selected by 38 (82,6%), participants compared to the Skills Development Act 97 of 1997 (37 or 80,4%).

The above findings indicate that the participants supported the policies and standard work procedures within the SANDF, and indicated public legislation as helpful in their roles as mentors. It can be deduced that, although the external environment

legislation influenced the internal environment of the SANDF, as mentors military social workers have an awareness that they will have to be guided by the directives of military mentoring policies and standard work procedures.

7.2.17 The mentoring process

The mentoring process. The phases that should be included in the mentoring phases were indicated as follows (Table 7.25).

TABLE 7.25: THE MENTORING PROCESS

THE MENTORING PROCESS	f	%
Pre-planning phase	42	91,3
Planning phase	44	95,6
Middle phase	44	95,6
The ending phase	44	95,6

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

The majority of the participants indicated the same percentage of 44 (95,6%) for the planning, middle and ending phase. Forty-two (91,3%) participants indicated the pre-planning phase for inclusion in the mentoring process. It should be noted that two participants did not respond to this question; hence it can be deduced that only two participants were of the opinion that the pre-planning phase should not be included in the mentoring process.

Table 7.25 shows that the majority of participants were able to identify with the above phases, which are indicated as phases in the mentoring process by authors such as Koonce (1994:37-40), Peters (1996:41), Chao (1997:16), Bell (2000:54-56), Prinsloo (2001:33) and Sweeney (2003a:3-4). Although the participants did not know that the above phases were the phases in the mentoring process, their response confirms Greene's (1991a:13) view that in social work's most broad form, a common intervention process is shared by all social workers in practice and that it consists of "…common elements transferable to all aspects of social work practice".

7.2.18 Characteristics of the mentor

Characteristics of the mentor. The following characteristics have been considered as essential in the role of mentor to the OCs.

TABLE 7.26: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MENTOR

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MENTOR	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Supportive	44	95,6	1	2,2	0	0	**45**	**97,8**
Patient	37	80,4	3	6,5	2	4,3	**42**	**91,3**
Respected by protégé and colleagues	39	84,8	2	4,3	1	2,2	**42**	**91,3**
People orientated	41	89,1	2	4,3	0	0	**43**	**93,5**
Motivator	42	91,3	1	2,2	0	0	**43**	**93,5**
Respectful of others	42	91,3	0	0	0	0	**42**	**91,3**
Teacher/trainer	38	82,6	4	8,7	0	0	**42**	**91,3**
Self-confident	44	95,6	0	0	0	0	**44**	**95,6**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Forty-four (95,6%) participants responded with the same percentage for supportive and self-confident characteristics of the mentor. One (2,2%) participant indicated uncertainty as to whether the supportive characteristic is an essential one. Forty-two (91,3%), participants responded that being a motivator and being respectful of others are important characteristics, compared to one (2,2%) participant who indicated uncertainty as to whether it was necessary to be a good motivator.

Being people orientated (41 or 89,1%) was regarded as an important characteristic, but two (4,3%) participants expressed their uncertainty. Being respected by protégé and colleagues was indicated as important by 39 (84,8%) participants; however, two (4,3%) were uncertain, whilst one (2,2%) participant regarded this characteristic as not important.

The teacher/trainer characteristic was indicated by 38 (82,6%) participants as important; however, four (8,7%) participants expressed their uncertainty. Being patient was indicated with the lowest response for importance by 37 (80,4%) participants. Three (6,5%) participants expressed their uncertainty, whereas two (4,3%) participants did not regard being patient as an important characteristic for a mentor. The characteristics of a mentor which have been identified by the majority of the participants in Table 7.26, shows that the participants are well aware what characteristics a mentor should possess. Sosik and Godshalk (2000:104) refer to the importance of mentors possessing these characteristics, as protégés would want to

identify and emulate mentors who are reliable, respected and maintain high standards.

These characteristics of the mentor which the participants had rated in Table 7.26, show similarities with what is identified in the Command Standard Work Procedure for mentoring-on-the-job training, No 6/97 (1997: Appendices A-1, A-2), DOD Policy on Mentorship (DOD Instruction, 1999: 4), and Shea (2003:173). The before mentioned documentation and author, emphasise the ability of the mentor to be supportive of the developmental needs of the protégé, a good record of working with people, motivating people and being able to develop the self-confidence of protégés.

The participants did not view being a teacher/educator as important and four were uncertain; however, the findings in Table 7.22: Social work roles, indicate that 45 (97,8%), participants did view the role of an educator as important in mentoring the Officers Commanding.

7.2.19 Protégé's expectations of the mentor

The participants indicated their opinions of the expectations a protégé would have of their mentor as follows.

TABLE 7.27: PROTÉGÉ'S EXPECTATIONS OF THE MENTOR

PROTÉGÉ'S EXPECTATIONS OF THE MENTOR	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Encouragement	45	97,8	1	2,2	0	0	**46**	**100**
Support	46	100	0	0	0	0	**46**	**100**
Honesty	45	97,8	1	2,2	0	0	**46**	**100**
Candid information and advice	41	89,1	0	0	0	0	**41**	**89,1**
Holistic picture of the organisation	43	93,5	2	4,3	0	0	**45**	**97,8**
Honest appraisal of Capabilities	42	91,3	2	4,3	1	2,2	**45**	**97,8**
Availability of time without Interruptions	41	89,1	1	2,2	1	2,2	**43**	**93,5**
Guidance	43	93,5	0	0	0	0	**43**	**93,5**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

The findings in Table 7.27 indicate that support is regarded as an important expectation by all the participants (100%), whereas 45 (97,8%) participants indicated encouragement and honesty. One (2,2%) participant for encouragement and honesty was uncertain whether these should be expectations that a protégé should have of their mentor.

A holistic picture and guidance were indicated as important expectations to have of one's mentor by 43 (93,5%) participants. Two (4,3%) participants were uncertain with regards to a holistic picture. An honest appraisal of capabilities was indicated as an important expectation by 42 (91,3%) participants. Two (4,3%) participants were uncertain in this regard, whilst one (2,2%) participant did not regard an honest appraisal of capabilities as an expectation which protégés should hold of their mentors.

The same percentage of participants (41 or 89,1%) indicated candid information and advice, as well as availability of time without interruptions, as important expectations. However, one (2,2%) participant indicated uncertainty as to whether availability of time without interruptions should be an expectation of the mentor. One (2,2%) participant indicated this expectation as not important.

It appears from the above findings, that the majority of the participants indicated support, encouragement, honesty, a holistic picture and guidance as important expectations that the protégés could hold of their mentors. Support (100%) is a mentoring activity which relates to the psycho-social functioning in mentoring (Russel & Adams, 1997:2; DOD Instruction, 1999:5-6).

These expectations also correlate with the competencies which are required by Officers Commanding in the SAMHS as described in Table 4.5 (Area Military Health Unit Western Cape (AMHU WC) Performance management post profile, 2003: AMHU WC/R/501/7, 11-16). These competencies are described in Chapter Four of this research. From this it could be deduced that Officers Commanding could expect the military social worker as mentor to role model these competencies and could therefore have these expectations of their mentor. Secondly, these expectations correlate with the characteristics of a good mentor (Shea, 2003:173) and it could be expected that most protégés would expect their mentor to possess these skills and qualities.

Although more than 41 (89,1%) of the participants indicated availability of time without interruptions as important, it is of concern that two participants were either uncertain and regarded it as not important. According to Olesen (1996:27) and Hay (1995:77), it is important to recognise the pressurised work schedules of protégés and rather to contract meeting times. If not, neither the protégé nor the mentor will enter into a mentoring process or complete it. The findings in Table 7.26: Characteristics of the mentor, also indicated that being respectful of others is valued by 42 (91,3%) participants. Most participants will thus have respect for the time during which they meet with Officers Commanding.

7.2.20 Training of the mentor

Table 7.28 indicates the training areas that the participants had indicated for their role as mentors.

