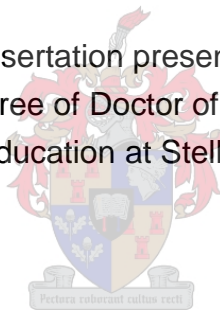


**Mentoring and the development of educators in South African Technical and Vocational Education**

by

Andre James van der Bijl

Dissertation presented  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
at the Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University



Supervisor: Dr B.L. Frick  
March 2015

**DECLARATION**

**ORIGINAL WORK**

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own work, that I am the sole author thereof, that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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*Date:* March 2015

## ABSTRACT

A perennial challenge facing public technical and vocational education and training (TVET) colleges in South Africa is that the majority of staff, while technically qualified to do the work that forms the contents of what they teach, are either not professionally qualified educators, or are professionally qualified as educators in other educational sectors. For TVET lecturers, the development of their teaching skills, like their professional identity, relies primarily on informal development by line managers, other members of staff or themselves. This study examines how professionally underqualified lecturers employed at TVET colleges in the Western Cape develop their teaching skills, *inter alia*, by being mentored by managers, experienced members of staff or themselves by asking the question: in what ways do mentoring processes within a college contribute to the incorporation of staff into a college?. Flowing from the primary research question this study sought to identify the nature and forms of institutional level mentoring, as well as the related use of language and power.

This study is framed within the critical paradigm, applying a methodological framework developed by Fairclough (2010) and a combination of methods of analysis. At a micro level a form of analysis designed by Fairclough (1989; 2001) is used. The results are classified by means of a Foucauldian-based methodological framework developed by Keevy (2005). Mentoring has become popular as a term to describe informal learning in a wide variety of settings, including business and education. As a result of the popularity of the term, publications on a wide array of aspects related to informal learning have been produced. Periodically, however, criticisms of mentoring have surfaced, which fundamentally challenge its standing as an academic discipline. Such critique prompted this research project: to question whether or not mentoring was, what Fairclough calls a *social wrong*. Challenging the assumption that mentoring is a social wrong forms a point of departure for this study. A broad analysis of literature about mentoring is presented with the aim of identifying what Foucault calls, its *ethical substance*. The established ethical substance of mentoring is extrapolated into a schema indicating various broad descriptions of mentoring. The broad descriptions are used in an analysis of mentoring practices in a professional work environment suited to the application of current mentoring practices, one in which has not yet been formally applied in staff induction programmes: namely, public technical and vocational education and training (TVET) colleges.

In addition to challenging the assumption that mentoring is a social wrong, the study, significantly, the neo-liberal notion that mentees are passive recipients of knowledge. Findings from this study indicate, significantly, that new lecturers develop themselves as lecturers by unconsciously using mentoring methodologies, in the absence of formal mentoring programmes. In contrast to many international institutions, where mentoring programmes are mandatory, the lecturers interviewed in this study were not constrained by the managerialist ideology of neo-liberalism and were empowered by the mentoring with which they were involved. This study provides insights into how professional mentees learn, who they learn from and how they use what they have learnt in their own development, and how this contributes towards an understanding of the nature of adult learning in the workplace.

Literature reviewed in this study includes a wide range of publications on the topic of mentoring, including education publications, business management publication and translations of the two original texts on the subject, namely Homer's *Odyssey* and Fenelon's *Adventures of Telemachus*. Key educational publications consulted include the translated works of Plato and Freire. Publications on social critique include the works of Fairclough and Foucault.

## OPSOMMING

Die kwessie rakende personeel wat tegnies gekwalifiseerd is om die werk, wat die vakinhoud van hulle lesings vorm, te doen, maar wat nie professionele onderwysopleiding het nie of in ander opvoedingsvelde gekwalifiseer is, is 'n uitdaging waarmee tegnies en beroepsgerigte onderwys en opleiding (TVET/TBOO) colleges voortdurend te kampe het. Hierdie dosente steun grotendeels op hulself, lyn bestuurders of ander personeellede om hulle onderwysvaardighede op 'n informele wyse te ontwikkel. Hierdie studie ondersoek die maniere waarop dosente met onvoldoende professionele kwalifikasies by (TVET/TBOO) colleges in die Wes-Kaap hulle eie vaardighede ontwikkel deur onder meer die mentorskap van bestuurders en ervare personeellede. Dit word gedoen aan die hand van die volgende vraag: "Op watter wyses dra prosesse van mentorskap binne 'n kollege by tot die inkorporering van personeel." Hierdie studie poog om, na aanleiding van die primêre navorsingsvraag, die aard en vorm van mentorskap op die institusionele vlak te identifiseer sowel as die meegaande gebruik van taal en gesag.

Hierdie studie is benader vanuit die kritiese paradigma met die toepassing van 'n metodologiese raamwerk soos ontwikkel deur Fairclough (2010) tesame met 'n kombinasie van analitiese metodes. 'n Metode van analise wat Fairclough (1989; 2001) ontwikkel het, is op 'n mikrovlak toegepas en die resultate is daarna geklassifiseer met Keevy (2005) se Foucault-gebaseerde metodologiese raamwerk. Mentorskap word wyd gebruik as 'n omvattende begrip om informele leer in diverse kontekste aan te dui. Dit sluit die sakewêreld en onderwys in. Die gewildheid van die begrip het 'n wye verskeidenheid publikasies betreffende informele leer tot gevolg gehad. Daar is egter deurentyd kritiek op mentorskap wat die fundamentele waarde daarvan bevraagteken. Dit is hierdie kritiek wat die navorser genoop het om te vra of mentorskap wel 'n "maatskaplike wandaad" is soos wat Fairclough dit noem. Die vertrekpunt van hierdie studie is die veronderstelling dat dit wel so is. 'n Oorsigtelike analise van literatuur betreffende mentorskap word voorgelê met die doel om dit wat Foucault die "etiese substans" noem, te identifiseer. Die bepaalde etiese substans van mentorskap word geëkstrapoleer tot 'n skema wat verskeie breë definisies van mentorskap aandui. Hierdie breë definisies word dan gebruik in 'n ontleding van mentorskap in 'n professionele werksomgewing, wat geskik is vir die toepassing van bestaande mentorpraktyke, maar waar dit nog nie formeel in personeelinduksiëprogramme ingesluit is nie: naamlik (TVET/TBOO) colleges.

Hierdie studie bevraagteken nie net die aanname dat mentorskap 'n maatskaplike wandaad is nie, maar ook die neo-liberale siening dat diegene wat gementor word die ontvangers van kennis is en dui daarop dat nuwe dosente hulself ontwikkel, weens 'n gebrek aan formele mentorprogramme, deur die onbewuste gebruik van mentormetodes. In teenstelling met baie internasionale instellings waar mentorprogramme verpligtend is, is die dosente met wie daar onderhoude gevoer is nie aan bande gelê deur neo-liberale bestuursideologieë nie en is bemagtig deur die mentorskap waarin hulle betrokke was. Die studie gee insigte in hoe professionele persone wat mentorskap ontvang, leer, van wie hulle leer, hoe hulle dit wat hulle leer in hulle eie ontwikkeling toepas en hoe dit bydra tot 'n begrip van die aard van volwasse leer in die werkplek.

Die literatuur wat in hierdie studie geraadpleeg word, sluit 'n wye spektrum van publikasies oor die vakgebied van mentorskap in. Dit is onder meer onderwys- en sakebestuurpublikasies sowel as vertalings van twee

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oorspronklike geskrifte rakende die onderwerp, by name Homeros se *Oduſſeia* en Fénelon se *Avonture van Telemachus*. Die vertaalde werke van Plato en Freire is onder die opvoedkundige sleutelbronne wat geraadpleeg is en bronne oor maatskaplike kritiek sluit die werke van Fairclough en Foucault in.

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**LIST OF ACRONYMS**

1. AT: Activity Theory
2. CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis
3. CEO: Chief Executive Officer
4. CIPD: Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
5. CMR: Critical Management Research
6. CoP: Community of Practice
7. CV: Curriculum Vitae
8. DA: Discourse Analysis
9. DCEO: Deputy Chief Executive Officer
10. ECD: Early Childhood Development
11. ETD: Education, Training and Development
12. ETDP SETA: Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority
13. FE: Further Education
14. FET: Further Education and Training
15. FETC: Further Education and Training College
16. HE: Higher Education
17. HET: Higher Education and Training
18. HR: Human Resources
19. HRA: Human Resource Manager A
20. HRB: Human Resource Manager B
21. HRC: Human Resource Manager C
22. HRD: Human Resource Development
23. HSRC; Human Science Research Council
24. ICT: Information and Communications Technologies

25. IFT: Institute of Food Technologists
26. IQMS: Integrated Quality Management System
27. ISTATS: Integrated Assessment Tasks
28. IT; Information Technology
29. MR: Member Resource
30. NATED: National Department of Education
31. NCV: National Curriculum (Vocational)
32. NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation
33. NPDE: National Professional Diploma in Education
34. NQF: National Qualifications Framework
35. ODETDP: Occupationally Directed Education, Training and Development Practitioner
36. PGCE: Post Graduate Certificate in Education
37. SAQA: South African Qualifications Authority
38. SETA: Sector Education and Training Authority
39. TAFE: Technical and Further Education Institutions
40. TVET: Technical and Vocational Education and Training
41. U.S.: United States
42. U.K.: United Kingdom

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1990s, radical social changes within South Africa have caused fundamental alterations to its legislative framework which, in turn, have made social demands on the vocationally-aligned education and training sector. The legislative framework introduced, and periodically revised, the development of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and a Qualifications Authority (SAQA) within which all institutions of education and training are accommodated (South Africa, 2006a). The three education and training bands that make up the NQF include two bands for school education, one of which is technical and vocationally aligned public college education.<sup>1</sup> The legislative framework provides for the development of occupationally directed education, training and development practitioners (ODETDP), as well as Early Childhood Development (ECD), Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) practitioners and, more recently, vocational and post-school education (South Africa, 1995; 1996; 1997; 1998a; 1998b; 2000a; 200b; 2006a, 2006b; 2012, 2013, 2014).

A key feature of the new framework, in both legislation and practice, is the concept of *mentoring*. This term has been well documented in a variety of forms of literature (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2001; Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority, 2002; Geber & Greyling, 2005; Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2006; Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono & Schultz, 2008; Nel, Werner, Poisat, Sono, du Plessis, Ngalo, Van Hoek & Botha, 2011). Mentoring has been described as one of the *grand paradigms* of the late twentieth century (Loots: 2007: 26). As a term, mentoring has its roots in Greek mythology (Healy, 1989:32); *Mentor* is a character in Homer's *Odyssey* (Rieu, 1948; Church, 1957). The pedagogic roots of mentoring lie in Hawkesworth's (1797; 1825; 1848) 18<sup>th</sup> century text which was used to train the

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<sup>1</sup> At the time of publication, public technical and vocational education in South Africa is undergoing a name change. When the interviews were conducted, institutions were officially called Further Education and Training Colleges (FETC), which is how most interviews referred to them. However, most documents currently produced by the state Department of Higher Education and Training (South Africa, 2012; 2104) refer to technical and vocational (TVET) colleges.

*Dauphin* of France. In addition to its European roots, the meaning of mentoring is compatible with Eastern concepts of *teaching* (Massoudi, 2002; 2003).

Despite these historical and illustrative meanings of the word, and indications of its usage in the 1960s (Renton, 2009: 38)<sup>2</sup>, its wide-scale usage dates back to the mid-1990s<sup>3</sup>. During the 1990s 'mentoring' became a professional development tool in a number of professions that have complex, hierarchical environments, complicated entry mechanisms, profession-specific vocabularies and language usage. Professions that started using mentoring include education, medicine and law enforcement (Healy, 1989: 33; Bleach, 1999: 5).

The propensity for the use of mentoring in the vocationally-aligned further education and training sector in South Africa is due largely to the fact that a substantial component of academic staff work without a professional teaching qualification that meets the State's set minimum requirements. The unqualified component of lecturing staff in the sector is estimated by the State to be between 44% and 64 % (South Africa, 2008: 9-10). For professionally un- and under-qualified lecturing staff in the sector, informal learning is often used to develop teaching competency. These staff members rely on formal mentoring programmes, as well as informal learning from mentoring and coaching by supervisors, peers or themselves to develop their competence as professional educators. These forms of informal learning<sup>4</sup> constitute what may be defined provisionally as mentee-driven *mentoring*.

## **1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SECTOR**

Vocational education in South Africa dates back to the 1880s to what was then known as the province of Natal, and to the 1890s in the Cape Colony and the Republics later integrated into the Union of South Africa in 1910 (Pittendrigh, 1988: 108-109). The first organised institutions offering vocational education and training, according to Pittendrigh, were established as schools for mines and railways. The establishment of these early vocational institutions was followed soon after by the

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<sup>2</sup> This will be illustrated in chapter 2.

<sup>3</sup> The earliest publication identified during this study dates back to 1984 (Robinson, 1984).

<sup>4</sup> This will be seen in chapter 2.

appointment of advisory boards, in 1912 and legislation in the 1920s and 1930s. Apartheid-oriented revisions and new forms of legislation followed in the 1950s and 1960s (Pittendrigh, 1988: 108-155). In 1981 a volume of the De Lange Commission was devoted to the sector (Human Science Research Council, 1981). The Green and White papers on post-school education (South Africa, 2012; 2014) have given vocational education a key position in the state's plans for school leaving and unemployed youth.

In his publication *Technikons in South Africa*, Pittendrigh (1988: 108-155) indicates that the current technical vocational education and training sector has had a disjointed and complex history. It has been moved between various State departments; grouped first with Higher Education and Training (HET), then existing separately as a State provisioning entity. In 1998 the sector was placed within provincial education (National Access Consortium Western Cape, 2001:33-36). Recently, it was migrated to higher education, following the publication of Green and White Papers on post-school education (South Africa, 2012; 2014).

The vocationally aligned education sector was not easily assimilated into the post-apartheid system of education and training. Private vocational education was criticised by the post-1994 government for being 'inconsistent with the principles ... enshrined in the Freedom Charter' (Akoojee, Gewer & McGrath, 2005: 3) because public technical colleges were associated with colonial and apartheid labour needs (Gamble, 2003:8-9). Various models were put forward to replace technical colleges in the public sector in the 1990s (see Cloete, 2009: 12-16).

Currently, the South African technical and vocational education and training sector consists mainly of public and private FET colleges, now being re-named TVET colleges which will operate in terms of the Further Education and Training Act (South Africa, 2006b). The environment in which institutions in this sector of South Africa operate is not unlike the one described by Lucas and Unwin (2009: 426). The State is the dominant mechanism for input. Lucas and Unwin describe the situation facing what in the United Kingdom are called FE institutions, as subject to haphazard growth, relative neglect as compared to schools, marginalisation of vocational and technical education, increased State regulation, and a view that subject expertise

alone is an adequate base for teaching. The Green Paper on Post School Education (South Africa, 2012: 19) states the ‘biggest problem’ facing colleges is the ‘weakness and small size of the [technical and vocational education and training] college sector’. The Green Paper goes on to explicate that the state considers improving the co-ordination of funding to be the ‘key to building and expanding the college sector’. The subsequent White Paper (South Africa, 2014: 5) notes that the ‘highest priority is to strengthen and expand public TVET colleges and turn them into attractive institutions of choice for school leavers’. Both the Green and White papers disregard the shortage of professional education qualifications, in spite of the fact that it has been reported by both the State (South Africa, 2008: 9) and independent research (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009: 7-11).