TABLE 7.28: TRAINING OF THE MENTOR

TRAINING OF THE MENTOR	IMPORTANT		UNCERTAIN		NOT IMPORTANT		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Functions in mentoring	45	97,8	0	0	0	0	**45**	**97,8**
Activities in mentoring	44	95,6	0	0	0	0	**44**	**95,6**
Differences and similarities between mentoring, coaching and counselling	38	82,6	3	6,5	2	4,3	**43**	**93,5**
Differences and similarities between mentoring, supervision, in-service training and consultation	35	76,1	3	6,5	1	2,2	**39**	**84,8**
The different types of mentoring	44	95,6	0	0	0	0	**44**	**95,6**
The difference between the types of supervision and mentoring	38	82,6	1	2,2	2	4,3	**41**	**89,1**

N=46 (Participants were permitted more than one choice)

Of the 46 participants, 45 (97,8%) indicated functions in mentoring, 44 (95,6%) activities in mentoring and the different types of mentoring as important for the training of the military social worker as mentor. Thirty-eight (82,6%) participants indicated the differences and similarities between mentoring, coaching and counselling, as well as the differences between types of supervision and mentoring, as important. However, three (6,5%) participants indicated that they were uncertain

and two (4,3%) participants did not regard knowledge of the differences and similarities between mentoring, coaching and counselling as important for the military social worker in their role as mentors. Of the 39 (84,8%) participants who responded to the differences and similarities between mentoring, supervision, in-service training and consultation, 35 (67,1%) indicated that it is important, three (6,5%) were uncertain and one (2,2%) responded that it was not important for the military social worker in their training as mentors.

From the above findings in Table 7.28, it is apparent that the participants have limitations if they should take on the role of mentors to Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, and have accordingly indicated their areas for training. Some areas for training were less of a consideration, especially where the differences and similarities of the personnel development functions (supervision, consultation, in-service-training) were compared with mentoring. This is possibly due to the findings that are indicated in Tables 7.11: Formal supervision training; 7.12: Types of supervision; and Figure 7.1: Years of experience as a supervisor. These findings indicated that the participants have experience and knowledge in supervision, and this has perhaps influenced the participant's response to the differences and similarities sections in Table 7.28.

7.3   CONCLUSION

Chapter Seven presented the results and findings of this empirical study. All the factors that were investigated were presented in tables and by means of visual graphs. These findings were interpreted and discussed.

The sample consisted of 46 participants. They were chief military social workers as well as others with a higher ranking than a Captain. These military social workers included civilians and are employed in all nine provinces of South Africa. The majority of the participants have more than ten years of work experience, whilst the majority have at least ten years experience as a supervisor.

The participant's opinions were obtained with regards to social work knowledge, skills and values as they refer to occupational social work, the methods, functions, practice frameworks, principles, skills and roles in social work, and to bring them into alignment with the theoretical viewpoints described in the previous chapters of this study. Their knowledge pertaining to the internal and external environment of the

military organisation and the functions of management was gauged, as well as their views on what mentoring concepts and phases should be included in a mentoring training programme for selected military social workers.

It was evident from the above findings and deductions that there are shortcomings, for example, with regards to the utilisation of group work by the military social workers, and hence knowledge and skills will not be easily transferred to the mentoring process, especially with regards to the group work process. In contrast to this weakness, several strengths were also identified; for example, it appears that military social workers have excellent knowledge and skills pertaining to supervision. This knowledge and these skills will thus be easily transferred to the mentoring process.

Chapter Eight will address the shortcomings by way of the conclusions and the recommendations that will be made, based on this research. These recommendations can be utilised to implement the necessary changes to the advantage of the military social worker in their roles as mentors to Officers Commanding in the South African Medical Health Service (SAMHS).

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1   INTRODUCTION

The goal of this study was to provide military social workers with a framework for a mentoring process to mentor Officers Commanding in the SAMHS. In order to achieve this goal, it was important to focus on the social work knowledge, skills and values of social workers, and to reflect on the world of occupational social work. This assessment was important to determine the competencies of military social workers to mentor Officers Commanding. The functions, tasks and roles of the Officer Commanding have been identified to provide the military social worker with insight as to what Officers Commanding are confronted with in the workplace, and how this impacts on their psycho-social functioning. The researcher has also explored the processes of intervention methods and the function of supervision in order to highlight the parallels between social work and mentoring. Lastly, different authors' mentoring processes have been discussed to provide military social workers with a framework for a mentoring process.

It has been recognised in Chapter One of this study that Officers Commanding are facing challenges, such as changing technology, adapting to a diverse work force and changes in the military's internal and external environment, that impact on their intra- and interpersonal relationships. They are confronted with an environment that is forever changing and they have to adapt their knowledge and skills accordingly. The skills that they require to manage in a changing organisation are not always the same in practice compared to what is taught on military courses. These changes demand flexibility and being adaptable, as well as requiring communication skills and coping skills and being able to value and use diversity effectively. It is easy to learn and apply management skills if the manager is the only person to solve problems, but in a changing environment there is a lot of interdependency.

Against this background, the findings of the literature review and the empirical study will be utilised to draw conclusions and make recommendations that can be utilised to educate and train military social workers to develop Officers Commanding in the

SAMHS. The conclusions and recommendations discussed in this chapter are based on both the literature review and the empirical study. As the research progressed, the researcher drew certain conclusions, identified weaknesses and formed her own opinion.

The findings of the research were presented in detail in Chapter Seven. These findings will now be evaluated in the following sections of this chapter.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions that will be discussed will only be those related to areas which will impact on the mentoring of the Officers Commanding by the military social worker, either in a positive or negative way. These conclusions are based on the findings of the indicators of the identifying information, work information, supervision experience, work relationship knowledge and skills, and mentoring.

8.2.1 Identifying information

- **Gender**

The findings indicated that the majority of the participants were female. From this conclusion it can be deduced that mostly heterogeneous mentoring relationships will be formed between the Officers Commanding and military social workers. This evidence should also be considered during the matching process. The literature indicated that women find it difficult to advance their careers and that protégés would naturally prefer to be mentored by someone with status who can advance their careers. However, this was not a conclusive finding, as it has also been indicated that most males also select mentors based on their need for support. Women who are associated with the nurturer role are ideal to provide emotional support to assist the protégé to adjust to the demands of both their employing organisation and personal life.

Gender should, however, in the opinion of the researcher, not be an obstacle in the pre-planning phase of the mentoring process, since the military social worker as mentor will focus on the psycho-social and role modelling functions, together with the support activity in mentoring. The researcher has acknowledged in this study the role of other multi-professional team members, especially other more senior Officers Commanding, who completed a mentorship programme to execute the career

function in mentoring. The fact that mentors are mostly female social work should not exclude male Officers Commanding from the mentoring process. Male protégés should, however, be sensitised as to the way that their gender stereotyping attitude and behaviour is influenced by myths about female mentors' competencies.

8.2.2 Work information

- **Years of work experience**

The findings indicated that an eight of the 46 participants had work experience of between 10 and 15 years and one fifth between 5 to 20 years. It can be concluded that most military social workers' careers have been characterised by growth. This is also concluded from the different levels of their qualifications. The participants had varied work experience and exposure from within and outside the current South African National Defence Force (SANDF). This expertise can be fully exhausted by the protégé who is seeking for a mentor who has knowledge of the organisation, professional experience and is well adjusted.

- **Work positions**

The findings indicated that military social workers are executing generic as well as specialist services. It can be deduced that the broad spectrum of services demonstrates the accountability and ethical nature of the profession of social work with respect to their clients. It can be further concluded that the Officers Commanding will be mentored by a military social work mentor who has a wide range of knowledge and skills not just on production level, but also in areas of performance control, performance management and policy planning. A wide range of services can be offered, for example, pertaining to substance abuse, employee/personnel development, family pathology and workplace development.

8.2.3 Social work responsibilities

- **Intervention methods and functions in social work**

The study has shown that the methods and functions in social work are well utilised; however, group work was less practised in the Directorate Social Work. It can be concluded that the military social workers are either not as knowledgeable or skilful in this method, or that the occupational milieu or the needs of their clients do not extend them to put their group work knowledge and skills into practice. The fact that peer

and group mentoring could play an important part in the mentoring process (depending on the type of mentoring) means that it would be in the best interest of the mentor to refresh or develop group work knowledge and skills during an in-service training workshop or during the basic military occupational social work course. It can further be concluded that the results of the process in group work as part of the processes of intervention methods and supervision confirm this finding. Based on this, it can be deduced that before the participants will be able to co-ordinate and plan the execution of a mentoring programme, it is important that they first gain knowledge and skills of the pre-planning phase. This is the first phase in the group work process.

8.2.4 Experience of supervision

What emerged clearly from the findings was that a supervision programme had always existed, whether in the former South African Defence Force (SADF) or current SANDF. In the SADF it was not implemented as consistently as in the SANDF, where more supervision was given than in the SADF. The participants have experienced mostly formal supervision rather than orientation and informal supervision. What can be deduced from these findings is that the Officers Commanding will benefit as the participants themselves were in the roles of supervisees and had experienced the supervision process, in most cases with a supervisor. These participants have first-hand experience of how adult education principles were applied to them and what they liked and disliked. This personal experience will guide them to see the mentoring process also through the lenses of their protégés.