Existing state policy requires that college lecturers “possess appropriate qualifications, which have been approved for employment in a teaching post” (South Africa, 2000b: 47). The Policy (South Africa, 2000b: 49-51), however, makes it possible for the employment of certain types of specialists, of which one kind are Business Studies specialists, without a so-called approved qualification. The South African State has recognised staff qualifications as a problem (South Africa, 2008: 9) and drafted a new qualifications framework for school teachers and college lecturers (South Africa, 2011; 2013) which is set for implementation from 2016. The envisaged policy has not finalised qualifications for educators in the sector. Whether the new qualification framework for college lecturers is implemented or not, numerous college lecturers have entered, and are likely to continue entering, this sector of education without an official teaching qualification. As a result, the question of how lecturers develop their competencies remains unanswered.

### **1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

Unlike their school-based counterparts, or their sector counterparts in countries such as Germany or Switzerland where pre-service training is a norm, teaching staff employed at South African public TVET colleges are either trained for other sectors of the educational environment, namely school or higher education, or they become craft-masters without lecturer qualifications (South Africa, 2008: 9-10). Many join the profession at a mature age (McBride, *et al.*, 2009: 6). The absence of a teaching

qualification for college lecturers implies that college lecturers develop their competencies elsewhere. This study shows that, in developing their identity and learning the craft of facilitation, educators in the South African technical and vocational education and training sector rely on supervisors for mentoring, on more experienced members of staff for what Du Bois and Karcher (2005) call peer mentoring, or on their own analytical skills, which Glenn (2003: 22) calls self-mentoring.

The indication that mentoring manifests itself in more than one form raises the question, not of how mentoring takes place, but what mentoring is. Mentoring, although widely used, evades clear definition. Some publications provide a range of definition (See Gibbons, 2013) while others (see Irissou, 2012: 23) provide a description. Many publications, however, simply discuss issues related to mentoring accepting that the reader is familiar with the concept. This study combines the latter two views. Mentoring, in the context of this study, is regarded as a multi-dimensional learning and teaching procedure used for developing competency and professional identity by means of guided, informal learning. It aims to expose an individual to an order of life established law, accepted professional practice and systemic regulation. This understanding of mentoring is not dissimilar to the definition accepted by the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) (Renton, 2009: 40), but it is conditioned by various forms of critical social analysis: critical discourse analysis in particular. As a result of the influence from critical social analyses, mentoring, for the purposes of this study, is not regarded as a uniformly benign process. It is fraught with discursive anomalies and intimations of asymmetrical hierarchies.

Currently, there appear to be sound, generally accepted, reasons to use mentoring as an orthodox procedure within education and training. Not only did mentoring constitute a pillar of traditional apprenticeship, its use is widely proposed in education generally but particularly in British education: (Robinson, 1984; Healy, 1989; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999; Golden & Sims, 1999; Darwin, 2000; Miller Marsh, 2002; Donovan, 2005). Mentoring is of particular value under conditions of social transformation (Healy, 1989; Barkhuizen, 2001; Cassiem, 2005; Donovan, 2005). The use of mentoring in the development of college staff is not refuted, but identifying its manifestation in the sector is noteworthy, both for the sector and providers of

professional qualifications for lecturers. Knowing how mentoring manifested itself in colleges in the past provides considerable insight into how to mentor new college lecturers in the future.

My own interest in mentoring college lecturers dates back to my own experience as a new college lecturer in the early 1990s: I was a qualified business studies teacher and merely told to adapt my teaching style to suit my students. My interest in mentoring has been fuelled by two decades of experience as a teacher, in which I have been closely involved in providing qualifications for practicing college lecturers. I have been consistently impressed by the level of pedagogic competence and maturity, not expected of an unqualified person.

#### 1.4 PROBLEM FORMULATION

Simply to identify the essential nature and various uses of mentoring in technical and vocational education and training is insufficient. Such assessment merely produces an analysis of existing structures. None of the colleges that formed part of this study had formal mentoring programmes in place. To form a clear picture of mentoring in this sector, it is necessary to focus on the dynamics of various forms of informal mentoring that existed in the educational institutions. An analysis of various mentoring processes provides insight into *internal discourses*. Use of the term *internal discourses* is what Miller Marsh (2002: 105) refers to as the assimilation of frameworks for thought, speech and action applicable to the work environment; or what Fairclough (1992a; 1992b; 2001; 2003) calls *language in use*. Foucault (1979: 179) calls this an *artificial order*, and Wenger (1998) a *community of practice*.

This study proposes to answer the following research question: in what ways do mentoring processes within a college contribute to the incorporation of staff into a college?

This study seeks to identify, and accurately characterise, mentoring that occurs in organisations or selected TVET colleges. This study defines how mentoring contributes towards the reproduction of staff involved in learning facilitation (teaching) in the vocationally aligned technical and vocational education and training sector.



The aim of examining mentoring in colleges is to identify its structure within a particular sector of education, which, in turn, may indicate the most appropriate and beneficial forms of mentoring at public TVET colleges.

The sub-questions are as follows:

- What is the nature and structure of a mentoring system?
- In what forms is mentoring manifested?
- How is sector- or institution-specific language used in the organisation?
- How is institutional power reflected in the discourses observed?

The study provides some answers to the questions above by tracing mentoring practices in selected cases at colleges in South Africa's Western Cape Province. Members of staff from three colleges were included in the study.

## **1.5 METHODOLOGY**

### **1.5.1 Research design**

This study is located within a paradigm which Fairclough (1992b: 2) terms critical discourse analysis (CDA). The term *discourse* is used in this study in a variety of ways; ranging from the general to the specific. Fairclough (2010: 230) argues that discourse is used to make sense of, or comprehend, a social process, as language associated with a particular field or practice, or as a way of 'construing aspects of the world associated with a particular social perspective'. CDA is a form of discourse analysis used from a theoretical perspective and based on language and semiosis that gives rise to ways of analysing language and semiosis within broader analyses of social processes (Wodak & Meyer, 2001: 2). CDA, Wodak and Meyer postulate, exists 'in a dialogical relationship' with other social theories that can engage with its method in a transdisciplinary way. In the current study, mentoring is considered a way of constructing meaning in the workplace. Its application comprises the transfer of language associated with a specific field, in this case the South African technical and vocational education and training field. Mentoring<sup>5</sup> is not a homogenous

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<sup>5</sup> This will be illustrated in chapter 2.

concept: it has been interpreted and applied with different levels of success in several education sectors. As such, it is an appropriate object for critical analysis of the discursive practices which underlie it.

Fairclough (2010: 226, 235) argues that CDA is a broad methodical paradigm involving four phases:

- focus on a social wrong, in its semiotic aspect;
- identification of obstacles to addressing the social wrong;
- consideration of whether the social order needs the social wrong; and
- identification of ways to overcome the obstacles faced in addressing the identified social wrong.

The purported *social wrong* in this study is *mentoring*, because there is a lack of clarity on what mentoring *is* and how it is used. The social wrong, expressed semiotically, reflects an incongruity between the use of mentoring in public TVET colleges in South Africa and a lack of mentoring programmes. In other words, new lecturers are mentored in the posts they fill but mentors are not allocated by colleges and no dyadic mentoring takes place. Obstacles to the mentoring include its lack of wide-scale acceptability and broadness of definition. The third phase relates to the extent and context of the need for mentoring, as well as its social applications in the technical and vocational education and training context. The last phase is concerned with whether or not, and how, identified obstacles should be removed.

As illustrated in chapters 2 and 4, mentoring is widely accepted as a development mechanism. What will be illustrated, however, is that mentoring has a wide variety of descriptions and definitions. As a result of the disparate uses of the term *mentoring*, the major obstacle is, first, identifying what mentoring means to the target population and, second, how *mentoring* manifests itself in the particular work environment. Lecturers who were interviewed stated they had overcome such obstacles by developing their skills themselves as well as their own understanding of mentoring.

### 1.5.2 Defining the target population and sampling

The target population from which the sample was drawn included college lecturers employed at colleges in the Western Cape: all of whom were teaching in business-related subjects. They were not professionally qualified as educators when they took up employment in public vocational education<sup>6</sup>. Human resource managers at TVET colleges were included in the target population as a means of verifying information relating to the college.

In total, eighteen participants were interviewed. A form of sampling that (Babbie & Mouton, 2011: 166-167) call purposive sampling was used to select fifteen lecturers from a list of lecturers who, at the time of taking up employment at a TVET college, lacked a professional teaching qualification. Purposive sampling is useful, according to Babbie and Mouton (2011: 166-167), when a researcher 'may wish to study a small subset of a larger population'; in this case professionally underqualified business studies lecturers. The other three interviewees were human resource managers at the TVET colleges where the sample group of lecturers was employed.

## 1.6 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Data was collected by means of in-depth interviews conducted with the eighteen participants who formed part of the sample group. They were selected as follows:

- Fifteen members of college lecturing staff. Five participants were selected from each of the three colleges in the Cape Town area. Participants were all from similar departments in the different colleges. At the time of taking up employment at a college, they lacked professional teaching qualifications. They were asked to provide information about their choices related to joining the college and their experiences related to mentoring.
- One member of college management at each institution. The one member of management per institution selected was responsible for human resource management. This participant was asked to describe staff induction processes in place.

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<sup>6</sup> The State's current minimum specialist requirement for the professional qualification of educators in the FET band is a 240 credit diploma in education (South Africa, 2000b: 20-30).

Participants were involved in a single in-depth interview. The sector from which the sample was taken was relatively small. The purpose of a short data collection period was to minimise the chances of participants influencing each other.

### 1.6.5 Bias

Bias and prejudice are generally accepted as inevitable elements of social research (Bogden & Biklen, 2007: 37-38; Babbie & Mouton, 2011: 169-172). This project identified mentoring processes from informal learning, so it ran a risk of conceptual bias. The view taken in this study is consistent with Bogden and Biklen's view that bias is a small, if unavoidable, part of the overall research process. But such a concession is adjusted by the suggestion of Mouton and Marais, (1996) and Babbie and Mouton (2011) that some degree of bias is ineluctable and inherent in any research process.

In research associated with any critical approach, the term 'subjectivity', as opposed to 'objectivity', is frequently invoked. Fairclough (2003: 14-15) argues that there is 'no such thing' as an absolutely objective analysis; particularly of textual analysis. Textual analysis is inevitably selective, even if only in the initial selection of the text itself. He notes that 'objective' analysis attempts to describe what *there* is, without going beyond the *there is*. Wodak and Meyer (2009: 31-32), indicate that rigorous objectivity cannot be achieved through discourse analysis alone; each research *technology* used must be examined as potentially containing certain embedded beliefs and ideologies. Duberley and Johnson (in Alvesson, Todd & Wilmott, 2009: 360-361) endorse Fairclough's view: 'philosophical attachment to a subjectivist ontology creates a clear demarcation with critical theory'. They go on to demonstrate that discourse is pivotal to critical theory. Discourses, particularly a dominant discourse, stabilise subjectivity to the extent that it is not questioned. As such, any given discourse needs to be deconstructed, something which tends to happen through the Foucauldian notion of *genealogy*. Determining genealogy is an integral part of discourse analysis.

In this study, bias has been restricted as far as possible through the systematic design of a research framework, in-depth questioning, use of clear discourse analysis strategies and, throughout, an awareness of the potential presence of human bias, even if, or especially when, not consciously expressed. Bias was a factor to consider throughout this study, and is discussed in detail in chapter 3.

## 1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Data from interviews were digitally recorded, then transcribed. Analysis took place by means of critical discourse analysis. Referring to the frame of reference used by Maclure (2003), critical discourse analysis as used in this work involves both what has been called a *linguistic discourse analysis* (primarily Fairclough), as well as social *Discourse analysis*, as associated within European post-structuralism (primarily Foucault as adapted by Keevy, 2005). The identification of one or more methods of discourse analysis provided an indication of how the cognitive order is constructed. The way in which the Discourses are constructed was revealed through close, methodical linguistic discourse analysis.

Critical discourse analysis was used to analyse data for a number of reasons. First, it is a recognised form of analysis which involves both the collection of data through interviews and analysis of interview texts as legitimate *objects of study* (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004: 57). CDA is particularly well suited for research that includes semiotic complexities and manifold nuances (Fairclough, 2010: 231). Third, CDA is associated with critical methodological perspectives which lie in a tradition of interrogating socially accepted norms and values (Scherer, in Alvesson, *et al.*, 2009: 36).

## 1.8 DATA PRESENTATION

Data are presented in chapter 4 in a narrative format which broadly accords with the conventions suggested by Fairclough (1989; 2001). Data presentation includes description of text, followed by interpretation and explanation of it. Explanation involves synthesis of data collected at individual level and subsequent extrapolation at institutional and social levels.

## 1.9 ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

In this study, some assumptions are made about the reasons for individual employees entering the technical and vocational education and training profession as well as the design and structure of the project. The primary assumption underlying the study is that individuals enter a professional environment in response to a need and with a will to be integrated into a chosen organisation. Some elements of the integration process are registered and recognised consciously, while others are integrated subconsciously. It is recognised, however, that certain individuals join the education profession without any desire for further professional development or the intention to undertake it.

This study is, to an extent, inevitably bound by the limitations of the methodology used. Particular cognisance is taken of Fairclough's (2003: 15) warning that textual analysis alone is insufficient for social analysis. His advice is to combine textual analysis with other forms of analysis. This was effected through the use of social discourse analysis, augmented by complementary elements of critical management studies.

## 1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

With reference to interviews, Henning *et al.* (2004: 73) indicate four ethical considerations: informed consent for participation, privacy, sensitivity and guaranteed anonymity of respondents.

Privacy and confidentiality are of paramount importance because, in some cases, mentors and mentees<sup>7</sup> may have developed friendships, while in other instances patterns of dependency may grow. Of similar importance is anonymity. Individuals working in dependent or insecure situations may prefer politically correct answers if they are not confident of their privacy. Privacy and anonymity were ensured through

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<sup>7</sup> The terms *mentee* and *protégé* are commonly used in reference to a person being mentored. For the purposes of the study, particularly in chapter 2, both terms are used, their use led by the references cited.

the use of pseudonyms and emphasised through the use, and explanation of, the consent forms submitted.

Technical/legal research elements, following suggestions in Henning *et al.* (2004) involved, in the execution of this study, the completion of ethical clearance from the Department of Higher Education, each college researched and Stellenbosch University. A signed informed-consent form was received from each participant prior to the commencement of each interview. The completion of each consent form involved a briefing and included their consent, and confirmation that they had been briefed of their rights prior to the interview. Throughout the interviews, careful attention was paid to any verbal or non-verbal cues that might indicate uneasiness.

### **1.11 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION**

In determining the role that mentoring plays in college staff reproduction a broad, multidimensional view of mentoring was adopted. Following such a view required detailed analysis of the nature of mentoring and its various manifestations, particularly within the technical and vocational education and training environment. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the nature and various manifestations of mentoring as reported in scholarly literature. Literature identifies various mentoring epistemologies, approaches to mentoring, different forms that mentoring can take, and the range of agencies (even contradictory ones) that manifest themselves as mentors. Chapter 3 provides detail on the research design. Chapters 4 and 5 presents the results and explanation of interviews. Final discussion of the findings of the study is included in Chapter 6.

## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the policy issues within the South African technical and vocational education and training sector that resulted in the employment of lecturers without teaching qualifications. This chapter then provides analysis of various ways in which mentoring has been used to convey learning, the discursive processes that developed out of each form and what initiates or facilitates mentored developmental processes. Literature on technical and vocational education and training sectors provides a sustained intertext. Analysis of literature on mentoring is linked to each appropriate sector.

Developing an argument which aligns the use of mentoring with initial staff development in colleges is arguably an easy, given the lack of any rigorous legal framework for formal qualifications in the sector. Identifying appropriate mentoring models is, however, less straightforward. The identification of a fitting form of mentoring for the technical and vocational education and training sector is complex. It is qualified by the broad discourse that has developed around mentoring, both as a term for, and an approach to, learning. In addition to being described as a grand paradigm (Loots: 2007: 26), mentoring has, according to Renton (2009: 39) 'gained almost mythical status'. It has been described as an elusive concept that, despite being the subject of what Roberts (2000: 147: 162) termed a 'plethora of articles and research', still lacks consensus on what precisely it constitutes. The term requires structure and clarification (Loots: 2007: 26). Publications on mentoring, Loots argues, provide either a non-definitive picture of mentoring, that is supportive, interventionist and developmental, or extensive literature reviews in which disciplines and definitions sometimes 'stretch the meaning beyond boundaries'. How mentoring is defined and used, in the words of Darwin (2000: 199), 'appears to depend on one's [particular] point of view'. Identifying an appropriate form of mentoring for the South African technical and vocational education and training sector is necessarily constrained by a lack of information on initial staff development in the vocational education sector.