It can be deduced that, because most participants received supervision, the Directorate Social Work supports personnel development and realises the benefit of supporting their employees in performing their work effectively, efficiently and independently. They are also accountable and exercise good governance in the interest of the employee, employer, community and client. Ethically, the Officers Commanding can be assured that mechanisms are in place to supervise the conduct of military social workers and to build their sense of moral value.

8.2.5 Supervision training

- **Formal supervision training**

It can be concluded from the formal supervision training results that most of the participants are trained in supervision, either as part of a module in their postgraduate training or the Directorate Social Work's in-house supervision course of at least 18 months. It would then appear that most of the participants have knowledge and skills of the supervision process, which has been confirmed from the fact that the participants regarded having knowledge of the supervision process as important. The findings on their years of supervision experience also confirm their experience in implementing the supervision process. From this it can be concluded that this supervision knowledge and these skills will benefit them in making the transition to their role as mentors. The fact that the Directorate Social Work has designed a supervision training programme shows that they acknowledge that supervisors require training and continuously updated learning to function in changing work environments as supervisors. In this way the role of the supervisor also becomes marketable and the supervisor can acquire the appropriate credentials and hence supervise with confidence. One can therefore also conclude that the Directorate Social Work will also ensure that military social workers do not function as mentors without being developed for this role.

8.2.6 Types of supervision

From the findings it is evident that the majority of military social workers can identify the types of supervision. It can be concluded that the majority of military social workers have sufficient knowledge of the types of supervision. It was, however, evident that most participants selected individual supervision above formal supervision. From this it can be concluded that a percentage of the participants were not aware that there are more similarities than differences between individual and formal supervision, which explains why the percentages for these two factors were different. These similarities can be explained as part of the in-house supervision course.

8.2.7 Occupational social work within the military environment

- **Social work practice frameworks**

The findings showed that all the participants indicated systems theory as important. It can be concluded that military social workers have the necessary skills and knowledge of this framework, and utilise it more often than the other frameworks in their practice. It can be concluded that social work in the military lends it more readily to work within this framework because it gives the military social worker the ability to understand the tensions between the internal and external organisation, or the work versus home life of the Officer Commanding.

In contrast to the results for systems theory, the ecological perspective and role theory were indicated by a smaller proportion of the participants as important practice frameworks to have knowledge of in the execution of the mentoring process. According to the literature, the ecological framework is as much a basis for generic social work, which in turn serves as a framework for occupational social work. It can be concluded that there are several reasons why the ecological perspective and role theory frameworks did not receive the same indication as the other frameworks. However, these frameworks should be included in training to ensure that the participants understand the reciprocal relationships between the Officers Commanding (OCs) and their respective environments, and the expectations which of the OCs by their staff in different career stages of their work life.

8.2.8 The internal and external environment of the Officers Commanding

- **Internal environment of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS**

The findings indicate that a small proportion of the participants were unable to view knowledge of incentives and rewards in the SANDF as well as military training and development of OCs, as important. It can be concluded that the interdependent nature of these two factors and the other internal environment factors are not understood by a small percentage of participants. They need thus to enrol in an organisational behaviour programme or LCAMPS model course that addresses the value of people development and strategic issues in the workplace and their interrelatedness, as discussed in detail in Chapter Three. These two factors underpin

confidence, resilience, vision, empowerment and encouragement through intrinsic or extrinsic rewards.

- **External environment of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS**

The findings reflect that the participants understood the importance of social and political factors, but did not express the same grasp of the economic and technological factors. The researcher concludes that these two factors have to be included in the training that deals with the LCAMPS model, strategic issues and organisational behaviour to broaden the paradigms of the participants in order for them to understand the interconnectedness between the internal and external work environments of the Officers Commanding.

8.2.9 An overview of the functions of Officers Commanding

- **LCAMPS model**

It appeared that some of the participants were not familiar with this model, and another group was uncertain. It can be deduced that when one reflects on the content of the LCAMPS model, it is important that each participant that will perform a mentor role to Officers Commanding will have to familiarise themselves with this model. It is also concluded that military social workers as mentors cannot mentor Officers Commanding, if they do not know the tasks and functions of Ocs. The LAMPS model covers most of these areas, for example, command, leadership and management.

8.2.10 Working relationships

- **Social work practice principles**

The findings indicated that the principle of the philosophy of normalisation was not regarded as an important principle to maintain a professional and ethical working relationship with the Officers Commanding. In the light of the definition of this principle and the changing work environment of the Officers Commanding, it can be concluded that this principle needs to be understood. Its application to the needs and circumstances of the Officer Commanding should be explained. This can be done as part of the mentoring training programme of military social workers or the personnel development specialists may utilise this thesis to address the indicated weak areas in the personnel development in-service training programme.

- **Social work roles**

It appeared that the change agent role is utilised the least amongst the participants. It can be deduced that the organisational development framework will be executed with difficulty as this role is utilised in its application. Considering that this role is also closely related to the workplace intervention position, which was indicated by most participants as appropriate in the mentoring process, one cannot ignore the need for this role in the mentoring of the Officers Commanding.

8.2.11 Mentoring

- **Definition of protégé**

The findings on the participants' definition of a mentor and a protégé were mixed. It can be concluded that these participants were not adequately exposed to the concept of protégé in particular. This confusion should be addressed in the pre-planning phase of the training of the mentor to eliminate whatever confusion there may be about who the protégé is.

8.2.12 Characteristics of the mentor

The findings show that the majority of the participants regard the characteristics of the mentor as highly important. However, as a mentor one cannot be a role model in one area only and neglect other areas. The characteristics of a mentor can either shape or constrain the mentor-protégé relationship. It is thus concluded that, even though this factor was well responded to, the fact that there were participants who were uncertain and regarded other characteristics of the mentors as not important, calls for incorporation of these characteristics into the training of these participants during the pre-planning phase of the mentoring programme.

8.2.13 Training of the mentor

The findings indicated that the majority of the participants indicated the different sub-sections, for example, functions, activities and different types of mentoring (as laid out in the pre-planning phase of the mentoring process of Chapter Six of this study), as areas for training. It is concluded that those areas about which the participants had no knowledge or lacked skills were indicated as important training areas. Training in these areas will allow the participant to use a mentoring framework within

which they can perform their roles as mentors. One can also conclude that knowledge and skills of the mentoring process will strengthen the participant's abilities to draw parallels between supervision and mentoring and other methods in social work.

The recommendations will now be addressed.

8.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

The following section contains recommendations based on the findings and conclusions of the research.

8.3.1   The Directorate Human Resources

As indicated in this study, there is a DOD mentoring policy, but is not executed in the SAMHS. The Directorate Human Resources should monitor the implementation and review of this policy by Staff Officers on Levels 3 and 4. In partnership with other Directorates, the human resources office should monitor how Levels 3 and 4 converted the DOD mentoring policy into either a Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) or Standard Work Procedure (SWP). These last two documents flow from the policy and become executable on Level 4.

8.3.2   The SAMHS Training Formation

In collaboration with the Directorates Human Resources, Social Work, Psychology and other multi-professional team members, the SAMHS (South African Military Health Service) Training Formation should **co-ordinate the mentoring training programme** in terms of the selection, matching and training of the mentors and protégés. Since mentoring is a human resource and training function, it is important that the SAMHS Training Formation and the Directorate Human Resources each understand their roles in the pre-planning phase and involve the other multi-professional teams and Officers Commanding.

8.3.3   The Directorate Social Work (DSW)

The following recommendations should be implemented by the Directorate Social Work. The D SW may, however, delegate the tasks as it sees fit.

- Level 2 of the Directorate Social Work: Policy and planning to assist Level 3 with creating a **Mentoring SOP or SWP at Level 4**. This mentoring document

will provide clear guidelines on how the D SW wants military social workers to implement the DOD mentoring policy. With the policy, SOP or SWP mentoring guidelines, the military social workers can proceed to prepare for their own training.

- Level 2 or 3 to enquire from the South African Council for Social Service Professions whether additional **registration** for being a social work mentor should occur, or whether a specific mentoring council exists for registration as mentors.

- Explore **mentoring forums** to allow the military social worker to remain abreast of new developments in the field of mentoring. The credibility and accountability of social workers as mentors are also enhanced.

- Explain why the social work structure should have a **mentoring specialist post**. This can be done in conjunction with social work Staff Officers on Levels 3 and 4.