The very breadth of the use of the term *mentoring* is what renders it so useful as a term to describe the development of educator competencies through a combination of formal and informal means. But the breadth of meanings attached to *mentoring* makes it difficult to define. As is tabulated and discussed in Table 1, mentoring is considered by some to indicate a certain type of personality; while others describe mentoring as a developmental process. Some view mentoring as a process that occurs between individuals; while others perceive it to be an interaction between entire groups. Mentoring is thought by some to be a path to competency development or a route for social transformation by others.

By analysing different approaches to, and stimuli of, mentoring, this chapter provides an indication of the elements essential to mentoring as a form of learning. By linking each approach to mentoring and its particular stimuli, this chapter provides indicators of elements applicable to the technical and vocational education and training sector. The work of Michel Foucault as interpreted by Keevy (2005: 81-88, 94-95) forms a foundation for the identification of essential elements (the *ethical substance*), which further informs constructs described in chapter 3. In chapter 2 the process of establishing the ethical substance is based on a number of steps determined by Keevy's analysis of the work of Foucault. First, what Foucault calls *archaeology*, is followed by a *genealogy* of the nature of mentoring; this defines what Foucault calls its *ethical substance*. Mentoring is approached as an identifiable, *autonomous subject*, expressed by indicators or *surfaces of emergence*: that is, in publications. Surfaces of emergence are compared to other statements and expressions to form subject indicators or categories: its *grids of specifications*, which combine to form the construct, are its *ethical substance*. The construct (ethical substance of mentoring) was then used as a map for identifying various forms of mentoring used by college lecturers to develop their teaching skills.

## **2.2 POLICY FRAMEWORK WHICH TVET LECTURERS OPERATE**

TVET colleges in South Africa operate in a relatively complex policy environment that has been subject to continual change since its inception. As stated in the introduction, following the country's first post-apartheid election in 1994 radical

legislative changes within have caused fundamental alterations to the legislative framework which, in turn, have made social demands on the education sector. The legislative framework introduced, and periodically revised, the development of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and a Qualifications Authority (SAQA) within which all institutions of education and training are accommodated (South Africa, 2006a). The three education and training bands that make up the NQF include two bands for school education, one of which is technical and vocationally aligned public college education. The legislative framework provides for the development of occupationally directed education, training and development practitioners (ODETDP), as well as Early Childhood Development (ECD), Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) practitioners and, more recently, vocational and post-school education (South Africa, 1995; 1996; 1998a; 1998b; 1999; 2000a; 200b; 2006a; 2006b; 2012; 2013; 2014).

As institutions, colleges operate in terms of the Further Education and Training Act (Act 16 of 2006) (South Africa, 2006b), which replaced Act 98 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998a). The Acts (South Africa, 1998a; 2006b) establish colleges as independent public entities, providing colleges with an institutional status similar to universities in the country and comparable institutions in other countries. As entities, colleges offer a range of vocationally aligned programmes. The Act (South Africa, 2006b: 39-40) mandates offering programmes accredited by Umalusi, the general and further education and training quality assurance body. In addition to Umalusi quality assured programmes, colleges offer skills programmes and learnerships quality assured by Sector Education and Training Authorities established in terms of the Skills Development Act (South Africa, 1998a) and Skills Development Levies Act (South Africa, 1999), as amended in 2010 and 2011. Colleges offer unaccredited short courses and courses accredited by foreign and local private providers.

College staff, in contrast to the institutions at which they are employed, are subject to the same qualifications, requirements and conditions of employment as school teachers determined by the Employment of Educators Act (Act no 76 of 1998) (South Africa, 2000a: 9). Of specific reference to this study are qualification requirements. College lecturer qualifications are determined by the criteria for the recognition and evaluation of qualifications for employment in education based on the norms and

standards for educators, 2000 (South Africa, 2000b). The criteria for the recognition and evaluation of qualifications for employment in education are derived from a consultative process published as the National Education Policy Act, 1996 Norms and Standards for Educators (South Africa, 2000a).

### **2.2.1 Employment requirements**

As part of the prescription of the minimum requirements for entry into the country's teaching profession, the criteria for the recognition and evaluation of qualifications for employment in education noted a wide range of potential qualifications. The criteria noted that "qualifications described here may need to be amended in the light of new academic policy on higher education" (South Africa, 2000b: 26-27) and then described ten qualifications ranging from a certificate in education to a doctor of education. Later in the criteria, provision was made for college lecturers to "possess appropriate qualifications, which have been approved for employment in a teaching post" (South Africa, 2000b: 47). Appropriate qualifications included qualifications for post-school and tertiary education practitioners, certain artisanship and posts for "possessors of approved N3<sup>8</sup> to N5 qualifications in the Business Studies, Art, Agriculture, Utility Services and Social Studies fields of study for which apprenticeships or trade tests do not exist, and where the qualification concerned is the highest N qualification that is issued in the field of study concerned" (South Africa, 2000b: 50-51). Trade tests and N qualifications are not teaching qualifications: they are trade and vocational qualifications. The section on pages 50 and 51 therefore provides for the appointment of colleges lecturers without teaching qualifications.

The appointment of college lecturers without teaching qualifications by the state is one factor that has contributed towards the inappropriate employment situation. In addition to utilising state employed lecturers, the Act of 1998 allows College Councils to "establish posts for educators and employ educators additional to the establishment [tables]" (South Africa, 1998b: A-871), and in Act 16 of 2006 were made, "the employer of all lecturers and support staff" (South Africa, 2006b: 27). College Councils have, as a result, involved themselves in a practice of employing

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<sup>8</sup> N is an abbreviation for NATED, in turn an abbreviation for National Education Department.

contract and part-time staff to augment college staffing needs beyond the staff complement employed by the state.

The state blames the “impact of colonial and apartheid policies” (South Africa, 2008: 9) for current educational woes. But it is the combined impact of colonial and apartheid policies, and a combination of state and College Councils employment practices that has led to the continued systematic employment of what the state calls ‘un/underqualified’ staff (South Africa, 2008: 9-10). The only statistics available are those produced by McBride *et al.* (2009: 7-11) ‘that the majority of lecturers, over 90%, do not have qualifications in all three areas of teaching, academic and workplace’ (McBride *et al.*, 2009: 8). With specific reference to teaching qualifications, McBride *et al.* (2009: 9) continue, ‘there was a variety of qualifications that lecturers had acquired, mostly school teacher preparation qualifications located on the higher education qualifications framework in existence prior to 1997’.

The practice of employing unqualified or inappropriately qualified staff emphasises the question of how college staff develop appropriate skills. Mentoring is widely proposed in education generally but particularly in British education: (Robinson, 1984; Healy, 1989; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999; Golden & Sims, 1999; Darwin, 2000; Miller Marsh, 2002; Donovan, 2005). Mentoring is of particular value under conditions of social transformation (Healy, 1989; Barkhuizen, 2001; Cassiem, 2005; Donovan, 2005).

### **2.3 THE NATURE AND MEANING OF MENTORING**

Mentoring, according to Nel *et al.*, (2008: 467; 2011: 380), is broadly speaking, a form of in-service training in which experienced staff members ‘show [novices] the ropes’; it encompasses both formal and informal forms of initiation. Mentoring is understood by the British Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) (in Renton, 2009: 40) to be the development of:

*... a person’s skills and knowledge so that their job performance improves, hopefully leading to the achievement of organisational*

*objectives. It targets high performance and improvement at work, although it may also have an impact on an individual's private life.*

Different fields of learning exhibit their own discrete discursive practices. More detailed information on mentoring has been developed in various fields of learning. In some cases, mentoring knowledge and discursive practices have been organised within a single historical framework. In other cases, such expert knowledge has been organised within theoretical frameworks linked to a particular learning environment. For the purposes of this study, a range of discursive practices on mentoring have been grouped into six categories; each one reflecting mentoring has been presented generically. Mentoring can be regarded as a:

- mythological analogy;
- person;
- form of work-place learning;
- form of professional development;
- developmental relation;
- form of subordination, and;
- form of productive development

The table below (table 1) provides a brief description of each type of mentoring, in which genre the content has been located and the major sources consulted.

**Table 1: A conceptual understanding of mentoring**

Understanding of mentoring	Broad description	Associated authors
Mentoring as a mythological character	Mentoring is linked to a specific kind of personality	Homer (in Rieu, 1948; Rieu, 2003) Hawkesworth (1797; 1825; 1848)
Mentoring as a person	Mentoring is linked to the inputs of qualified or experienced person	Du Bois, & Karcher, 2005; Loots, 2007; Anderson, 2009; Zanetti, 2009.
Mentoring as form of workplace learning	Mentoring is a skills development methodology	Nel <i>et al.</i> (2001; 2006; 2008; 2011); Meyer & Fourie (2006); Steinman, (2006); Stout Rostron (2009a); Herhodt (2011)
Mentoring as form of professional development	Mentoring is a methodology that develops professional identity	Healy (1989); McKenna & Beech (1995); Bleach (1999)
Mentoring as developmental relations	Mentoring is a developmental relation between two classes of people	Robinson (1984); Healy (1989); McIntyre, Hagger & Wilkin (1994); Husbands (in Brooks & Sikes, 1997); Bleach (1999); Darwin (2000); Van Louw & Waghid (2008)
Mentoring as a form of subordination	Mentoring is a form of subjugating new professionals into an ideology of work	Kobeleva & Strongman (2010); Mooney Simmie & Moles (2011); Mooney Simmie (2012)
Mentoring as a form of productive development	Mentoring is an adaptable, interactive, dialogical and productive development	Mooney Simmie & Moles (2011); Mangan (2012); Irby (2013); Slack (2015)

Each configuration of mentoring is presented in greater detail below. Each one illustrates a dimension of how mentoring is projected and, as a result, understood, within any given discursive practice.

### 2.3.1 Mentoring as a mythological analogy

The simplest of the ways in which mentoring has been described is by making reference to its mythical origins. Historically, mentoring is linked to its origins as the mythical character in Homer's *Odyssey* (Daloz in Healy, 1989: 32; Robinson, 2000: 67; Mostert, 2003; Glenn 2003: 21-22; Meyer & Fourie, 2006). Some publications (Loots, 2007: 28; Stout Rostron, 2009: 16), however, attribute the origins of the current use of the concept to the French writer Fenelon in his seventeenth-century publication, *Adventures of Telemachus*.

As described by Homer, Mentor's task was to guard and advise Telemachus, the son of Odysseus (Rieu, 1948, 2003) or Ulysses in Latin (Hawkesworth, 1797; Church, 1957). Mentor's task was difficult: helping Telemachus see the errors of his

judgment. Mentor is described by Daloz (in Healy, 1989: 32) as being 'half-man, half-god, half-male, half-female and wisdom personified'. Mentor, according to Renton (2009: 38) represented the 'perfect ideal'; a female goddess in a male form.

Roberts (2000: 145-148) argues that, although the mythical origin of Mentor and its application to reality is a common thread included in numerous publications, the accuracy of this term is questionable or even erroneous. The nature of the error becomes clear when extant translations of the publications of the two sources of original information, namely Homer and Fenelon, are read.

Translations of Homer indicate that Mentor was but one of many human forms assumed by Athena, the goddess of wisdom, to assist Telemachus in his quest to regain his father's household and trace his father who had not returned from the Trojan war (Rieu, 1948: 44; Church, 1957; Lucas, 1948: 25). Mentor was the household steward and 'trusted companion and learned friend' of Telemachus (Healy, 1989: 32), who was appointed by his father, Odysseus, when he left to take part in the Trojan war (Rieu, 1948: 43; Church, 1957: 46). The other forms that Athena took were Mentos, a stranger (Rieu, 1946: 28-33; Church, 1957: 38-40), a sea eagle (Rieu, 1948: 60; Church, 1957: 40, 57) and Telemachus himself (Rieu, 1948: 47). In Homer's work Mentor was not the person who provided direct mentorship to Telemachus; Athena did so indirectly (Rieu, 1948; Church, 1957). This means that Roberts's (2000: 145-148) argument that the 'claims of its origins were erroneous' is, in a pedantic sense, justified.

The character of Mentor portrayed by Fenelon (Hawkesworth<sup>9</sup>, 1797) is not merely a goddess taking human forms, one of which is Mentor. In Fenelon Mentor is Telemachus's *mentor*, guiding him, providing counsel, not criticising him and providing compensatory actions for his errors.

In 1869 Fenelon was appointed a tutor to the Duke of Burgundy, an eight-year-old who could not be disciplined by means of 'corporal chastisement' (Hawkesworth, 1797: xiii). As the Duke's tutor, Fenelon chose to use learning and teaching methods

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<sup>9</sup> Digital copies of the publications are available on Google. The 1797 and 1826 publication consist of two volumes whereas the 1848 publication was a single volume.

that included silence and directed studies. The book was one of the publications produced with the Duke's studies in mind (Hawkesworth, 1797: xiii-xiv). Each of the chapters, called books, included an argument, which was an abstract of the content produced in narrative form. A print plate expressed the story underlying each book. The narrative situation usually included an error on the part of Telemachus and its correction by Mentor.

Fenelon's publication was not a translation of Homer's *Odyssey*: it was in Hawkesworth's own words, (1797: xv-xvi) 'founded on the *Odyssey*; but ... also deviating from Homer's narrative in some particulars'. Fenelon's aim was to use the text in his own informal, guided learning process with the young Duke. Fenelon's publication (Hawkesworth, 1797; 1825; 1848) is therefore a narrative of a fictitious series of case studies which Fenelon used as learning and teaching methodology.

It is, therefore, in Fenelon's publication, not Homer's, that the current use of the term originates. Not only did the publication illustrate how Mentor taught or 'mentored' Telemachus through guided learning, but Fenelon himself taught the Duke of Burgundy by means of the same process used in his publication. Fenelon's work is therefore the original conception of mentoring as a learning and teaching methodology. It provides a case study of how knowledge and skills are reproduced by means of informal learning currently referred to as mentoring. Through mentoring, Fenelon illustrates the reproduction of knowledge and skills by means of reflection and acceptance; not by means of force and obedience.

The mythical analogy used to describe mentoring is not uncommonly included in mentoring and coaching publications (see Meyer and Fourie, 2006:1; Renton, 2009: 35-36), albeit primarily as part of an introduction. The illustration of learning facilitators or mentors found in current publications is not limited to a Greek/European point of origin. Evidence of the use of mentoring is found in literature of an Eastern origin (Cassiem, 2005: 2; Darwin, 2000: 197-198). The term (mentor) fits what Massoudi (2002: 137) calls an *archetypal figure* reflecting on an Eastern perspective based on Buddhism, Vedanta and Sufism. The dialogical process involved in mentoring correlates with the Eastern view of a marriage of minds, or what in (Tibetan) Buddhism is called 'mediation on exchanging of the self with others', where



'one tries to *be* the other person' or exchanging oneself with another, which (Mahayana) Buddhism calls 'generating *bodhicitta*' (Massoudi, 2003: 16).

The origin of mentoring as a term could be the focus of research on its own. The reference to Mentor as a mythical character delineates the underlying nature and complexity of guided informal learning when applied to the development of individuals for complex working environments. The reference to a mentor as an archetypal figure, guiding and providing counsel, provides 'surfaces of emergence' to seek when identifying mentoring processes. The origins of mentoring, or reference to the character and social status of a mentor, indicate that one dimension of mentoring comprises the personalities of the mentor and protégé. Surface emergences<sup>10</sup> of such a mentor could be references to someone who had a significant effect on a person's personal development.

### **2.3.2 A mentor as a person**

Some authors (Du Bois, & Karcher, 2005; Loots, 2007; Anderson, 2009; Zanetti, 2009) have struggled to identify who can take on a mentoring role. Authors have attempted to determine the agent of a mentoring process. A mentor is commonly indicated as being a competent or respected individual, operating in what Loots (2007: 61) refers to as a one-on-one, older/younger mentoring situation. A mentor is the person whose competence and credibility are established; the power relation with a protégé is hierarchical (Loots, 2007: 61).

A mentor, Loots indicates further, can be a person who operates on the same level as the protégé. This form of mentoring, Du Bois and Karcher (2005) call *peer mentoring*. Peer mentoring has the advantage of reducing the hierarchical relation between the parties. Peer mentoring commonly utilises an agent who is 'a more-experienced or able person of roughly the same age or at the same level or career' (Loots, 2007: 62) as the person being mentored. This form of mentoring is popular in higher education (Loots, 2007: 62-63) or in environments in which knowledge can be transferred and behaviour adapted (Anderson, 2009). In a peer mentoring

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<sup>10</sup> For ease of reading purposes the use of *surface emergence* is sometimes used in place of the *surfaces of emergence*.

environment the relation, while not being horizontal, is less vertical than it is in the case of a grand master training a pupil.

An adaptation of peer mentoring is what Loots (2007, 63) calls *group mentoring*. In a group mentoring situation, one agent is assigned to or influences a number of protégés. Co-operative mentoring, or what Loots (2007: 64-65) calls *co-mentoring*, is a different form of group mentoring and occurs when a number of agents collaborate to mentor a protégé. When these forms of mentoring are used, the agent or agents incorporate other forms of mentoring into the collaborative process.

In contrast to a mentor being an individual person or group of persons, Loots (2007: 66) argues that 'electronic mentoring can connect people across time and distance'. Both Loots (2007: 66) and Zanetti (2009) contend that information and communications technology can, and do, act as a mentor.

Glenn (2003) adds a unique dimension to mentoring, by arguing that mentoring can be an intra-personal activity. Glenn's approach implies that a mentor and mentee can be the same person. Mentoring can be autodidactic if the ability to judge and correct one's own actions are stimulated (Glenn, 2003: 22).

College educators move from one form of identity (e.g. tour guides, hairdressers, plumbers, etc.) to another (lecturer, work-integrated learning practitioner, programme manager, etc.). No single mentor profile is likely to be identified. As is indicated by James and Biesta (2007: 136), becoming a practitioner in the technical and vocational education and training sector, is a 'complex and contradictory' process, in which an individual uses a variety of mentoring agents, including formal and informal processes. Lucas and Unwin (2009), in their research on in-service training for the United Kingdom equivalent of TVET lecturers, note that formal mentoring is uneven and support from mentors 'often non-existent' (Lucas and Unwin, 2009: 427). When identifying who the mentors of lecturers in the sector are, the process of identification cannot be limited to a single individual. A mentor could be an archetypical person (a manager or colleague) or a combination of people. A mentor could be the individual being mentored by him/her-self.

Roberts (2000: 146) quotes an assertion by Haggerty (1986) which indicates that literature of the time, 'confuses the person, the process and the activities'. Roberts then conducted an analysis of mentoring by means of a 'sample of literature encompassing the period 1978-1999 and across several disciplines ... for evidence of essential and contingent attributes (those which mentoring may do without and still be seen as mentoring) that constitute the essence of mentoring'. (Roberts, 2000: 151). Following the literature review, he argued that 'essences and attributes [of mentoring] are not fixed and permanent; they are dependent upon those who perceive the phenomenon of mentoring and the choice of language they deploy to ascribe meaning to their experience' (Roberts, 2000: 151). In contrast to the idea that a mentor is a person, Roberts (2000) suggested that mentoring involves a number of what he called *essential attributes*. The eight essential attributes are:

- the process form;
- an active relationship;
- a helping process;
- a teaching-learning process;
- reflective practice;
- a career and personal development process;
- a formalised process; and
- a role constructed by or for a mentor.

While the role of a mentor cannot be divorced from a person, a key indicator of a mentor is not who a mentor is, or what the mentor/mentee power relation is. The key personality indicator is what the mentor does. A mentor is therefore not a person: a mentor is an agent with a particular personality and a fund of transferable knowledge.

### **2.3.3 Mentoring as a form of workplace learning**

Listing mentoring as a form of workplace-based learning has become a common feature in human resource management (HR) and human resource development (HRD) publications (see for example Nel *et al.*, 2001; Geber & Greyling, 2005; Nel *et al.*, 2006, 2008, 2011). Nel *et al.* (2011; 2008; 2006) indicates that mentoring is one of eleven forms of learning, listed in the table below. Similarly, Meyer and Fourie

(2006) indicate that it is one of seven learning forms. Irissou (in Heroldt, 2012: 19) indicates five forms. Table 2 indicates the forms of learning as indicated by these three publications.

**Table 2: The forms of learning**

THE FORMS OF LEARNING		
Nel <i>et al.</i> (2011: 377-381)	Meyer & Fourie (2006: 7-8)	Irissou (in Heroldt, 2011:29)
Mentoring Job instruction training Junior boards Job rotation Understudy Behaviour modelling Learner-controlled instruction Vestibule training Coaching Apprenticeships Learnership and apprenticeship training	Mentoring Management Leadership Coaching Counselling Training Consulting	Managing Counselling Mentoring Teaching Training.

The idea of formally preparing employees for the workplace by means of training was brought to business by World War II veterans (Strauss & Sayles: 1972), and legislated in some first-world countries in the 1960s (McKenna & Beech, 1995: 157). Various terms have been used to describe workplace learning (see Nel *et al.* (2001, 2006, 2008)), one of which is mentoring. Some business publications use the term *mentoring* interchangeably with the terms *coaching* and *counselling* (e.g. Robinson, 1984: 17; Gerber *et al.*, 1987: 212; 1993: 258; Nigro, 2003; Meyer & Fourie, 2006; Meyer, 2007; Tucker, 2007; Stout Rostron, 2009: 204-206; Renton, 2009).

In addition to this association between mentoring and coaching, mentoring has been associated with the term *apprenticeship* (Jones, Reid & Bevins, 1997; Robinson, 2000; Nel *et al.* 2006; Chatterjee, 2009). Ragoff (1990) refers to apprenticeship as a broad process of development within work-related knowledge reproduction environments. Through an apprenticeship, Ragoff (1990: 39-40) argues, a novice is provided with 'access to both overt aspects of the skill and the more hidden inner processes of thought.' Ragoff (1990: 41) notes that, through collaboration, a novice 'is likely to learn what the mentor may not ever know'. Following Ragoff's argument,

it can be said that a well-executed apprenticeship can transcend the functional and radical humanist approaches to mentoring.

The relation between mentoring and coaching, on the one hand, and apprenticeship on the other, is described diagrammatically as follows (Van der Bijl, 2009; 2010; in Heroldt, 2012).

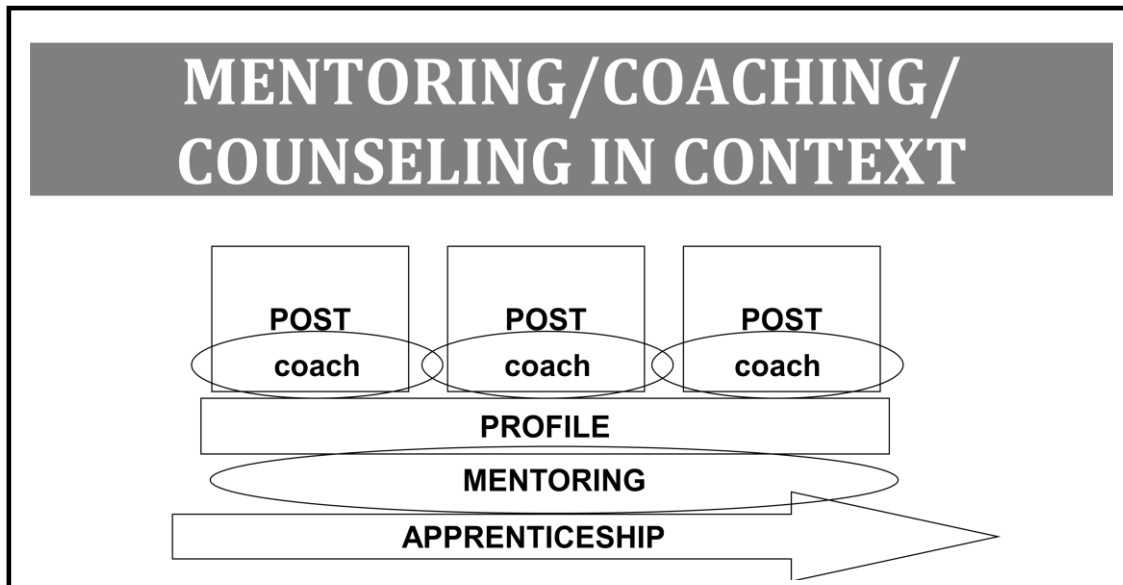


Figure 1: Mentoring, coaching and counselling in context (adapted from Van der Bijl in Heroldt, 2012)

The figure above suggests that posts are linked to a post or career profile. Coaching is involved in each post, while mentoring is applicable to a post profile. Apprenticeship refers to the general relation between the person being developed and those responsible for his/her development.

While the focus on the origins of mentoring in the mythological character indicates that one dimension of mentoring is the personality traits of the mentor and protégé, the HRD focus indicates the range of workplace-based informal learning and teaching methods related to mentoring. The HRD focus indicates how various informal learning approaches relate to each other. The methodological variety of forms of informal learning provide a list of learning approaches associated with mentoring that can potentially be used when mentoring occurs. The forms of learning HRD publications linked to mentoring provide processes to interrogate when determining the emergence of mentoring.

Mentoring programmes with specific curricula, assigned personnel and assessments, can be expected to appear as *surfaces of emergence* if mentoring is regarded as a form of human resource development. Nel *et al.* (2011: 326), for example, while referring to mentoring as an activity and a process, refer to mentoring as a *programme* that is 'evaluated in terms of the relationship and programme processes and outcomes'. Similarly, Meyer and Fourie (2006: 164-262) frame mentoring implementation and facilitation within the context of a programme, as do Tucker (2007) and Meyer (2007) in establishing mentoring programmes and measuring mentoring's return on investment. Surfaces of emergence are unlikely to distinguish precisely between the concepts of *mentoring* and *coaching*. All four texts mentioned in this paragraph use mentoring and coaching as a single, related concept: they use the term *mentoring and coaching*.

#### **2.3.4 Mentoring as a form of professional development**

A discursive practice that frames mentoring knowledge, which at first glance appears to be more complex than the one presented in business HRD theory, is based on the perceived needs of young professionals entering a complex professional environment. In the late 1980s, Healy (1989) noted, as did Bleach (1999) a decade later, that mentors are commonly employed in a number of professional fields, including the police force, nursing and the visual arts, as well as 'for women and minorities seeking retention, tenure, and promotion' (Healy, 1989:33). Through mentoring, according to Bleach (1999: 5), senior nursing practitioners are said to 'support and assess young nurses during their ward experience'. 'Potential high-fliers, including women' are encouraged to 'reach positions of power' through mentoring. In the civil service, mentoring has been used in induction and professional development of professionals (Bleach, 1999: 5).

From the perspective of this discursive practice, mentoring is not merely a form of learning; it is a broader support mechanism. Renton (2009:52), some time later, uses the term *scheme*, which incorporates a person into a professional environment. McKenna and Beech (1995: 167), for example, argue that mentoring is a mechanism by which a trainee professional 'adopts the senior manager's behaviour'. Within this

discursive practice, mentoring is associated not only with initial development of professionals: it is linked to the 'increased complexity and rapid change within executive jobs', as well as to the 'increased use of performance management' (Clutterbuck, 2003 in Meyer & Fourie, 2006: 2). In South Africa's post-apartheid environment, mentoring is perceived to have a socially transformative role (Cassiem, 2005). As noted by Meyer & Fourie (2003: ix), mentoring can be a way of 'breaking down backlogs and barriers to performance and competence to redistribute opportunities and ultimately wealth'.

Mentoring is used in the professional development sense: it is perceived to play several roles: skills development, professional identification, social transformation and competitive advantage. The medical, law enforcement and education professions all require characteristic operational attitudes, expressed in codes of conduct, significant intricate initial education and training, and a close, often complex working relation between providers, employers and clients. The three professions have internal relations determined by complex discursive practices. These discursive practices include contextualised terminology, institutional stratification and rank structures accepted by the professions, as well as status and role-differentiated career-pathing. The rapidly-changing South African social environment into which young professionals enter is complex. These environments require some form of developmental or disciplinary process.

The amount of literature on mentoring and professional development is vast. This large repository of knowledge can do little more, however, than assist in the identification of mentees, selection of mentors and content on technical aspects related to skills development and transfer.

### **2.3.5 Mentoring as a form of initial professional development in education**

It is accurate to argue that mentoring in education is a form of professional development. At the same time, sector specific discursive practice emerged. Arguments in favour of the use of mentoring in education date back to the mid-1990s (McIntyre, *et al.*, 1993: 13-14; Husbands, in Brooks & Sikes, 1997: 7; Bleach, 1999: 1). Mentoring in education discursive practice tends to be two-dimensional. One

dimension is linked to development of skills, while the other is linked to professional incorporation and identity formulation. Healy (1989: 32), for example, after indicating that the term *mentor* is used commonly to describe a person who guides less experienced people in the development of skills, notes that mentors in education are, 'first of all', highly competent teachers. Mentors, Healy (1989: 32) continues, in line with general arguments, tend to appear in times of impending change and 'act as guides through periods of transition'. Other, more recent versions of this description, are common (Arnold, 2006: 117; Blunt & Conolly, 2006: 198-199; Kamvounias, McGrath-Champ & Yip, 2008: 17-18; Mohnno-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006: 386)<sup>11</sup> and are supported by broader analyses (see Loots, 2007: 28).

The epistemology underlying the use of mentoring in education was described by Robinson (1984: 18), drawing on the work of Bolton (1980). Robinson presented an argument, reflected by others later, that an educational mentor provides protégés with access to a profession, and acts as a guide, tutor, coach and confidante. A mentor's position in an individual's career cycle, Robinson notes, is a stage in the development of the individual (Robinson, 1984: 19-20, based on Dalton, Thomson & Price, 1977). As an educator moves through working life, he/she moves from being an apprentice, develops into a colleague, later to a mentor and finally becomes a sponsor (Robinson, 1984: 19-20).

This description is supported not only by more recent analyses such as Loots (2007: 28) but it has become a generally-supported notion. In 2011, for example, South African policy on minimum requirements for teacher education recognises mentoring as one of three elements of practical learning integrated into learning programmes (South Africa, 2011:18), without describing it. From a general analysis of readings on mentoring in education, however, it can be argued that educational mentors are, in some cases, little more than student assistants, experienced staff or teaching practice supervisors taking part in State- or institution-orchestrated programmes or schemes. Many do not appear to be teachers who are 'first of all ... very good' (Healy, 1989: 32). Nor are they people at the positive and productive end of a career cycle (Robinson, 1984: 19-20). Luneta (2006: 19) summarises the abuse of the term

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<sup>11</sup> A disturbing trend was the prevalence of publications that simply use the term *mentor* without conceptualisation of its meaning.



by indicating that ‘technically, a mentor is someone who has undergone training in supervision, coaching, peer teaching, guidance and counselling and assessment of classroom practice’.