- Plan, in conjunction with Levels 3 and 4, a separate **LCAMPS workshop** that includes **strategic issues** and **organisational behaviour.** This can be done in consultation with management services or the Industrial Psychology Department of the Military Psychology Institute. In this way knowledge and skills about the **internal and external environment** of the Officers Commanding can be acquired. An awareness of, and confidence in, management are also developed.

- Levels 3 and 4 can plan the discussion on the **foundation of what mentoring entails**, its similarities and differences with other staff development methods (coaching, consultation, in-service training) on an introductory level as part of the basic military occupational social work and supervision courses.

- Systems theory as **practice framework** should not be the only framework that is discussed on the basic military occupational social work course. The ecological perspective and role theory should be added and dealt with in small groups to ensure understanding of its application. Post-course assignments on the latter two frameworks can be incorporated as to how these frameworks are integrated into the workplace.

- Formal **training in supervision** should be a prerequisite for the social worker as mentor.

- Select a team from the military social workers to compile a **training mentoring manual** for military social workers. This should be done by involving the other role players and the views and opinions of Officers Commanding. The manual must contain, for example, goal, mission, objectives, programme co-ordination, definition of key concepts, guidelines according to the mentoring SOP/SWP, application and selection processes, questions and answers for mentors, key responsibilities and roles. The content of the mentoring process must include, for example, the contract, mentoring functions, activities, types and assessment tools. Continuous monitoring and evaluation are critical to assess the achievement of goals and their cost-effectiveness.

- **Mentoring training** should be recognised as ongoing. Refresher courses should be planned in conjunction with the social work co-ordinators of the mentoring training programme for military social workers.

- **Support** to mentors should not only be provided during their training, but also after a course, and a mentor should be allocated to the young practising military social workers as mentors.

8.3.4 Training institutions

Training institutions in South Africa should incorporate a programme in mentoring as part of their postgraduate courses. This will allow social workers to develop their knowledge and skills in this specialist field and become more competent in utilising assessment tools and practice frameworks that are unique to the field of mentoring.

8.3.5 Future research

- Military social workers can undertake both qualitative and quantitative research with the Officers Commanding and obtain their direct opinions in interviews with regards to their problems and needs. This information can be helpful in the training of the military social worker as mentor.

- The monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the mentoring process should be undertaken.

8.4   SUMMARY

There are several conclusions and recommendations that were made based on the findings in this study.

The contents of this chapter also indicated that the goal of the study, which was to provide military social workers with a framework for the mentoring process, was achieved, as reflected in the literature review and the results of this study. This outcome was achieved through addressing the background of social work in the military through occupational social work and providing a clear outline of the functions, tasks and roles of the Officer Commanding. The skills, knowledge and values of the military social workers were assessed, and the links between the methods in social work and supervision with mentoring were clarified. Lastly, the mentoring process was discussed, which the military social worker will have to apply in their roles as mentors to Officers Commanding.

The researcher considers this empirical study to be the start of what promises to be an enriching and definitive contribution to the social work profession, and a further strengthening of the existing diverse roles that social workers perform in the world of work.

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A P P E N D I X 1

LETTER TO STAFF-OFFICERS ONE SOCIAL WORK (SO1 SW) TERTIARY FORMATION AND STAFF OFFICER ONE SOCIAL WORK (SO1 SW) AREA FORMATION

CONFIDENTIAL
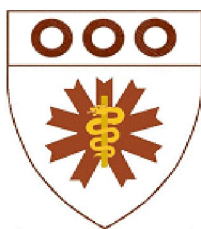
AMHU C/C/104/12/1/4

Telephone: (021) 799-6911
Extension: 6876
Fax Number: (021) 799-6358
Enquiries: Maj C.H. Radebe

Area Military Health Unit
Western Cape
Private Bag X10
Wynberg
7824

March 2007

SOCIAL WORKERS'S PARTICIPATION IN COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

1.   I hereby request your permission to allow Maj Radebe to distribute the research questionnaire to social workers under your command and control. This research is part of the MA-degree requirements of the University of Stellenbosch. The researcher undertakes to maintain confidentiality and to protect the identifying particulars of the respondents. A copy of the results will be forwarded to each formation. Not all the social workers in Area/Tertiary will participate in this research.

2.   The research target will only be chief social workers with the rank of Major and those with a higher functional position and rank. These military social workers will be the universum that will be required to complete the research questionnaire. The reason being, mentors are described as "...being traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégé through their careers by giving advice built on their mentor's knowledge, position and experience", (Barcus and Wilkinson, 1995:16-20).

3.   The purpose of the research is to determine whether chief military social workers as Majors and those with a higher functional position and rank, have the knowledge, skills and attitude to mentor Officer Commandings in the SAMHS. This research was initiated after the researcher identified that the Department of Defence Policy on mentorship does exist, however only the South African Navy has thus far implemented the policy. The SAMHS has as yet, not implemented it. On determining the parallels between the processes of the social work methods of intervention, and especially, supervision, the researcher explored the field of mentoring. More similarities than differences had been identified between the processes of these social work methods and the process of mentoring. These commonalities contributed to this exploratory research study.

4.   Military occupational social workers are in an excellent position to effect change and contribute towards shaping the reality of participating with other role players, such as the Human Resources and line-managers, as mentors. Military social workers have a psycho-social understanding of the functioning of individuals in relation to the environment, and makes them specialists in the field of understanding human behaviour. This study could possibly provide a new field of additional training for military social workers, to equip management with human related skills through the field of mentoring.

5.   The required documentation at the Intelligence Division had already been completed to register this research project. The documentation had been forwarded by the Intellegence Officer of AMHU WC, Capt J. Davids to the Defence Intelligence. On 13 March 2007, Maj Radebe also contacted Col Burgess, a member from the ethics committee of SAMHS Training Formation. He explained that since the chief social workers with the rank of Maj and higher, is only utilize as respondents, that the only requirement would be to obtain permission from the Staff Officers from the relevant formations. The relevant social workers are thus not utilized as research objects. Col Burgess also confirmed the process that Maj Radebe had already complied with, that of registering

the research with Defence Intelligence. Hence, your permission is hereby required for the questionnaires to be distributed to the relevant social workers.

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6.   Your feedback in this regard will be appreciated.

7.   For your attention.

(E. BRUWER)
ACTING OFFICER COMMANDING AREA MILITARY HEALTH UNIT WESTERN CAPE: LT COL

CHR:CHR(H:/LETTERMA1.07.MSW)

DISTR

<u>For Action</u>

        Office of the Surgeon General (Attention: Col R. Pillay, Planning and Policy) GOC AMHF (Attention: Lt Col I.P. Barei, SO1 SW)
GOC TMHF (Attention: Lt Col N.A. Mahlambi, SO1 SW)

<u>Internal</u>

File: **AMHU WC/C/104/12/1/4**

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APPENDIX 2

FEEDBACK LETTER FROM SO1 SW TERTIARY FORMATION

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TMHF HQ/C/104/12/4

Telephone: (012) 314 0325
Fascimile: (012) 314 0349 Enquiries:
Lt Col N.A. Mahlambi

Headquarters Tertiarty
Military Health Fmn
Private Bag X102
Centurion
0046
28 March 2007

S O C I A L   W O R K E R S '   P A R T I C I P A T I O N   I N   C O M P L E T I O N   O F   Q U E S T I O N N A I R E

1.   Your letter AMHU WC/C/104/12/1/4 dated March 2007 with regard to the above mentioned has reference.

2.   Congratulations on your progress with regard to your studies! You must surely give yourself a pat on the back for coming this far, particularly if one considers work pressures and demands exerted on social workers.

3.   Furthermore, congratulations on your choice of an interesting research topic. My personal opinion is that this research might even afford social workers an opportunity to re-visit their capacity with regard to mentorship.

4.   In view of anticipated benefits from the proposed research, permission is hereby granted for Maj Radebe to involve military medical social workers in the completion of the questionnaire. It will be an honor for Tertiary Fmn to make a valuable contribution in the creation of new methods in social work.

5.   Good luck!

ORIGINAL DOCUMENT SIGNED.
(LT COL N.A. MAHLAMBI)
GENERAL OFFICER COMMANDING TERTIARY MILITARY HEALTH FORMATION: BRIG GEN DISTR

<u>For Action</u>

DSW
Dir SW

(Attention: Col R. Pillay)

<u>For Info</u>

OC 2 Mil Hosp
MPI

(Attention: Lt Col M. vd Vyver)

World Class Medical Services
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RESTRICTED

1 Mil Hosp.	(attention Lt Col M Pilane)
3 Mil Hosp.	(attention Lt Col K Devenish)

APPENDIX 3

FEEDBACK LETTER FROM SO1 SW AREA FORMATION

RESTRICTED

Telephone :012-355 *4541*
Facsimile: 012-355 4533
Enquiries: Capt T.I. Zakwe

AMHF/R/104/1214

Area military Health
Formation HQ Private

PARTICIPATION OF SOCIAL WORK OFFICERS IN THE RESEARCH PROGRANLME

1.   Attached please find a letter from Major Radebe requesting distribution of questionnaire to Social Work Office:a with the Rank of the Maj and Higher.

2.   Area MH Formation HQ is aware of the research Pi ugrarn conducted by Maj Radebe and therefore grant permission to all Staff Officers to support the Major with her Research Program.

3.   The research has been approved by the Ethical Committee and also re^{g}istered with the DOD.

4.   Your assistance is appreciated.

 ORIGINAL DOCUMENT SIGNED.
  (N.K. MOODLEY)
GENERAL OFFICER COMMANDLNG AREA MILITARY HEALTH FORMATION: BRIG GEN

DLSTR

For Action

Med list Delta

For Info

Dir SW

Internal

AMHF/R1104/12/4

APPENDIX 4

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS IN AREA, MOBILE AND TERTIARY FORMATION WITH REGARD TO THEIR INVOLVEMENT AS POTENTIAL MENTORS TO OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

QUESTIONNAIRE APPENDIX 4

UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

MENTORING OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MILITARY HEALTH SERVICE (SAMHS): A MILITARY SOCIAL WORK PERSPECTIVE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MILITARY SOCIAL WORKERS IN AREA, MOBILE AND TERTIARY FORMATION WITH REGARD TO THEIR INVOLVEMENT AS POTENTIAL MENTORS TO OFFICERS COMMANDING IN THE SAMHS

PURPOSE

The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine the perspective of military social workers in the post class of Level 9 and higher in the Directorate Social Work, with regard to their knowledge, skills and values as mentors to Officers Commanding in the SAMHS.

GUIDELINES FOR THE COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The questionnaire will be completed anonymously and the confidentiality of the content will be upheld. The questionnaire is number according to University guidelines.

2. The questionnaire will be administered in a group. Included is a certified envelope addressed to Major (Maj) Radebe. On completion of the questionnaire, please hand it in at your unit's confidential registry. The envelope with your questionnaire will be directly mailed to Maj Radebe.

3. Please read each question with your undivided attention and answer each question honestly and in full.

4. To ensure objectivity, please provide the first answer that comes to mind.

5. Some questions will require that you answer by making a cross (x) in the applicable block, whereas other questions will require an explanation or motivation.

6. It is requested that all the questions be answered. Your co-operation is appreciated.

A. IDENTIFYING INFORMATION

1.   What is your gender?

GENDER	
1.1 Male	
1.2 Female	

2.   What is your language proficiency? More than one choice is possible.

LANGUAGE	
2.1 Afrikaans	
2.2 English	
2.3 Xhosa	
2.4 Zulu	
2.5 Sotho	
2.6 Tswana	
2.7 Other	

3.   Indicate your highest social work qualification.

QUALIFICATIONS	
3.1 Diploma in Social Work	
3.2 BA Social Work or B Soc Sc (3 years)	
3.3 BA Social Work or B Soc Sc (4 years)	
3.4 Honours degree in Social Work	
3.5 Masters degree in Social Work	
3.6 Doctorate in Social Work	
3.7 Other Please specify	

B. WORK INFORMATION

4.   Please complete the information with regards to formation and unit.

4.1   Which headquarter or formation do you represent?

HEADQUARTER OR FORMATION	
4.1.1 SAMHS Headquarter (HQ)	
4.1.2 Female	
4.1.2 Area Military Health Formation	
4.1.3 Tertiary Military Health Formation	
4.1.4 Mobile Military Health Formation	

5.   How many years of work experience do you have in the SADF, SANDF, TBVC or non-statutory forces (MK, APLA)? Indicate years of service in the block.

YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE	0-5		5-10		10-15		15-20	
South African Defence Force								
South African National Defence Force (SANDF)								
Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC)								
Non-statutory forces								
Other welfare Organizations Please specify...... ...._.............								

5.1   Please specify if you have more than 20 years of work experience and in which organization?

      …………………………………………………………………………………..

6.   Indicate your total years of service as a social worker. This is collated as the years of service within the SADF, SANDF, TBVC or non-statutory forces, added with the years of service at other welfare organizations. Indicate years of service in the applicable block.

TOTAL YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE	
6.2.1 0-5 years	
6.2.2 5-10 years	
6.2.3 10-15 years	
6.2.4 15-20 years	
6.2.5 20-25 years	
6.2.6 25-30 years	

7.   What rank do you hold in the SANDF?

RANK	
7.1 Captain (Capt)	
7.2 Major (Maj)	
7.3 Lieutenant-Colonel (Lt Col)	
7.4 Colonel (Col)	
7.5 Civilian	

7. Which of the following work positions, describe your current post situation? More than one choice can be selected.

WORK POSITIONS	
8.1 Production social worker	
8.2 Research and development	
8.3 Workplace development specialist	
8.4 Personnel development specialist	
8.5 Operational development specialist	
8.6 Family pathology specialist	
8.7 Violence and Abuse specialist	
8.8 Chemical Substance Specialist	
8.9 Training development specialist	
8.10 Area Manager	
8.11 Staff Officer two: Level three (Area/ Tertiary	
8.12 Staff Officer one (SO1): Level three 8.13 Staff	
8.14 Policy and Planning Manager: Level two	
8.15 Performance Manager: Level two	

C. SOCIAL WORK RESPONSIBILITIES

9. Which of the following intervention methods and functions in social work do you use to perform your position (s) mentioned in question eight? More than one method and function can be selected.

INTERVENTION METHODS AND FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL WORK	
9.1 Casework	
9.2 Group work	
9.3 Community work	
9.4 Research	
9.5 Administration	
9.6 Management	
9.7 Supervision	

D. EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISION

10. Please answer the following questions related to supervision:

10.1. Did you receive any social work supervision upon entry in the SADF or SANDF?

SUPERVISION		
10.1.1 SADF	Yes	No
10.1.2 SANDF	**Yes**	No

10.2 If no, please explain your answer.

....

....

10.3 How long was your supervision in the SADF or SANDF? Please make a cross (X) in the applicable block.

PERIOD OF SUPERVISION	SADF	SANDF
10.3.1 One year		
10.3.2 Two years		
10.3.3 Other Pleasespecify....................................		

E. SUPERVISION TRAINING

11.   Please answer the following questions related to supervision training:

11.1 Have you received any formal training inside or outside the SADF, SANDF, TBVC or non-statutory forces that would qualify you to give supervision in the SANDF?

FORMAL SUPERVISION TRAINING	
11.1.1 Yes	
11.1.2 No	

11.2 If yes, please identify what type of supervision training did you receive for example in-house-training or at a tertiary institute and for how long?

....

....

F. EXPERIENCE AS SUPERVISOR

12.   How many years of supervision experience as a supervisor do you have in total, that is inclusive of your service rendering as a supervisor outside the SADF, SANDF, TBVC and Non-statutory forces? Please indicate your total years of supervision in the applicable block.

YEARS EXPERIENCE AS SUPERVISOR	
12.1 0-5 years	
12.2 5-10 years	
12.3 10-15 years	
12.4 15-20 years	
12.5 20-25 years	

G. TYPES OF SUPERVISION

13. Which of the following types of supervision are utilized in the Directorate Social Work by personnel development specialists? More than one choice is possible. Please tick the applicable block with a cross (X).

TYPES OF SUPERVISION	
13.1 **Individual supervision.** Individual supervision is occurring on a one to one basis.	
13.2 **Group supervision.** The use of the group setting is utilized, to implement part or all the responsibilities of supervision.	
13.3 **Peer supervision.** Peer supervision is part of the support function in supervision and is seen as an additional source of support for supervisees that supplement the efforts of the supervisor.	
13.4 **Informal supervision.** Informal supervision occurs when ad hoc discussions transpire amongst supervisees and supervisors. These ad hoc discussions are not planned by means of an agenda nor is it recorded.	
13.5 **Formal supervision.** Formal supervision is an important departure point for the helping process to start. It is structured and is utilised in conjunction with listening, questioning, summarizing and paraphrasing techniques.	

H. OCCUPATIONAL SOCIAL WORK WITHIN THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

14. There are four positions in the military social work practice model. Which position (s) in your opinion is suitable for the mentoring of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS? More than one response is possible.