A significant body of knowledge has accumulated on mentoring in education, but the information remains largely, and necessarily, speculative and argumentative, based within the ideological processes and power relations of the post 1990s and heavily influenced by British legislative parameters of the time. A critical body of knowledge beyond technical aspects related to mentoring effectiveness has not grown in any significant way in education. The general tendency in publications on mentoring in education is to regard it as a positive developmental process. Even in more recent publications (Darwin, 2000; Loots, 2007; Van Louw & Waghid, 2008) in which paradigms and approaches for mentoring in higher education are compared and classified, the focus remains largely uncritical, arguably positivist<sup>12</sup>. Even where no evidence is presented, it is accepted (see Lees 2005: 33 for example) that mentoring may play an initial role in the development of professional identity.

Where mentoring is discussed in the negative, the focus does not tend to be on mentoring but on aspects that hamper its implementation. Jarvis, McKeon, Coates and Vause (2001: 6-9), for example, identify three areas of weakness in mentoring: over-concentration on generic mentoring, lack of mentoring in science knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and a lack of science mentoring training. Mostert’s (2003: 13-17) research indicates that successful mentoring is often hampered by the management time required to complete the programme. Mostert’s study (2003) indicates that mentor and mentee planning were not synchronised; thus mentors are not equipped to carry out mentoring tasks. Mostert notes that there is a lack of correlation between the mentoring needs of the programme and comments made at meetings; there is an obsession with administrative issues, and mentoring is applied sporadically. A number of authors (Luneta, 2006; Blunt & Conolly, 2006; Arnold, 2006; Lazovsky & Reichenberg, 2006; Whitehead & Fitzgerald, 2006; Jones &

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<sup>12</sup> Positivism refers to an approach associated with early social research, dating back to the 1650s, and associated with the ideas of empiricism, objectivity and causality (Babbie & Mouton, 2011: 27). Positivism is associated with the search for regularities (Scherer in Alvesson, *et al.*, 2009: 31), without criticising the underlying social norms.

Straker, 2006; Smith, Brisard & Menter, 2006) provide evidence of aspects that could be corrected to make mentoring more effective, improve mentoring programmes or success factors<sup>13</sup>. Other authors, rather than focus on the nature of mentoring programmes, emphasise the importance of using the correct type of person as a mentor and the need to match mentors and mentees (Golden & Sims 1999; Healy, 1989:32; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999), as well as conflict between the people involved (Mostert, 2003).

Mostert (2003: 21) notes that a mentoring process 'also has potentially negative and limiting aspects', which may include:

- the tension between theory and practice. The former is perceived as being superior to the latter but not necessarily applied, in the case of trained educators, or not in place, in the case of the untrained;
- tension between knowledge gained through practice which does not 'carry the same respect as theoretical knowledge acquired at a college or university' and that gained through experience;
- profiles of mentors and their misconceptions about themselves as mentors;
- the power of myths and misconceptions at play in 'education, the curriculum and the school'; and
- an orientation that dictates that an experienced educator expects the instructions to be followed and advice taken 'unquestioningly'.

Mostert's critique is, however, not discussed in any more detail. Other studies at the time did not allude to a critical approach. Jones *et al.* (1997: 255) questions the 'idealisation of "apprenticeship"' presented at the time: it did not correspond with the

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<sup>13</sup> Luneta (2006: 23) indicates the importance of needs analysis and 'mentor teacher' inputs into programme development. Blunt & Conolly (2006: 206-207) draw seven conclusions. Power relations seem decisive for the success of mentor relations, the articulation between mentor expectations and protégé needs, goals and rights, realisation that the central purpose of mentoring is to realise protégé potential, training of mentors, practical difficulties are perceived to be of a logistical and cultural nature, and, lastly, informal and formal mentoring models are not mutually exclusive. Arnold (2006: 123) indicates 'mini confirmations', namely mentoring training needs to be adequate: a mentor's role is largely managerial institutional so support is required, and, the context of institutional cultural and staff development structures 'affects everything'. Lazovsky & Reichenberg (2006: 61) indicates that Israeli inductee teachers in general rated mentoring higher than induction workshops but some preferred workshops. Whitehead & Fitzgerald (2006) developed a 'new generative approach to mentoring based on self-study' that resulted, *inter alia*, in the development of a community of practice and note funding, the creation of a website, commitment to disseminate work and recognising the potency of their approach as conditions for success.

views of mentors interviewed during their research. It reflected a false dichotomy between school-based and university-based training, and it negated the importance of 'reflection and of studies in educational theory'.

Robinson (2000: 77-78) alluded to the possibility of using critical pedagogy to analyse mentoring. She argues that the former is the most logical approach, given the dominance of school-based teacher education. She cautions, however, against the development of a 'poverty of pragmatism' (Bridges, 1996 in Robinson, 2000: 71). By focussing on the reflective practice approach, Robinson (2000: 72) argues in favour of professional development and an analysis of what is being done. Infused by Freirean concepts of critical pedagogy, the aspects that Robinson includes are the 'teacher as transformative intellectual', 'critical teaching for social change', 'teacher education as praxis' and 'education for critical consciousness' (Robinson, 2000: 77).

Both Jones *et al.* (1997: 3) and Robinson (2000: 73) use the term 'apprentice' negatively: Jones *et al.* do so directly and Robinson indirectly. Neither author, however, questions the use of mentoring as a concept. They question elements linked to mentoring.

Substantial amounts of information on the use and results of mentoring in education have become available since the mid-1990s. The size of the general body of knowledge reinforces the unquestioned bedrock of mentoring. The educational and professional use of mentoring appears to be more complex than its business use: it is more verbose yet confirms the uncontested, systemic use of mentoring as a term used to describe virtually any informal learning process that introduces educators or teaching assistants to the teaching and learning environment. In essence, mentoring in education is sometimes perceived to be little more than a new methodology, a form of moral orthopaedics, perpetuating teaching and learning power relations.

Knowledge produced on mentoring and its related discursive practice in education indicates that:

- Mentoring has become generally accepted as a form of informal learning;
- Mentoring could be used to develop skills and competencies;

- Mentoring could develop reflective practice and what Robinson (2000) called transformative intellectuals.

For reasons linked to perceptions of informal learning and reality shock in new posts, good or experienced practitioners of mentoring are expected to guide new entrants into their positions. The broad application of mentoring, however, gives credence to Darwin's (2000: 199) statement that '[how] mentoring is defined and used appears to depend on one's point of view'. Expected surfaces of emergence include reference line managers, colleagues and other individuals who had an influence on the development of a college lecturer's skills, as well as what was done by them to assist incorporation into the profession, institution, campus or programme.

### **2.3.6 Mentoring as developmental and relational**

A search for indicators of mentoring relations that are not restricted to individual relations, provides insights into various ways in which mentoring relations exist beyond the existence of experience and credibility. The tendency during the 1980s and 1990s was to focus on the development of the individual. The focus of mentoring was on individual power differences within mentoring relations (e.g. Healy, 1989; Maynard & Furlong, in McIntyre, *et al.*, 1994; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999). More recently, some authors have located mentoring within sociological frameworks including functionalist, liberal and radical (Darwin, 2000; Loots, 2007; Van Louw & Waghid, 2008). These different understandings of mentoring are used as a point of departure for the ensuing discussion.

#### **(a) Power differentiation in individual mentoring relations**

In 1984, Robinson presented a cyclical model<sup>14</sup> in which it was argued that an individual education practitioner moves through his/her working life from being an apprentice, developing into a colleague, later a mentor and finally a sponsor (Robinson, 1984: 19-20).

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<sup>14</sup> Noted earlier.

Healy, who presented a relatively simple relations-based model of mentoring, suggests two approaches to mentoring: the I-It approach and the I-Thou approach (Healy, 1989: 33). The author describes the former as a manipulative model in which the mentee is regarded as an object; the latter as an adjuvant relation between mentor and mentee. Healy (1989) contrasts mentorship relations as having either a vertical or horizontal orientation.

Maynard and Furlong (in McIntyre, *et al.*, 1994: 78-82) provide three relational models of mentoring:

- the apprenticeship and 'learning to see' model;
- the competency-systematic training model; and
- the reflective: from teaching-to-learning model.

Maynard and Furlong compare the driving force and centre of power in a mentoring relation. In the first model, the driving force and centre of power is the mentor. In the second model, the driving force is the learning process. The third it is the mentee. In the first model, the source of power lies with the mentor while in the second and third models it can oscillate between the two parties.

Husbands, in a chapter in Brooks and Sikes (1997: 17-31) provides a comparative list of mentoring models:

- the mentorship model and the mentor as a skilled craftsman model;
- the competence-based model and the mentor as a trainer;
- mentoring in the reflective practice tradition; and
- the mentor as a reflective coach; the mentor as co-enquirer.

Husbands (in Brooks & Sikes, 1997: 28-29) summarises Anderson and Shannon's (1988) model involving mentoring functions, activities, relations and dispositions, as well as Furlong and Maynard's staged model.

Husbands (in Brooks & Sikes, 1997) differentiates between relations that focus on knowledge and power. The first relation relates to a traditional apprenticeship or power-knowledge relation. The second relation, although similar to the first, focusses

on a short-term transfer of learning. The third and fourth relations focus on interrelations between mentor and mentee, and the mentee's acceptance of, and reaction to, his/her subordinate position.

Bleach (1999: 7-8) identifies three models of mentoring. The first is the *supervisory behaviour* model, which focuses on the nature of the direction provided by supervisors. He identifies four forms of behaviour: non-directive, collaborative, directive-informational and directive-control. The second is the '*novice mentor*' *relational* model, which differentiates between five types of relations, ranging from *laissez-faire*, to the self-directing professional. The third model, *levels of mentoring*, identifies three levels of mentoring: zero mentoring, minimal mentoring and developed mentoring. Bleach's (1999) structure provides three sets of models. The first two compare the execution of mentor power. The third compares the amount of mentoring executed. All models suggest a range from deficit to adequate.

Husbands (in Brooks & Sikes, 1997) and Bleach (1999) provide different frameworks with a similar underlying knowledge structure to Maynard and Furlong (in McIntyre, *et al* 1994) in terms of driving force and centre of power. The models indicated above provide information concerning the dynamics of mentoring. But at the same time they show the limitations of the organisation of mentoring knowledge. The models are largely individualistic or functionalist by nature: they provide an account of the nature of the relation. These models provide an accurate understanding of the individual power relations involved in mentoring. They do not, however, account for the broader social issues underlying mentoring beyond legislative and socially functionalist concerns. These models graphically depict the cross-currents of mentoring relations that new lecturers are likely to sustain with other, experienced, members of staff with whom they are likely to have mentoring relations.

## **(b) Mentoring positioned within wider sociological frameworks**

In contrast to these earlier models, which focused primarily on individual power relations, models that have been published more recently structure mentoring around broader sociological paradigms. Robinson (2000: 76-79) focuses on models of teacher development and reflects on her involvement with Freire's critical pedagogy.

Robinson infers the existence of an accepted approach to mentoring and another, deeper critical approach. Robinson (2000) does not, however, attempt to construct a framework based on critical pedagogy. Models reflecting opposing paradigms or perspectives have appeared recently. Loots (2007: 35-69) identifies three mentoring paradigms, which she applies to higher education: a *functionalist paradigm*, a *radical humanist paradigm* and a *constructivist paradigm*. In the functionalist paradigm, the mentoring agent seeks to retain the *status quo* through an organisation-driven structured matching process and a structured programme with stipulated outcomes and a specified time-frame.

The Radical Humanist paradigm, by contrast, is less structured, with voluntary action, empowerment, mutual development and social change as collective driving forces. Loots's third paradigm is centred on the construction and development of meaning through language and free dialogue. Van Louw and Waghid (2008) attempt to articulate what Robinson (2000) implies. They provide a comprehensive critique of mentoring by means of a literature review, conceptualising Freirean ideas as interpreted by Robinson (2000). Van Louw and Waghid argue (2008: 221) that mentoring tends to involve the uncritical adoption of an 'inherently conservative functionalist perspective' which contributes to the maintenance of 'unequal and authoritarian power relations within education inherited as part of the previous political dispensation'. They argue in favour of an alternative theoretical engagement altogether: the adoption of a 'deliberately democratic notion of mentorship' (Van Louw & Waghid, 2008. 219-220), based on Freire's critical humanistic perspective (Van Louw & Waghid, 2008. 217). The overtly democratic notion of mentorship in this case involves a thoughtful relation that involves people becoming mutually attuned towards a measured collaboration or rapprochement between parties. Van Louw and Waghid suggest that mentoring has two sociological rationales. The one is functionalist, characterised by uneven power relations. The second, by contrast, does not entail negative power relations at all.

There is a similarity between Van Louw and Waghid's (2008) conceptualisation of mentoring and that presented by Healy (1989): both sources contrast vertically and horizontally orientated models. The two models differ, however, in that Healy's model focuses on individual relations, while Van Louw and Waghid (2008) focus on a

social directive as the foundation for mentoring relations. Darwin (2000) provides a more detailed theoretical framework to encompass the same two mentoring perspectives.

Darwin (2000) critiques the functionalist models. She (Darwin, 2000) provides a conceptualisation of mentorship based on mapping theory, using Paulston's mapping of social theory. Diagrammatically, Darwin's (2000) map is represented as a Venn-diagram with four opposing approaches, each with theoretical associations. From the map, Darwin (2000: 199-208) identifies two mentoring perspectives: the *functional perspective* and the *radical humanist perspective*.

The functionalist perspective, Darwin argues, represents traditional mentoring practices and fulfils two main functions. Functionalist-based mentoring helps protégés advance and assists them to gain self-confidence. Within this construct, mentoring recycles power between existing and future dominant individuals; the exchange usually occurs informally. Women, and people from minority groups, tend to be excluded from this cycle. But, in the interests of equality, they are given access through specialised programmes. The positive outcomes of such programmes have been widely publicised. Some perils have been alluded to, such as overdependence, jealousy and 'unwanted romantic or sexual involvement' (Darwin 2000: 204).

Darwin agrees that the radical humanist perspective is based largely on the work of Freire, augmented by various forms of participatory research and Mezirow's work on transformational theory (Darwin, 2000: 206). The radical humanist perspective favours democratisation of the workplace, but focuses on the examination of peer relations and the 'ontological commitments nested in mentoring' (Darwin, 2000: 206). This viewpoint goes beyond organisational efficiency to ideas related to a learning organisation as a whole. Mentoring, according to this outlook, is a 'collaborative, dynamic, and creative partnership of coequals, founded on openness, vulnerability, and the ability of both parties to take risk with one another beyond their professional roles' (Darwin, 2000: 206). Relations are mature and interdependent, founded upon learning models which make use of praxis, and dwell on power flows.



The radical humanist perspective encourages the use of a variety of mentoring relations; it acknowledges power relations and values time taken for connection between workers within and outside the organisation. Newly mentored members must, according to this perspective, learn to function productively within the society they have entered (Darwin, 2000: 207-208).

The contribution of mentoring models that have been developed is that they substantiate the argument that mentoring has a number of dimensions: an individual dimension, a functionalist dimension and a transformational dimension. The models presented contribute the following to an understanding of mentoring:

- a mentoring relation refers to both individual relations, as well as group/class relations;
- the mentor relation is one of oscillating relations of power;
- power relations have both horizontal and vertical dimensions; and
- the mentoring relation tends to move from one in which the power is based with the mentor to one based with the protégé.

A comparison of mentoring positioned within different sociological paradigms has not detracted from individual relational notions of mentoring; it has afforded a clearer view of the functionalist and relational aspects of mentoring. Positioning mentoring within a sociological paradigm contributes to an understanding of the power relations that undergird learning in general, and informal learning in particular. Sociological paradigms discussed above present a larger structure within which to place mentoring knowledge in different forms of mental and psychological development. Likely surfaces of emergence associated with the transformational power of mentoring include: criticisms of mentors or aspects of a mentoring process; indications of how new lecturers overcame constraints placed on them by mentor figures and how they themselves later assumed mentor roles.