THE PRACTICE MODEL POSITIONS	
14.1 Restorative interventions-focus on individual problems.	
14.2 Promotive interventions-renders a preventative, educational and developmental social work service.	
14.3 Work-person interventions-focus on the system of interpersonal relationships within the workplace.	
14.4 Workplace interventions-focus on the organisation or unit as an impersonal structure.	

15. Which of the following social work practice frameworks should a military occupational social worker have specific knowledge of to be effective in mentoring the Officer Commanding? Please tick the applicable rating by means of a cross (X).

SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE FRAMEWORKS	Important	Uncertain	Not important
15.1 The systems theory.			
15.2 The ecological perspective.			
15.3 Cognitive-behavioural theory.			
15.4 Role theory.			
15.5 Organisational development.			

I. THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE OFFICER COMMANDING

16. Which of the following internal environment factors of the Officer Commanding (OC) in the SAMHS would you consider important to have knowledge of, in order to perform the role of mentor to the OC in the area of human related skills? Rate the importance of this knowledge by ticking the relevant rating column with a cross (X).

INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	Important	Uncertain	Not important
16.1 Vision and mission of the SAMHS.			
16.2 The military structure in the SAMHS.			
16.3 The business plan and budget process in the SAMHS.			
16.4 The organizational culture in the SAMHS.			
16.5 Change in the SANDF.			
16.6 Incentives and rewards in the SANDF.			
16.7 Communication in the SANDF.			
16.8 Military training and development of OC's in the SAMHS.			
16.9 Other Please specify……………………………………			

17. Which of the following external environment factors of the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS would you consider important to have knowledge of, in order to perform the role of mentor to the OC in the area of human related skills? Rate the importance of this knowledge by ticking the relevant rating column.

EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT FACTORS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	Important	Uncertain	Not important
17.1 Political factors.			
17.2 Social factors.			
17.3 Economic factors.			
17.4 Technological factors.			

J. AN OVERVIEW OF THE FUNCTIONS OF OFFICERS COMMANDING

18. Are you familiar with the LCAMPS Model (Leadership, Command, Administration and Management Practices, Policies, Principles and Philosophies)?

L CAMPS MODEL	
18.1 Yes	
18.2 No	
18.3 Uncertain	

19. Please select all the functions in your opinion should be the functions of the Officer Commanding in the South African Military Health Service (SAMHS).

FUNCTIONS AND TASKS OF THE OC IN THE SAMHS	
19.1 **Leading.** When managers motivate subordinates, influence individuals or teams as they work, select the most effective communication channel, or deal with employee behaviour issues.	
19.2 **Planning.** Involves the process of identifying goals, establishing strategies for achieving those goals, and developing plans to integrate and co-ordinate activities.	
19.3 **Control.** Include monitoring of performance and corrective action.	
19.4 **Organising.** The process of determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who report to whom, and where decisions are to be made.	

K. REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MILITARY SOCIAL WORKER TO EXECUTE MENTORING

20. How would you rate the importance of having knowledge of the following social work intervention methods and supervision, to execute mentoring?

SOCIAL WORK PROCESS OF INTERVENTION METHODS SUPERVISION	Important	Uncertain	Not Important
20.1 Process in Casework			
20.2 Process in Group work			
20.3 Process in Supervision			

L. WORKING RELATIONSHIPS

21. Which of the following social work practice principles in your opinion should the military social worker as mentor possess, in order to maintain a professional and ethical working relationship with the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS?

SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE PRINCIPLES	
21.1 **Acceptance.** Conveys positive regard for client's strengths and potential for growth.	
21.2 **Individualization.** Affirms each client's unique and distinctive characteristics.	
21.3 **Non-judgmental.** Maintains non-blaming attitudes towards clients.	
21.4 **Objectivity.** Promotes professional caring, concern and commitment in working with clients.	
21.5 **Self-determination.** Upholds clients' rights to exercise their own decision-making.	
21.6 **Access to services.** Promotes and fosters resources and opportunities for the client.	
21.7 **Confidentiality.** Respects clients' right to privacy.	
21.8 **Accountability.** Ensures competent professional conduct and comportment.	
21.9 **Vision to a problem situation.** New ideas, perspectives and change strategies should be presented in a hopeful and realistic manner.	
21.10 **Build on client strengths.** The abilities and potential should be the focus instead of the deficiencies.	
21.11 **Philosophy of normalization.** Manner in which to assist people with challenges to integrate in their communities.	

22. Specify which of the following skills should a military social worker as mentor of Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, possess? More than one choice is possible.

SOCIAL WORK SKILLS	
22.1 **Assessment skills.** Ability to assess more than one system in their interaction in their environment and to operationalise these assessments into workable data.	
22.2 **Contracting skills.** Ability to stipulate the mutuality as to what is agreed upon and the nature of interaction between the people in a specific, clear and oral or written contract.	
22.3 **Facilitation skills.** Ability to facilitate discussions in an unbiased and open manner. Give structure to the process. Facilitator is flexible and contributes to depth and clarity of topic under discussion.	
22.4 **Problem-solving and decision-making skills.** Utilising the steps in the problem-solving process to identify and utilise resources. A decision is made when consciously, and the best option from all the possible alternatives available, are chosen.	
22.5 **Interviewing skills.** An important departure point for the helping process to start. Utilise in conjunction with listening, questioning, summarizing and paraphrasing techniques. Further supported by the helping techniques such as acceptance, validation and clarification.	
22.6 **Communication skills.** Reflect the exchange of communication between a sender and a receiver. Distinguish between verbal (messages with regard to feelings, cognitions) and non-verbal communication (eye contact, posture).	

23. Specify which of the following roles are being practiced in the Directorate Social Work by military social workers? More than one choice is possible.

SOCIAL WORK ROLES	
23.1 **Enabler role.** Directed towards assisting clients to find the coping strengths and resources within them to produce change necessary for accomplishment.	
23.2 **Educator role.** Develop the skills of the client, enhance life tasks and role performance of clients. A sound knowledge base and skills competency essential for the social worker.	
23.3 **Change agent role.** Establish change within the person and it's environment.	
23.4 **Broker role.** Enable people to reach appropriate services by providing information after assessing the need of the individual and the nature of sources available.	
23.5 **Mediator role.** Improve existing connections and relationships which the client has with resources in their environment. The role is executed with both the client and resource, where give and take is a priority.	
23.6 **Workload manager role.** Provide an efficient service to the client and the employing organisation. Execute functions such as work planning, time management, monitoring and information processing.	
23.7 **Staff developer role.** Develop individuals by means of personnel development methods, for example orientation, supervision, in-service-training, consultation.	
23.8 **Catalyst role:** Develop humane service delivery and advocate just social and environmental policy.	

M. MENTORING

24. Select the correct definition of a mentor.

DEFINITION OF MENTOR	
24.1 Someone who is young and newly appointed in the organization or their specific jobs.	
24.2 Someone who is traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégés through their careers by giving advice built on their mentors' knowledge, position and experience.	

25. Select the correct definition of protégé.

DEFINITION OF PROTÉGÉ	
25.1 Someone who is young and newly appointed in the organization or their specific jobs.	
25.2 Someone who is traditionally more senior than the protégé and responsible for guiding the protégés through their careers by giving advice built on their mentors' knowledge, position and experience.	

N. MENTORING POLICIES, PROCEDURE AND LEGISLATION

26. Which of the following policies, procedure and legislation would assist the military social worker in the SANDF in the role as mentor? More than one choice is possible.

POLICIES, PROCEDURE AND LEGISLATION	
26.1 Skills Development Act of 97 of 1998.	
26.2 Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the policy on Equal Opportunities and Affirmative Action.	
26.3 Department of Defence (DOD) policy on mentorship.	
26.4 Command Standing Work Procedure (SWP): Mentoring and on-the-job-training.	

O. THE MENTORING PROCESS

27. Which of the following phases in your opinion, should be included in the mentoring process? More than one phase is possible.

THE MENTORING PROCESS	
27.1 Pre-planning phase (goals, co-ordination, orientation, training).	
27.2 Planning phase (introduction, foundation, agreement, collaboration).	
27.3 Middle phase (problem-solving, personal and professional framework).	
27.4 The ending phase (evaluation of professional development and transition).	

P. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MENTOR

28. Which of the following characteristics of a mentor would you consider essential to possess in order to mentor the Officer Commanding in the SAMHS? Please tick the rating scale in the applicable column.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MENTOR	Important	Uncertain	Not important
28.1 Supportive			
28.2 Patient			
28.3 Respected by protégé and colleagues			
28.4 People-orientated			
28.5 Motivator			
28.6 Respectful of others			
28.7 Teacher/trainer			
28.8 Self-confident			

Q. EXPECTATIONS OF THE PROTÉGÉ TOWARDS THE MENTOR

29. Which of the following expectations, in your opinion, would be expectations that a protégé would hold of their mentors?