### **2.3.7 Mentoring as a form of subordination**

Some recent publications (Kobeleva & Strongman, 2010; Mooney Simmie & Moles, 2011) have linked mentoring to demands of neo-liberal capitalism. There is a discursive link between educational policies aimed towards neo-liberalism and

mentoring in education. According to arguments against neo-liberalism, is what Fairclough (2010:11) calls a '*re-scaling* of relations between different scales of social life'. This account facilitates the emergence of global markets and, as a result, globalisation. Globalisation, in turn, has impacted on practices in education and training. Donn, in a chapter in Morrow and King (1998: 70-72), links the introduction of life-long learning and national qualifications frameworks to globalisation. Smyth, Dow, Hattam, Reid and Shacklock (2000: 5-9) link globalisation to what they call a 'crisis in teaching'. The crisis, they argue, can be summarised as a 'crisis in confidence around the purposes for which schools exist', caused by changes in industrial relations and economic factors. Economic and industrial changes, they argue, have taken place by means of increasing control over teachers at school level. Mentoring was seen as a training mechanism for new teachers (Whitehead & Fitzgerald, 2006:37-38).

Neo-liberalism, according to Kobeleva and Strongman (2010: 8-11), is one of the ways in which 'mentoring may be understood as the "socialisation of learning" within education that is contextualised in part by a political agenda'. Within the neo-liberal agenda, mentoring contributes towards the development of competent, self-disciplined individuals who live under the illusion of being autonomous but are subjected to social power relations. Kobeleva and Strongman (2010:iii) use the term 'Focauldian power relations' and then present an argument indicating that mentors can reduce, or attempt to reduce, tensions and overcome inadequacies. Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) and Mooney Simmie (2012) present a similar argument. Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011: 469-470; 2012) are critical of mentoring in Irish teacher education but they argue in favour of a 'theoretical framework for mentoring that takes into account mentoring as an academic, caring, and professional activity situated within its own environmental context'.

Just as neo-liberal capitalism needs professionals, including new teachers, to be 'someone else's subordinate', mentoring can play a key role in subordinating education graduates to an education bureaucracy (Chiapello and Fairclough, in Fairclough 2010: 256).

### **2.3.8 Mentoring as a contextualised productive and developmental process**

Mooney Simmie and Moles' (2011) critique of a neo-liberal approach introduces the concept of productive mentoring. Productive mentoring is mentoring that occurs within a 'space where critical thinking, caring, and professional agency achieve confluence together... [and] within the wider context of society with its social and political mores' (Mooney Simmie & Moles, 2011: 470). Productive mentoring, they argue further, developed out of the need to be 'acutely conscious of the struggle to retain this conception of education as a human liberating force against the backdrop of a reductionist agenda sweeping the education world with its focus on outcomes and external modes of accountability' and the need for mentoring in teacher education to be underpinned 'an alternative lens provided by the literature taking this broader educational landscape into account' (Mooney Simmie & Moles, 2011: 471).

Productive mentoring provides a different approach to mentoring. In contrast to a focus on relations, this approach focuses on the approach to and context within which mentoring takes place, the complexities within which mentoring occurs and the reflexive development it requires. Productive mentoring is similar to what Irby (2013: 333) calls 'developmental relationships in mentoring'. Developmental relations in mentoring involve the recognition that mentoring is an evolutionary process that occurs 'via a recursive stream of progressive consciousness and action that builds support, trust, confidence, risk-taking, and visible positive transformation through dialogue (includes negotiation, listening, reflecting, challenging, planning)'.

Like Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) Irby (2013) stresses the developmental and transformational nature of mentoring. Irby (2013: 333) introduces the concept of risk. Potential failure, Stack (2015) argues in a discussion of her version of productive mentoring, can still have 'results that are positive', if mentoring is constructive.

The approach to mentoring postulated by Mooney Simmie and Moles, and the relations described by Irby redirected the emphasis of mentoring, from one dominated by the mentor to one that acknowledges the complexity of a mentoring process, which empowers the mentee. This approach facilitates an investigation into the complexities of the context within which mentoring takes place. The approach

facilitates the use of critical theories of learning, as Mooney Simmie and Moles did, in understanding the nature of mentoring.

#### **2.4 THE *ETHICAL SUBSTANCE* OF MENTORING AS AN APPROACH AND METHODOLOGICAL DISCOURSE**

Descriptions of mentoring are not uniform and have been applied differently to various fields of learning. Mentoring has found favour in the current education environment which is characterised by greater demands on individual incorporation into the workplace through development of appropriate attitudes and competence. Increase in demand for individual assimilation into staff requires a greater emphasis on breaching the gap between dissemination of formal learning and its application. Deacon (2006: 78) and Powers (2007: 26) locate this growth in demand on education practitioners within capitalism's human resource needs. While no specific reference is made to mentoring in HRD, there is a similarity between indicators suggested in the formulae of Deacon and Powers and the proposal made by Keegan and Francis (2010), noted earlier. Young professionals may receive a formal preparatory education, but, it can be argued, the acceptance and toleration of subjugation (Deacon, 2006: 183) to work routines inevitably occurs in the workplace. Only through mentoring-type activities can basic work-related competencies, attitudes and a sense of identity be developed. Through mentoring, new professionals may be more successfully inducted into their chosen work environments.

An indication that capitalism's various needs drive current practice is the topic of analysis for some critical discourse analysts who use the term the *new spirit of capitalism* (Chiapello & Fairclough, in Fairclough, 2010: 256). Neo-liberalism is its political ideology. The new spirit of capitalism, it is argued, is the ideology that justifies commitment to capitalism for people whose only chance of work is by being 'someone else's subordinate'.

Given the existence of broader social driving imperatives, it is not surprising that an increasing amount of knowledge has surfaced concerning the use of mentoring in the development of educators since the mid-1990s. Shaverein and Cosgrove (1997) applied mentoring to develop skills of primary school teachers in Australia: Jarvis *et*

*al.* (2001) used mentoring for a similar purpose amongst primary teachers in England. Jones (2001) conducted a comparative study of mentoring among teachers in England and Germany. Batty, Rudduck and Wilson (1999) and Rowley (1999) provided indicators of the nature and qualities of a good educational mentor: Webb, Pachler, Mitchell and Herrington (2007) attempted to develop a pedagogy for mentor education. In South Africa, Robinson (2000) reported on a mentoring programme for education students at the University of the Western Cape. Luneta (2004) did the same thing with mathematics teachers at the University of Johannesburg. Mostert (2003) worked with teachers in Namibia and Mohono-Mahlatsi and Van Tonder (2006) pioneered mentoring among teachers in Lesotho. Dos Reis (2012) examined the challenges which pre-service teachers face while learning to teach Accounting.

The current interest in mentoring within the education knowledge environment lies in the rise of what has become known as school-based teacher education in Britain in the 1990s (McIntyre, *et al.*, 1993: 13-14; Husbands, in Brooks & Sikes, 1997: 7; Bleach, 1999: 1). School-based teacher education emanated from State demands that required subordination of higher education providers to policy prescriptions and demands. 'Political initiative' (Brooks & Sikes, 1997: 7-10), and the 'policy context' (Glover & Mardle, 1995: 12) were factors that influenced the use of mentoring in education. Similar pressure developed at the same time in the U.S. In the U.S., school-based teacher education was largely enforced through State-funded induction programmes (Strong, 2009:6-16; Saha & Dworkin, 2009).

In addition to political pressure, developments in the knowledge construction of school-based teacher education by providers of teacher education contributed towards the acceptance of school-based teacher education (Brooks & Sikes, 1997:10-14; Glover & Mardle, 1995: 12-25; McIntyre, *et.al*, 1994: 13-15). The acceptance of teaching practice as a recognised element of teacher education reflects the establishment of school-based teacher education. Even in cases where mentoring within the context of school-based teacher education is critiqued (Mooney Simmie and Moles 2011; 2012), state intention, not mentoring, is criticised.

The use of mentoring to prepare educators has not been limited to the development of school-level educators in Britain and South Africa. Mentoring, reports Van Louw

and Waghid (2008: 211-212), has long been applied as a development strategy for school principals in the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia and Singapore. Mentoring has become accepted as a learning process in higher education, based on arguments around micro/workplace challenges facing new education staff (Healy, 1989; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999; Robinson, 2000; Mostert, 2003; Loots, 2007). Mentoring programmes provide support for South African university students (Loots, 2007), as well as university/school collaborative exercises in developing and qualifying teachers (Mostert, 2003; Robinson, 2000). At least one example was noted of a South African university that used mentoring as one of three elements in an applicant-targeting programme (Donovan, 2005:7).

Barkhuizen (2001) points out that new higher education practitioners are faced with the need to 'seek some form of equilibrium in their lives' when confronted with a complex work environment. The shock of reality is faced by new educators for a variety of reasons: 'the collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the harsh and rude reality of everyday classroom life' (Büchner (1997: 86). Barkhuizen, like Büchner (1997: 85-86), calls the result of this situation *practice shock*. If not managed properly, Büchner argues, practice shock can lead to feelings of isolation, frustration and an inability to cope. Mentors can be assigned to alleviate the negative results of practice shock.

Following from the argument above, mentoring assists in transfer of skills, competencies and professional identity from experienced to new staff in a systematic manner which reduces attrition rates of staff. Mentorship can increase job satisfaction and professional growth for both new staff members, mentees/protégés, and experienced staff mentors alike: (Robinson, 1984: 60-74; Healy, 1989: 34; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Bleach, 1999; Lees, 2005:33).

Mentoring and its many related approaches are adaptable to individual relations and individual situations. It can be applied differently to suit various learning situations. This adaptability renders mentoring a dynamic form of psychic and mental correction (*moral orthopaedics*). When a person first joins a profession such as education, mentoring can be deployed. The person moves from what Büchner (1997) called *reality shock*-induced apprenticeship where he/she learns to *be* (Darwin, 2000), to a

position in which his/her professional identity is defined (Lees, 2005). As newly-appointed individuals become incorporated into the new job environment, a functionalist orientation can lead to a radical-humanist approach; to the point where the mentee can eventually mentor other persons (Robinson, 1984).

Mostert (2003: 1-3) points out that mentoring has two sides which interplay: one side 'serves to give a picture', while the other side 'deals with aspects that are deeply embedded' in the work that forms the subject of mentoring. Mentoring, Mostert (2003: 5-9) notes further, occurs within the wide context of intra-personal conflict in which past experiences, new learning, praxis and institutional ethos can operate simultaneously, and even at times convulsively.

Not only does the rationale of mentoring fit current structures in the environment of education, but its approach resonates with current dominant constructivist methodologies. Both Mostert (2003) and Loots (2007) argue that execution of mentoring can be facilitated by *schemata* which mirror constructivist learning models. Ragoff (1990) holds the same view with reference to apprenticeship.

Constructivism is a learning theory which developed out of a re-evaluation and re-definition of learning and learning theories in the early 1990s (Jacobs in Jacobs, Gawe & Vakalisa, 2004: 46-48). Constructivism differs from earlier approaches that dominated learning; they considered learning to be a mimetic process. Constructivism is based on the premise that learning is an active process in which learners construct their own meaning (Nieman & Monyai, 2006:6). Contributions to constructivism include Piaget's idea of the *schema* which uses a metaphor of learning as a process of cognitive construction powered by questioning and assimilation. A difference of opinion about the importance of the individual and the social environment of learning falls within the ambit of constructivism. Piaget regards cognitive development as an individual activity, while Vygotsky regards it as a function of social activity (Gravett, 2005: 21-22). Constructivism was widely accepted in the 1990s, and was championed by the ICT-based learning industry (Mehl & Sinclair, in Lippert, 1993: 9-10), as well as by proponents of outcomes-based and competency-based learning practitioners (Jacobs *et al.* 2004).

The rationale for mentoring is not limited to the use of the constructivist learning approach. Robinson (2000: 77-78), Dawin (2000) and Van Louw and Waghid (2008) addressed the use of Freire's critical pedagogy. More recently Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) used Bernstein's form of critical pedagogy in the development of their productive mentoring model.

Mentoring has manifested itself as a process of individual and professional development for educators. Mentoring profiles for school teachers, HE practitioners and student leaders in higher education have evolved but mentoring practice and a mentoring profile have not developed for the vocational education sector. The surfaces of emergence from the literature review do, however, provide an indication of what to look for in existing informal learning practices in public TVET colleges, which may facilitate the development of an appropriate mentoring profile and indications of practice.

In contemporary literature on mentoring, the focus is on competency development and the immediate requirements of the institution or system being serviced. Short-term competency orientation is reflected by Renton's (2009: 40) definition which holds that mentoring develops 'a person's skills and knowledge so that their job performance improves, hopefully leading to the achievement of organisational objectives'. The two original texts on mentoring, namely Homer (Rieu, 1948) and Fenelon (Hawkesworth, 1797), in contrast to contemporary texts, lack a short-term, competency-based orientation. Both original texts reflect long-term coincidental learning processes. Homer places Telemachus on a voyage of discovery and learning, fleetingly learning from Athena in the shape of Mentor. Telemachus's mentor-type learning is complex, informal, reflective, reflexive and largely coincidental. Fenelon's (Hawkesworth, 1797) task is a long-term one. The Duke of Burgundy was eight years old when placed under Fenelon's tutelage. The length of his tutelage was determined by the length of the duke's education and, to a lesser extent, by his father's own lifespan.

Both original texts provide a further contrast to contemporary descriptions of mentoring. The contemporary focus of mentoring places power and responsibility in the hands of the mentor. The process that the mentor is required to follow, according



to the original texts, places power and responsibility in the hands of the learner. Telemachus learned after Athena had completed her lesson (Rieu, 1948). Fenelon is available to assist in reflective learning, but could not discipline his pupil by means of 'corporal chastisement' (Hawkesworth, 1797: xiii), which was the norm at the time. Other disciplinary methods were dictated by social practices of the time for a person with the 'elevated rank' of the pupil, in which 'the vices of habit thus gradually corrected, those of temper were occasionally reprov'd with delicate raillery, or their deformity reflected in the moral mirror of some tale or fable' (Hawkesworth, 1797: xiii). In Fenelon's form of mentoring, the point of social power and learning choice reposed with the learner, not the mentor.

Some recent publications, such as Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) and Irby (2013) have addressed the issue of complexity, context and reflexivity. Manson (2012) also addresses these issues but provides a different perspective on how to approach mentoring. 'Gone are the days when mentoring merely meant that an experienced staffer devoted significant time advising a newcomer to the field.' Mangan (2012: 1324) argues 'Now, mentoring may be as brief as one quick encounter. Even more surprising, the encounter may be initiated by an executive seeking the expertise of a tech-savvy new hire.' After following the quotation with descriptions of mentoring issues and role players Manson (2012: 1324-1325) describes nine forms of mentoring that she calls 'nontraditional approaches to mentoring'. The forms of mentoring noted by Mangan are: flash mentoring, group mentoring, peer mentoring, reverse mentoring, situational mentoring, supervisory mentoring, team mentoring, virtual mentoring and speed mentoring.

Notwithstanding the accuracy of Mangan's schema, she successfully argues for the existence of a number of forms of mentoring, each one determined by the needs of the context, complexity of those involved and situation.

By acknowledging the multidimensional, dynamic complexity of mentoring, Mangan provides scope to focus beyond mentoring as a programme and a relationship towards mentoring as a process and related issues of power. A broader approach facilitates a conceptual move from learning that Freire (2005: 72) would call banking

to one that has multiple levels of learning. Such self-recognition has been called *anagnorisis* (MacFarlane, 2000), a term attributed to Aristotle's *Poetics*.

## 2.5 A BROADER UNDERSTANDING OF MENTORING

The broad body of knowledge on mentoring provides an overview within which key elements can be situated. The crucial components are the determination of who can mentor, reasons for mentoring, mentoring methodologies and drivers. Who can be a mentor is not necessarily determined by the developer of a mentoring programme. As indicated in section 2.2.1, a mentor can be a respected individual, peer, group of people, electronic technology or protégé mentoring him/herself. Mentoring occurs for a variety of reasons, as discussed in section 2.3: reasoning is based on functionalism or institutional transformation. A variety of mentoring methodologies or stimuli can be recognised. Methodologies and stimuli include intention and self-reflection, pressures from communities of practice and professional discourse, management and leadership. Mentoring occurs through the application of informal learning methodologies commonly used by human resource developers.

Discourse on mentoring identifies the use of the term in various circumstances. A clear gap in knowledge about mentoring remains however: how *mentees* learn. Knowledge of mentoring is largely anchored to problems of mentoring: it is associated with the advancement, not the challenges of being mentored. Where mentees and their challenges manifest themselves, the focus tends to be on ensuring that mentees understand their role as a subordinate one. In Terzan, Hess, Schur, Phillips and Rigotti's (2009: 141-143) a guide for mentees in the medical profession, for example, is a six-point process in relations compared with 'dating'. In phase one, *preparing oneself*, 'introspective steps are necessary'. In phase two, *meeting for the first time*, it is advised that 'a mentee should ask permission' to contact a mentor. In phases four and five mentees 'manage up'. Managing up involves accepting a subordinate position by 'letting the mentor know what he or she [the mentee] needs and organising the information in the form the mentor prefers' (Terzan *et al.*, 2009: 143). A similar example of mentee subordination is expressed in the Institute of Food Technologists' (IFT) (2014) thirteen tips on *How to be a Good Mentee*. The opening paragraph indicates that mentoring 'help' and 'advice and

support' can make a 'positive change in your [the mentee] life'. The thirteen points provide subordinating advice such as: 'being prompt, prepared', 'demonstrate respect', 'listen with an open mind, take notes', 'respect your mentor's boundaries' and 'say "thank you"'. Similar points are raised by Gladwin's (2009) *Guidelines for Being a Mentor or Mentee* at Deakin University. Being a successful mentee includes having 'respect', being able to 'show appreciation' and to 'have humility'.

Clearly, in the workplace that professionals currently enter, mentoring cannot be a philosophically neutral, ethically benign or politically innocent process. The focus of mentoring is on incorporation of one's professional core values and knowledge by an acolyte. Mentoring cannot be separated from a broader process of ideological transfer or subordination. Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011), Mooney Simmie (2012) and Kobeleva & Strongman (2010), with specific reference to mentoring, invoke Neoliberalism, and Fairclough (2010: 11), more broadly, speaks of *neo-liberal capitalism*. The 'world is discursively constructed', to Fairclough (2010: 5); mentoring can serve a subordinating function when new lecturers are mentored into their role.

To date, few studies have focussed on the problem of mentoring from the perspective of a mentee outside the impact of a dominating mentor who is influenced by neoliberal ideology. The few studies that have emerged (Leslie, Lingard & Whyte, 2005; Levesque, O'Neil, Nelson & Dumas, 2005) indicate that mentee perceptions and expectations cannot be eliminated from the mentoring process. What is needed is an indication of how mentees learn: not merely how they are mentored or how they should behave as 'good mentees'<sup>15</sup>. Such a study could provide insights into selection of what has to be learnt, who to learn it from and what to do with the learnt information. Leslie *et al.* (2005) are of particular interest in this regard.

Leslie *et al.* (2005: 695) studied informal mentoring of medical interns in Canada and found that new medical professionals learnt through a combination of collegial relations and discussion with senior staff. All had more than one mentor: they considered access to mentoring as a perceived need. Relations evolved naturally but guidance was obtained sporadically. Factors linked to the work environment,

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<sup>15</sup> 'Good' in this approbatory sense signifies obedience.

they argued, constrained formation of enduring relations. These issues also arose in interviews.

## 2.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 presented an overview of different ways in which mentoring knowledge has been constructed with the aim of identifying its elements as a methodology for learning. In this chapter, it was argued that current understanding of mentoring is a discourse-based understanding that developed out of business practices of the 1960s. The post-1990s understanding of mentoring is based on a specific discourse founded within a competency-based ideology, dominated by managerialist and mercantilist, if not mercenary, ideals (introduced in the United Kingdom in the 1980s) and what Fairclough (Chiapello & Fairclough, in Fairclough, 2010: 256) calls the new spirit of capitalism. The post-1990s understanding of mentoring is robustly supported internationally both by providers of teacher education and other agencies who develop professionals for the complex environment of the twenty-first century.

In this chapter it was illustrated that mentoring can bridge the gap between formal education and training and practice in the work environment. Mentoring takes a variety of forms: ranging from formal mentoring programmes to self-reflection and self-mentoring. Mentoring can be applied at various levels. At an individual level, mentoring reproduces individual skills and attributes. At the level of an existing profession, mentoring integrates a person into the profession. At a broader social level, mentoring installs a person within a specific socio-cognitive paradigm. Mentoring can be championed by various agents. The most obvious agent of mentoring is the assigned mentor or groups of mentors within any institution who exercise the agency task through expression of institutional power. Less obvious agencies could include the mentee him/herself and the social discourses to which mentees are exposed.

From the literature reviewed, it is evident that no clear mentoring practice has evolved, been recognised or developed for the South African public TVET sector. To identify the nature of mentoring practices in this sector, it is necessary to analyse

current initial staff development practices with the aim of identifying which initial staff development practices can be considered mentoring practices.

The use of discourse analysis in general, and critical discourse analysis in particular, is appropriate for this study because both mentoring agents and methodologies used by mentoring agents combine to develop and maintain linguistic discourses and overriding professional discourse, as well as discourse dissemination processes. In terms of the framework expressed by critical discourse analysts such as Fairclough, discourse agency comprises linguistic discourses. Professional and institutional language in use is what Foucault termed *political technologies*, grammar, sentence structure and terminology that shape the institutional and professional social structure and regulates conventions of professional conduct. Chapter 3 describes the selection and structure of various forms of discourse analysis used to collect and analyse content required for an account of mentoring practices for the South African public TVET sector.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

As noted at the end of chapter 2, no clear mentoring profile or process exists in South Africa's public technical and vocational education and training sector nor is there a clearly formulated code of practice for mentoring at South African TVET College's counterparts. Further education, in the United Kingdom, or Technical and Vocational Education and Training, in the rest of Europe, community colleges in the United States and technical and further education (TAFE) institutions in Australasia all lack an adequate, formally recognised or sanctioned system of mentoring. Lack of formal mentoring conventions does not, however, mean that mentoring does not take place. Given the pervasive use of the term in education, and, as Golden and Sims (1999: 1) argue about Britain's *Modern Apprenticeships*, the *New Start* programme and the *New Deal*: 'all use mentoring to some extent as a way of helping young people to make the most of the opportunities that are available to them'. Paucity of formal mentoring programmes for lecturers in vocational education creates a research opportunity to investigate mentoring practices. There is a demonstrable need to examine consciously recognised learning practices as well as more informal manifestations that, semiotically, coincide with descriptions of mentoring.

This chapter provides an overview of analysing mentoring practice at various colleges by conducting in-depth interviews with college lecturers and managers. Subsequently, interview data are analysed by means of critical discourse analysis (CDA) as developed by Fairclough (1989; 2001), based on the work of Foucault and interpreted by Keevy (2005: 76-78). CDA provides an analysis that focuses on semiotic elements of social activities (Fairclough, 2010: 226, 235), as illustrated in this chapter. It provides an analytical outlook that is, by nature, aligned with the critical research tradition and is, therefore, transdisciplinary (Fairclough, 2003; 2010). In the case of this study, use is made of three forms of analysis related to CDA. The primary analytical tool was developed by Fairclough: it concentrates on elements of language, the relation between power and language (Fairclough, 1989; 2001), and CDA methodology (Wodak & Meyer, 2009; Fairclough, 2010). Analytical information

on discourse development is based largely on Keevy's (2005) construction of a Foucauldian framework, which was based, in turn, on an analysis of Foucault's ground-breaking work between 1965 and 1988 (Keevy, 2005:76-78). Analytical information associated with Alvesson *et al.*'s (2009) critical management research (CMR) has been used as a comparative resource.

Interviews were conducted with a relatively small number of participants employed at colleges who initially lacked professional educational qualifications in the relevant sector. All such people have developed their skills, and professional identities without professional teaching/lecturing qualifications. Selected lecturers were interviewed in detail with the aim of identifying and collecting data needed to answer the primary question posed<sup>16,17</sup>. Selected members of management within the TVET colleges were interviewed with the aim of determining staff induction processes and systems in place, thus providing an institutional context.

### **3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION**

This study highlights how professionally unqualified college lecturers honed their teaching/lecturing skills. This study identifies and analyses the nature of mentoring in organisations in order to reach a precise understanding of the reproduction of teaching/lecturing staff involved in the South African public technical and vocational education and training sector. No substantial evidence could be found of the structure of mentoring in the South African technical and vocational education and training sector, so an analysis of interactive processes that coincide with descriptions of mentoring serve as a way of identifying the structure of mentoring in the sector.

Sub-questions, that informed the primary research question, are as follows:

- What are the nature and structure of a mentoring system?

This sub-question is answered by the identification of the systemic parameters and key elements of the mentoring system.

- In what forms is mentoring manifested?

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<sup>16</sup> This study's research question: In what ways do mentoring processes in a college contribute to the incorporation of staff into a college?

<sup>17</sup> See chapter 1, section 1.4.

This sub-question is examined in terms of who mentors whom in the context selected.

- How is sector- or institution-specific language used in the organisation?

This sub-question is refined and analysed by means of a study of the terminology used by mentees and their mentors.

- How is institutional power reflected in the discourses used?

This sub-question is approached by focussing on the power relations that underlie mentoring processes.

This study mapped answers to the questions mentioned above by tracing and analysing mentoring practices in selected cases at colleges in South Africa's Western Cape Province.

### **3.3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK**

The specific mode of research design in which this study is located, is what Fairclough (1992b: 2) calls critical discourse analysis (CDA). CDA is derived from discourse analysis, which is a form of research associated with critical perspectives (Henning, *et al.*, 2005: 45).

#### **3.3.1 Discourse and Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis is an analytical tool initially used by language practitioners, and later social researchers, to analyse meanings that underlie a text: 'patterns that people's utterances follow', according to Phillips and Jorgensen (2004: 1). Discourse analysis, according to Henning *et al.* (2005: 45-46), is a form of inquiry shaped by its theoretical position, namely the *discursive perspective*. From the discursive perspective, Henning *et al.* (2005) indicate that meaning is constructed largely through individual and socially-constructed modes of symbolising reality. Discourse analysis, Powers (2007: 18) argues, provides insight into discourses which she describes as *functioning bodies of knowledge*.

There are, according to van Dijk (1997), in Fairclough (2003: 2), many versions of discourse analysis. Phillips and Jorgensen (2004: 1) suggest that there may be a



general acceptance of the meaning of *discourse* and *discourse analysis*, but there is 'no clear consensus' about what discourses are or how to analyse them.

In classifying discourse-oriented research methodologies, Maclure (2003: 174-192) differentiates between *Discourse*, spelt with an upper case D, on the one hand, and *discourse*, spelt with a lower case d. The former, Maclure argues, is used in the European post-structural sense: it refers to broad social or institutional processes that regularise conduct. The latter is used in a strictly linguistic sense, to indicate choice of words and paragraphs, and the structure and meaning of texts. Within the discussion of the former post-structural sense, Maclure (2003: 176-178) cites Foucault at length and CDA as a primary element of linguistic discourse analysis (Maclure, 2003: 186-189). Fairclough (2003: 2) distinguishes between approaches to Discourse Analysis which include detailed analysis of text and those that do not<sup>18</sup>.

For the purposes of this study, *discourse*, spelt with a lower case d, refers to linguistic and micro-level discourses. *Discourse*, spelt with an upper case D, refers to broad social discourses and discursive practices.

### 3.3.2 Critical Discourse Analysis

CDA is described by Wodak and Meyer (2001: 2) as a theoretical perspective based on language and semiosis that gives rise to ways of analysing language and semiosis within broader analyses of social processes. CDA, Wodak and Meyer postulate, exists 'in a dialogical relationship' with other social theories that can engage with its method in a transdisciplinary way. The assertion that CDA requires a transdisciplinary approach was made in Fairclough (2003: 5-6) and Fairclough (2010). In Fairclough (2003: 15) 'ethnography' is proposed as the best frame of reference. From Fairclough (2010), however, as well as Alvesson *et al.* (2009), a number of associated secondary conceptual structures have been explored and found applicable. In this study, Fairclough's (1989; 2001) model for analysing texts is used as far as it relates to power and the adaptation of Foucault's lifework by Keevy (2005).

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<sup>18</sup> In his recent publication (Fairclough, 2010), Fairclough uses the D/d analogy, but this was to reference to breadth of analysis.

De Beaugrande (2006:45) places CDA's roots within eight fields of learning: pragmalinguistics, critical linguistics, ethnography, memetics, (Prague School) functional linguistics, British systemic functional linguistics, artificial intelligence and 'the analysis of conversation in ethnomethodology'. These fields, he indicates (De Beaugrande, 2006: 40), 'seem to have coincided' in the 1970s and 1980s in the field of *discourse processing*, infused by critical linguistics of the late 1970s, as well as social psychology, social cognition and rhetorical psychology. Like Henning *et al.* (2004), De Beaugrande (2006: 40) regards critical linguistics of the late 1970s as the *fons et origo* (source and origin) of critical discourse analysis.

There are various forms of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis limited in their focus to language and semiotics; while others have developed a focus around social relations reflected in language. One such analyst is Fairclough (1989; 1992a; 1992b; 2001; 2003; 2010)<sup>19</sup> who (1989; reprinted in 2001) focusses on the analysis of text and its relation to power. The analysis of text, (Fairclough, 1989: 109; 2001: 91-139) involves a *description* of text, based on ten key aspects of the text, followed by an *interpretation* and *explanation* of the answers to the questions. The basis of interpretation and analysis is the researcher's background knowledge base: *members resource* (MR) is the term used by Fairclough (1989: 141; 2001: 118).

Fairclough (1992b: 1-29) writes about critical language awareness (CLA): he 'presupposes and builds upon ... critical discourse analysis' (Fairclough, 1992b: 2). In 2003, he selected a number of methodological issues related to the use of what at the time he termed textual analysis in social scientific research. He argued that a location of the primary reason for the inclusion of textual analysis in social scientific research may be *new capitalism* and its executing ideology, *neo-liberalism*.

There is a discursive link between educational policies aimed at neo-liberalism and mentoring in education<sup>20</sup>. The methodological link between this study and the critique of new liberalism, as argued by Kobeleva and Strongman (2010), is the use of a form of discourse analysis: in this case Foucauldian discourse analysis.

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<sup>19</sup> Fairclough's references have been limited to his work cited in this project.

<sup>20</sup> This was raised in Chapter 2 (section 2.4).

### 3.3.3 CDA as a research framework

In his most recent publication, Fairclough (2010: 226, 235) presents a CDA methodology which deamrctes four phases:

- focus on a social wrong, in its semiotic aspect;
- identification of obstacles that stand in the way of correcting the social wrong;
- consideration of whether the social order can do without the social wrong; and
- identification of ways to overcome the obstacle.

In this publication, Fairclough (2010) presents not only a methodological process but reinforces the place of textual analysis in social scientific research: he focuses on methodological issues. In his writing, Fairclough has developed a theoretical standpoint over two past few decades. It has devolved from analysis of sentence structure and grammar, through language awareness, to textual analysis as an element of social scientific research, to a transdisciplinary methodology in its own right. He has elaborated his views to a point where he is able to comment on what CDA 'is' and 'what it is not' (Fairclough, 2010, 10-11).