EXPECTATIONS OF THE PROTÉGÉ TOWARDS THE MENTOR	Important	Uncertain	Not important
29.1 Encouragement.			
29.2 Support.			
29.3 Honesty.			
29.4 Candid information and advice.			
29.5 A holistic picture.			
29.6 Honest appraisal of capabilities.			
29.7 Availability of time without interruptions.			
29.8 Guidance.			

R. TRAINING OF THE MENTOR

30. Should you be considered as a mentor for Officers Commanding in the SAMHS, which of the following areas would you consider to be important for your training as a mentor? More than one choice is possible.

TRAINING OF THE MENTOR	Important	Uncertain	Not important
30.1 Functions in mentoring.			
30.2 Activities in mentoring.			
30.3 Differences and similarities between mentoring, coaching and counselling.			
30.4 Difference and similarities between mentoring, supervision, in-service-training and consultation.			
30.5 The different types of mentoring.			
30.6 The difference between the types of supervision and mentoring.			

Thank you for your co-operation.

(C.H. **RADEBE)**
STAFF OFFICER 2 SOCIAL WORK: MAJOR

APPENDIX 5

OFFICER'S FORMATIVE COURSE REPORT

MILITARY HEALTH TRAINING FORMATION COURCE REPORT

NUMBER:	RANK:	CO
NAME:	SERVICE	SAMHS
UNIT: 2 MIL HOSP	COURSE NUMBER:	
DESCRIPTION: FORMATIVE TRAINING FOR NCO COURSE	DURATION	16/9/2002-6/12/2002
STUDENT RESULTS in %	NUMBER OF STUDENTS:	131

SUBJECT	POSSIBLE	REQUIRED	ACHIEVED	RE-WRITE	ALLOCATEC
CSW	100	60	79.0		79.0
ORGANISATION	100				
PRINCIPLES AND DIMENSIONS	100				
CEREMONIAL	100				
OFFICERSHIP	100				
TQM MANAGEMENT	100				
COUNTER INTELLIGENCE	100				
MILITARY LAW	100				
FINANCE AND BUDGETING	100				
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	100				
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP	100				
PEACE SUPPORT OPERATIONS	100				
ECONOMICS	100				
CSW UNPREPARED SPEECH	100				
CORPORATE COMMUNICATION	100				
INTELLIGENCE	100				
PRACTICAL DRILL	100				
TOTAL	100				

REMARKS PASS:

(C.D. NYANGINTSIMBII
OFFICER COMMANDING SCHOOL FOR MILITARY TRAINING: COL

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APPENDIX 6
JUNIOR COMMAND AND STAFF COURSE PROGRAMME

SAMHS
Privatebag X1022
Thaba Tshwane
0143

SA Military Health Training Formation

Date: 03:07:02	
From: Col MC Msmango	To: Maj Radebr
Regarding: Junior command and staff cource	
Attention:	Fax no: 021 7996271
Number of pages: (including cover page) 6	
Message	
United against a common enemy, the SANDF/SAMHS is fighting HIV	

JUNE

3	Monday	Opening and admin		Military Strategy		SAMHS Strategy
4	Tuesday	Infant Battle Handling		Infant Battle Handling		Infant Battle Handling
5	Wednesday	Parachute Bn		Special Forces		Artillery Battle Handling
6	Thursday	Engineer Battle Hand		Engineer Battle Hand		Air Defence Artillery
7	Friday	Armour Battle Hand		Armour Battle Hand		Armour Battle Hand
10	Monday	Admin period		Operational Concept		Operational Concept
11	Tuesday	Intelligence Regt		Navy		Air Force
12	Wednesday	Offensive Ops		Offensive Ops		Offensive Ops
13	Thursday	Defensive Ops		Defensive Ops		Defensive Ops
14	Friday	Land Battle		Land Battle		Area Protection
18	Tuesday	Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces
19	Wednesday	Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces
20	Thursday	Med Bn (Current)		Med Bn (Current)		Med Bn (Critical Analysis)
21	Friday	Med Bn (Current)		Med Bn (Critical)		Med Support
24	Monday	EVALUATION		Map Work		Map Work
25	Tuesday	Map Work		Map Work		Map Work
26	Wednesday	Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces		Opposing Forces
27	Thursday	PS Model		PS Model		PS Model
28	Friday	Operational Staff Work		OPS Staff Work		Operational Staff Work
29	Monday	Presentation Battle Plan				Lecture Medo
30	Tuesday	Execution Medo		Presentation Medo		Presentation Medo
31	Wednesday	Life Skills				

JULY

1	Monday	Command Brief and Review of Situation					
2	Tuesday	Execution of Review					
3	Wednesday	Execution of Review					
4	Thursday	Presentation Review		Lecture Battle Concepts		Executions Battle Concepts	
5	Friday	Executions of Battle Concepts					
8	Monday	Presentation Mission Analysis				Lecture Battle concepts T & S	
9	Tuesday	Time & Space		Time & Space		Lecture Weather Population	
10	Wednesday	Execution Weather Population					
11	Thursday	Present Weather Pop		Lecture Terrain Analysis		Execution Own Forces	
12	Friday	Execution Terrain					
15	Monday	Presentation Terrain		Lecture Own Forces		Execution Own Forces	
16	Tuesday	Execution Own Forces				Presentation Own Forces	
17	Wednesday	Lecture OPFOR		Execution OPFOR		Execution OPFOR	
18	Thursday	Pres OPFOR		Lecture Output		Execution Outputs	
19	Friday	Present Battle Concept Output		Questions		Questions	
22	Monday	Development of options- Analysis of Battlefield Dynamics					
23	Tuesday	Execution Analysis of Battlefield					
24	Wednesday	Presentation Battlefield Dynamics				Lecture Choice of Option	
25	Thursday	Execution Choice of Options				Presentation Choice Options	
26	Friday	Lecture battle form plan		Execution of Battle Plan			
29	Monday	Presentation Battle Plan				Lecture Medo	
30	Tuesday	Execution Medo		Presentation Medo		Presentation Medo	
31	Wednesday	Life Skills					

AUGUST

1	Thursday	Life Skills	
2	Friday	Life Skills	
5	Monday	SD Process	
6	Tuesday	SD Process	
7	Wednesday	Exele Model	
12	Monday	General Management	
13	Tuesday	General Management	
14	Wednesday	General Management	
15	Thursday	General Management	
16	Friday	General Management	
19	Monday	NLP	
20	Tuesday	NLP	
21	Wednesday	Full Range Leadership	
22	Thursday	Full Range Leadership	
23	Friday	Full Range Leadership	
26	Monday	Communication	
27	Tuesday	Communication	
28	Wednesday	Communication	
29	Thursday	Communication	
30	Friday	Communication	

SEPTEMBER

2	Monday	Human Resource Management	
3	Tuesday	Human Resource Management	
4	Wednesday	Human Resource Management	
5	Thursday	Human Resource Management	
6	Friday	Human Resource Management	
9	Monday	Logistical Management	
10	Tuesday	Logistical Management	
11	Wednesday	Logistical Management	
12	Thursday	Logistical Management	
13	Friday	Logistical Management	
16	Monday	Health Information	
17	Tuesday	Health Information	
18	Wednesday	Patient Administration	
19	Thursday	Patient Administration	
20	Friday	Patient Administration	
25	Wednesday	Disaster Management	
26	Thursday	Disaster Management	
27	Friday	Disaster Management	
30	Monday	Financial Management	

OCTOBER

1	Tuesday	Financial Management				
2	Wednesday	Financial Management				
3	Thursday	Financial Management				
4	Friday	Financial Management				
7	Monday	Medical Health Training Program				
8	Tuesday	Medical Health Training Program				
9	Wednesday	Medical Health Training Program				
10	Thursday	Medical Health Training Program				
11	Friday	Medical Health Training Program				
14	Monday	NLP	""	NLP		NLP
15	Tuesday	Debrief		Debrief		Debrief
16	Wednesday	Sport Day				
17	Thursday	Ontlading		"Ontlading"		"Ontlading"
18	Friday	CLEARING OUT				
21	Monday					
22	Tuesday					
23	Wednesday					
24	Thursday					
25	Friday					
28	Monday					
29	Tuesday					
30	Wednesday					
31	Thursday					

ATTENTION: MS CRYSTAL RADEBE: 021 799 6760

USEFUL READING IN OCCUPATIONAL SOCIAL WORK

Akabas, S, H. and Akabas, S. A. 1982 "Social Services at the Workplace\; New Resources for Management" <u>Management Review</u>. 71 (5): 15-20.

Akabas, S, H and Kurzman, P. (Eds) 1982 <u>Work, Workers and Work organisations: A View from Social Work</u>. Prentice-Hall

Barak, E. 2000 <u>Repositioning Occupational Social Work in the new Millennium</u>. Haworth Press.

Du Plessis, A. 1990 "Occupational Social Work" in McKendrick, B.W (Ed) Social Work in Action. Huam Tertiary

Du Plessis, A. 1987 "An Overview of Industrial Social Work in South Africa" in McKendrick, B. W. <u>The Contribution of Social Work in a Changing South Africa</u>. University of the Witwatersrand

Googins, B. and Godfrey,J. 1987   Occupational Social Work. Prentice-Hall

Googins, B. and Godfrey, J. 1985 "The Evolution of Occupational Social Work" <u>Social Work</u> 30 (4): 398-402

Gould, G. M. and Smith, M. L. 1988 <u>Social Work in the Workplace</u>. Springer

Kurzman, P. and Akabas, S. H. 1981 "Industrial Social Work as an Arena for Practice" <u>Social Work</u>. 26 (1): 25-60

Masi,D. A. 1982 <u>Human Services in Industry</u>. Lexington

Ozawa, M. 1980 "Development of Social Services in Industry: Why and How?" Social Work 26(6): 464-470.

Straussner, S. L. A. 1989 <u>Occupational Social Work Today</u>. Haworth Press.

PhD theses in Occupational Social Work in South Africa:

1.   Angela du Plessis, 1994, Wits.
2.   Pedro Rankin, 1990, Rhodes

A P P E N D I X 7

JOINT SENIOR COMMAND AND STAFF COURSE (JSCSC) PROGRAMME

SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL WAR COLLEGE

JOINT SENIOR COMMAND AND STAFF PROGRAMME

JOINING INSTRUCTIONS FOR 2004

"A programme for our future leaders"

COURSE: JSCSP PRESIDENTIAL 03/2004: INDIVIDUAL FOUNDATION MODULE   SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL COLLEGE PRETORIA
Week 32: 26-30 Jan 04

DAY	07:45-08:00	08:00-08:40	08:45-09:25	09:30-10:10	10:30-11:10	11:15-11:55	12:00-12:40		13:00-14:10	14:15-14:55	15:20-16:00	After Hours
Monday 26 Jan		Welcoming by TC	General Administration	General Administration & Orientation wrt Facilities	Allocation of Accommodation	Parking Admin/ allocation	Finalisation of Accommodation/ Parking		Passport & Visa	Photo's & IT Problem Solving	Introduction of Academic Wing Personnel	Function 16:00-17:00
		TC/SDS/L/AUD	MMW/L/AUD	MMW/L/AUD	MMW/L/AUD	MMW/L/AUD	LNRS/DS/Rooms		Lnrs/P/AUD	Lnrs/P/AUD	TC/P/AUD	SANWC
Tuesday 27 Jan		Welcoming Address by Commandant SANWC		Chaplain		Social Work (Family Resilience Program)			Practice and Preparation for CSANDF Formal Opening of JSCSP2004		Formal Opening by C SANDF	Function with C SANDF
		Cmdt/L/AUD		Cpln/L/AUD		SW/L/AUD			SDS/Lnrs/SANWC		SANWC	SANWC
Wednesday 28 Jan		Learning Systems & DS Roles	JSCSP Curriculum Overview		Orientation of SANWC Structure & Functions	English Language Assessment			Command & Control Procedures	Learner & Programme Finances	Learner Committee Structure	
		TC/L/AUD	TC/L/AUD		COS/L/AUD	WL/L/AUD			JS/L/AUD	KN/L/AUD	MMW/L/AUD	
Thursday 29 Jan		Introduction & Orientation Bloom/s Taxanomy (GERS)	Portfolio of learning	Portfolio of learning Q & A	SRD on SRD's	Computer Literacy Assessment			Tasking of Command Research Paper	Presentation Skills: The Ultimate Presentation	Library Orientation	
		TC/L/AUD	AVW/L/AUD	AVW/L/AUD	DS/L/AUD	IT/L/AUD			DS/L/AUD	JS/L/AUD	Library Staff	
Friday 30 Jan	Parade (07:30)	Powerpoint Presentations		JSCSO Assessment Policy & Practices		Lecture Planning and Scheduling (Assignment Tasking)	Problemsolving and Decision Making		Leadersip vs Management	Mentorship, Coaching, Counselling	Teamwork	
	ALL/PG	Lnrs/P/SyndR		TC/L/AUD		SDS/L/AUD	AVW?AUD		EXG/L/AUD	DS/L/AUD	HN/L/AUD	

Note:
DS Only
AW Management Meeting

AW Training Meeting (All DS)	Cmdt- Brig Gen W. Nkonyeni	DS-Directing Staff	SR- Syndicate Room
LC- Parade Commander	COS- Col S. Swart	EXG-Lt Col E.X.G Mabanga	Lnrs- Learners
Learners	TC-Col A.L. Benade	HN-Lt Col H.Nagel	S-Social Event
Breakfast 07:00-07:30	SDS-Senior Directing Staff	WL-Lt Col W.Liebenberg	P-Practical
Tea and Coffee 07:30-07:40	JS-Capt (SAN) J. Sinovich	SS-Lt Col S. Statford	L-Lecture
Tea and Coffee 10:10-10:30	MMW- Col M.M Walters	KN-Cdr K.Naidoo	AUD-Auditorium (SANWC Building)
Lunch 12:45-13:30	DM-Col D. Maswanganyi	BS- Cdr D. Swart	L.R- Lecture Room
Tea and Coffee 15:00-15:20	AVW-Col A. v/d Walt	GL1-Guest Lecturer 1	Bunker- Learner Recreation Facility (SANWC) TC JSCSP: COL A.L.BENADé
Dinner at 17:00		GL2-Guest Lecturer 2	PG-Parade Ground

Parade starts at 07:30 but learners are present from 07:20
Formal Powerpoint presentation by Learners on Friday 30.01.04, 08:00-10:10

COURSE: JSCSP PRESIDENTIAL 03/2004: INDIVIDUAL FOUNDATION MODULE   **SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL WAR COLLEGE PRETORIA**
Week 33:02-03 Feb 04

DAY	07:45-08:00	08:00-09:25	09:30-10:10	10:30-11:10	11:15-11:55	12:00-12:40		13:30-14:10	14:15-14:55	15:20-16:00	
Monday		Skills Development (Logical Thinking and Conceptualisation)						Skills Development (Logical Thinking and Conceptualisation)			
02 Feb		Teaching how to think		Personality Analysis	Basic Planning Skills and Problemsolving Techniques			Basic Planning Skills and Problemsolving Techniques			
		GL/L/AUD						GL/L/AUD			
Tuesday		Skills Development (Logical Thinking and Conceptualisation)						Skills Development (Logical Thinking and Conceptualisation)			
03 Feb		Management Profile		Logical Thought Processes (facts, deductions, conclusions)				Writing Skills		Reading Skills	
		GL/P/AUD						GL/L/AUD			
Wednesday		Skills Development (Logical Thinking and Conceptualisation)						Sport			
04 Feb		Brain Dominance		Conceptualisation vs detail and its application							
		GL/P/AUD						Lnrs/P/SG			
Thursday		Skills Development (Team Functioning and Interaction)		Skills Development (Logical thinking and Conceptualisation)	Skills Development (Team Roles)			Skills Development (Team Roles)	JSCSP 2004 Election of Learner Body		
05 Feb		Individual Planning and Scheduling Assignment		Lecture on the Process of Research	Forming, Storming, Norming of Learner Body			Forming, Storming, Norming of Learner Body			
		GL/L/AUD						GL/L/AUD			
Friday		Introductory Examination		JSCSP 2004 Election of Learner Committee	Development of JSCSP 2004 Mission and Core Values			Development of JSCSP 2004 Mission and Core Values	Debrief of Module		
06 Feb		Lnrs/L/AUD		Lnrs/L/AUD	GL/L/AUD			GL/L/AUD		Lnrs/P/AUD	

(Left column spanning: **Administration**; between 12:40 and 13:30 column: **LUNCH**)

Note:
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LC- Parade Commander	COS- Col S. Swart	EXG-Lt Col E.X.G Mabanga	Lnrs- Learners
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