Fairclough's work has its origins in the analysis of text and language from a linguistics perspective (Fairclough, 2010) which has transcended conventional parameters of linguistic discourse analysis. He contrasted his work with the work of Michel Foucault (Fairclough, 1992a: 37- 61), although Fairclough (2003: 2) regards him as someone who has 'strongly influenced' discourse analysis in the social sciences. Fairclough (1992a: 12-13) has interpolated and debated the works of various theorists in his own writing: Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Labov and Franshel (1977), Potter and Wetherell (1987), as well as De Beaugrande (1997), Stubbs (1983), Van Leeuwen (1993) and the 'Chomskyan tradition' (Fairclough, 2003: 5-6). Fairclough (2010) and Fairclough and Graham (in Fairclough, 2010: 301-346) compare Fairclough's work with that of Karl Marx, and conclude, after a lengthy analysis, that 'Marx's view of language and mode of language critique' is similar to CDA (Fairclough, 2010: 338).

By comparing and critiquing the work of other authors associated with discourse around discourse analysis, Fairclough defined his own strand of discourse analysis. By associating his work with that of Karl Marx, he indicated the form of critical analysis with which his work is associated. Fairclough's work provides a methodological framework for critical analysis of the semiotic expression of social activity. He provides a means of close textual analysis, and an examination of the structure of sentence and grammatical conventional or orthodox forms of linguistic analysis that does not require symbols associated with other forms of linguistic discourse analysis. Fairclough's framework facilitates incorporation of other methodological structures: text-oriented analysis is limited; other forms of analysis are more suitable for social analysis.

The usefulness of Fairclough's (2010) framework lies in its conceptualisation of mentoring in South African public TVET colleges. Mentoring<sup>21</sup>, however, may be regarded by some as a social wrong. Such a social wrong expressed semiotically, reflects an incongruity between the use of mentoring in public TVET colleges in South Africa and lack of mentoring programmes. New lecturers are mentored into the posts they fill but no mentors are explicitly allocated by colleges and no dyadic mentoring takes place. To correct this *social wrong*, it is necessary to identify ways in which mentoring has been conceptualised and the underlying nature of the mentoring that takes place at colleges in order to locate its findings in the South African TVET college community.

Whether it is perceived as a social phenomenon or even a social wrong, mentoring cannot be ignored or disregarded as a form of initial skills and professional development. Mentoring has been incorporated into policy and professional human resource development discourse and is employed by new professionals. The obstacle faced by an identification of mentoring in public South African TVET colleges is in identifying current practice which is not acknowledged in policy documents. Its nature can be determined from semiotic expressions, not current practice alone. Once the semiotic reflections of this social phenomenon have been identified, it needs to be classified and systematised. Identification of semiotic reflections of mentoring in colleges can be determined by means of a technique

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<sup>21</sup> This was noted in Chapter 1 (1.5).

formulated in earlier publications by Fairclough (1989; 2001). Classification and systemization of information gleaned from interviews follows a classification format based on the work of M. Foucault.

### 3.3.4 Importance of Foucault

Foucault's work is closely associated with discourse analysis: it is used to account for complex social phenomena that can be examined through semiotic expression. His work is linked to Fairclough's textual analysis in its related social dimension. Foucault's research is explored to map social dimensions of data obtained by means of individual textual analyses. But Foucault did not develop a single cohesive methodology. He criticised his own early work (Keevy, 2005:7 6), noting the tendency to venture into a 'labyrinth' where he can 'lose [him]self and appear at last to eyes that I will never meet again' (Foucault, 1969: 19). He deconstructs structures that form in his own *oeuvre*.

A number of attempts to develop methodological frameworks from his work have been made. But, as noted by Miller (1993: 6), 'anyone [who is] tempted to master it would doubtless soon give up, out of a combination of boredom and fatigue altogether at odds with the impact left by Foucault's work itself'. The closest Foucault came to a set methodology, according to Hook (2001:521), was an indication of an *order of discourse*, which provides a 'firmly Foucauldian perspective'; an indication of what a 'Foucauldian discursive analytical method may have looked like'. Foucault expressed a system of thought and bequeathed it to others to be used like 'little tool boxes' to be opened and used: 'like a screwdriver or wrench in order to short-circuit, disqualify or break up systems of power' (Foucault, in Keevy, 2005: 6). As a result of the nature of Foucault's work, Foucauldian analyses tend to be based on interpretations of his texts and involve broad analyses of social phenomena using his terminology as reflection. Bradbury-Jones, Irvine and Sambrook (2007: 82) embrace the term 'Foucauldian infused' to characterise his role in the development of their methodology. An exception to the general rule is Keevy (2005).

### 3.3.5 Keevy's methodological application of Foucault

Applying the ideas of Rabinow, Dreyfus (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1983) and Foucault (1965; 1972; 1973; 1977; 1979; 1980; 1981; 1982; 1983; 1988a; 1988b; 1988c; 1990) methodologically, Keevy (2005) suggests that Foucault's theories can be applied developmentally, using the themes that emanate from each one of the phases of Foucault's life. According to Keevy's (2005: 81) application of Foucault, the individual's standing as a being, an *autonomous subject* (Keevy, 2005: 81) must be constructed. An *archaeological grid* is identified, different forms of knowledge are compared, culminating in a *genealogy of knowledge*. From this genealogy, the *ethical substance* of a discourse can be isolated and named. The construction of an archaeology of knowledge (Keevy, 2005: 82-88) involves identification of surfaces of emergence, the lines of authority and delimitation that emerge: all of which culminate in the generation of *grids of specification*. These grids of specification are systems according to which kinds of social phenomena are 'divided, contrasted, related, regrouped, classified, derived from one another' (Foucault, 1972: 47 in Keevy, 2005: 84). A genealogy of knowledge (Keevy, 2005: 88-93) involves identification of erudite knowledge. The convergence of local memory and forms of knowledge involves identification, expressions and relational forms of knowledge *vis-a-vis* expressions of power and constraints. The ethical substance of discourse is, in short, the summary of analysis: it involves identification of the essence of moral obligations and expected behaviour (Keevy, 2005: 94-95).

Foucault's primary concern was not education; it was power. His notions of process-related power find compatibility and, as a result, adaptation to education. Deacon (2006: 181-183) applied Foucault's thoughts to schooling by arguing that schooling was a disciplinary response to the need to manage growing populations. Fejes and Nicoll (2008) argue that Foucault's work could contribute to the conceptual understanding of life-long learning. They published a significant volume on its application linked to understanding lifelong learning. Nicoll and Fejes (in Fejes and Nicoll, 2008: 4) have argued in favour of using Foucault's work for educational analysis. They indicate that it offers enlightening new ways to formulate questions, and therefore might prompt a range of fresh responses. Keevy's (2005) thesis is

based on the argument that Foucault's work can be deployed to explicate the South African National Qualifications Framework.

By combining Fairclough's form of CDA with Keevy's Foucault-infused social discourse analysis, the semiotic expression of mentoring is determined at both an individual and social level in this study.

### 3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

By using CDA, as developed by Fairclough (1989; 2001; 2003; 2010) and Keevy's (2005) Foucault-infused methodology, this study was designed and conceived to be executed in three phases:

Phase 1: Interviews and transcription

Phase 2: Linguistic Discourse Analysis, involving:

- a. Description of text produced at each interview.
- b. Interpretation of text and identification of *surfaces of emergence*.

Phase 3: Social Discourse Analysis, which involves:

- a. Determining the archaeology of knowledge that emerges from interpreted interviews.
- b. Determining the genealogy of the knowledge that is constructed from the identified archaeology.
- c. Determining and identifying internal elements of mentoring as a staff development process, and consequently expressed as a cascade of related discourses.

The research design for this study is located within the critical research paradigm: it can be located theoretically within a critical paradigm and associated with others who have expressed critical views on the subject. But the foremost significance of this theoretical alignment rests on its deconstruction of the object of research: it focuses on power relations underlying seemingly innocuous social processes its manifestations. In the case of this study, *power relations* refer to social powers that

unconsciously determine mentoring-related communications at colleges. Location and focus are elements of a critical perspective noted by Henning *et al.* (2004: 22-23). This study regards mentoring, the focus of the research, as a *social wrong* noted by Fairclough (2010): it is phase one of CDA methodology. By using the well-known Foucauldian analogy (Foucault in Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982: 187 in Fejes and Nicoll, 2008: 4)<sup>22</sup>, the findings of this study are consonant with many critical discourse analysts.

From what interviewees say, do or have done, they supply information on how they have been mentored, albeit without the allocation of a formal mentor. By analysing interviews, an alternative view of mentoring can be ascertained. In the absence of a mentor, the obstacle of an oppressive interpersonal relation can be overcome.

### 3.5 METHODOLOGY

Data was collected through the use of in-depth, face-to-face interviews with lecturers and human resource managers at three TVET colleges in South Africa's Western Cape Province. In-depth interviews provide broad forms of data. Issues and processes that underlie the data emerge through the scrutiny of secondary analysis. In-depth interviewing creates an ambience for the execution of the interview and provides scope for building the sort of personal trust required for self-disclosure (Henning *et al.*, 2004: 74). Dillon, Madden and Firtle (1994: 124) suggest that in-depth interviews are peculiarly well-suited for interviews of a confidential nature; for revealing matters that are emotionally-charged or embarrassing, or in situations that demand behaviour for which social norms exist and for situations when group interviews are difficult to organise. The choice of face-to-face, in-depth interviews is aligned to Alvesson's (2011: 40) view that interviews can be used as 'objects of study' for discourse analysis. Henning *et al.* (2004: 57) classify this type of interview as a *discursively oriented interview*: Such interviews involve gathering information and knowledge; which render them knowledge makers.

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<sup>22</sup> Foucault's comment in Dreyfus and Rabinow (1983: 187) is: "People know what they do; frequently they know why they do what they do; but what they don't know is what what they do does."



The questions posed during the interview process were generated from the literature review<sup>23</sup>, which stipulated that mentoring is a programme and a multi-dimensional learning methodology. Questions follow a funnel approach; they flow from broader questions to more specific, detailed enquiry. The process seeks to isolate and classify or name the development of both skills and professional identity. Interview questions were framed to identify specific respondents' experiences with the aim of identifying forms of mentoring. A total of six (6) open-ended questions were asked at each interview. The questions or prompts were:

1. What caused you to become a lecturer?

This question sought to identify the circumstances that resulted in either a career choice or career realignment that ended in applying for work at a public TVET college.

2. What, if any, formal institutional mentoring programme did you take part in when you joined the college?

This question sought to expose the existence and nature of mentoring programmes, as well as the informal or coincidental mentoring practices at the colleges that formed part of the sample.

3. Tell me about the inputs of colleagues in your development as a lecturer.

This point of discussion sought to prompt collegial inputs as well as the nature of informal peer mentoring that lecturers were exposed to.

4. Tell me about what you did to develop yourself and your skills as a lecturer.

This point of departure encouraged lecturers to disclose self-mentoring, reflective practice and self-development.

5. Tell me about factors or instances that inhibited you from developing as a lecturer.

This revealed any negative experiences and the effect the experiences had on the lecturer's development.

6. As you developed as a lecturer, tell me about your ability to make a difference to the institution.

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<sup>23</sup> See chapter 2.

This issue raised development possibilities perceived by lecturers.

The first question identified the interviewee's self-identity as a TVET lecturer. The question identified how lecturers regard themselves; why they entered the education profession, what they sacrificed to do so and what motivates them to remain in the profession. The second, third and fourth questions identified the mentoring that they experienced. Questions were divided into sub-questions related to mentoring by the institution and unit in which they work; by immediate supervisors, peers and themselves. The fifth question reinforced their perceptions of constraints; the sixth question considered perceptions of their own ability to create change.

1. What causes a person to become a lecturer?
2. Tell me about any formal induction and mentoring programme that you have at the college
3. Tell me about what you expect lectures to do to develop themselves and their skills as a lecturer.
4. Tell me about factors or instances that inhibit or prevent lecturers from developing their skills.
5. What does the college have in place that assists lecturers in making a difference to themselves, to the college and to the students.

Within the parameters of the questions, interviewees were encouraged to speak openly and prompted accordingly, when needed. All questions were read to the interviewees in sequence. An effort was made to prevent questions restricting the interview process. In some cases, the answer to one question led to the answering of another. When it was time to ask the question, its contents were confirmed. Data were captured on a digital recorder and transcribed verbatim. Transcription included both verbal and non-verbal content. Non-verbal content included noting of pauses, stammering and repetition.

### 3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data captured was analysed by means of two levels of discourse analysis. The first level involved textual analysis, using Fairclough's linguistic discourse analysis: specifically Fairclough (1989: 109; 2001: 91-139) and was complemented by subsequent publications, (Fairclough, 2003; 2010). The second level of analysis, in which individual results of textual analysis were classified and grouped, used a process designed by Keevy (2005) from an analysis of Foucault's work.

Fairclough (1989; 2001) proposes a three-phase process, consisting of *description*, *interpretation* and *explanation*. The first level of analysis, based on Fairclough's (1989, 2001), *description*, answers three groups of questions emanating from elements of speech: vocabulary, grammar and textual structure. Fairclough's (1989; 2001) 'ten questions' are considered within the three groups of questions. The second level of analysis, *interpretation*, identifies background assumptions of each interviewee and the third, *explanation*, accounts for, and summarises, the identified assumptions<sup>24</sup>. Fairclough's (1989; 2001) framework could be regarded as mechanistic, but it provides a useful structure and classification base from which to conduct further analysis.

The primary analytical tool used is what Fairclough (1989: 141; 2001: 118) calls members' resources (MR). MR is a broad term which refers to the background knowledge and resources that the researcher brings to the analytical process. MR, according to Fairclough (2001: 21) are the resources which 'people have in their head and draw upon when they produce and interpret text'. This may include their 'knowledge of language, representations of the natural and social worlds they inhabit, values, beliefs, assumptions, and so on'. MR, according to Fairclough, is significant because no account of processes of production or interpretation of text can be complete if the ways in which they have been socially determined is ignored.

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<sup>24</sup> Please note: Only the last phase (explanation) is reported. Description and interpretation forms part of analysis, not the final report, but content collected forms the basis of evidence used in the explanation

The second level of analysis was undertaken on the basis of summaries collated from the explanation of each interview. The framework used is one developed by Keevy (2005), based on the summary of work undertaken by Michel Foucault.

The Foucauldian-based Keevy approach involves the application of a three-phase process. The first phase comprises collating summaries of the explanation of each interview. Using Foucault's terminology, *surfaces of emergence* were identified. From the collated summaries and information gleaned at the first level of analysis, surfaces of emergence were identified and used to construct a map. Foucault coined the term *grids of specification*. The map was analysed and *underlying forms of knowledge* were identified. The forms of knowledge which are in essence conceptualisations of information contained in maps, were then summarised into essential elements. From the grids of specification, the *ethical substance* of mentoring as manifested in TVET colleges, is adduced.

For the purpose of this study, the outcomes of the analyses only are presented; as an *explanation* of each interview and the identification of *surfaces of emergence*. *Surfaces of emergence* are identified for each business sector (4.3) and each question on the interview schedule (4.4).

### **3.7 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY**

Using Babbie and Mouton's (2011:173-174) terminology, the *population* encompasses lecturers employed at public TVET colleges. The *study population* constitutes lecturers in the Western Cape and the *sample unit* is drawn from three of the six colleges in the province. The sample unit included fifteen lecturers involved in business-related subjects who were not professionally qualified educators when they commenced their employment in public vocational education. *Business related subjects* means subjects generally accepted to fall within the discipline of business management. The classification has its origins in the work of Henri Fayol (1949) and has been adapted by management authors over time. Current descriptions can be found in publications by Niemen and Bennett (2004: 4-5), Smit and Van der Bijl (2009: 41), and du Toit *et al.* (2012: 33-35). *Not professionally qualified* means not possessing qualifications which meet the State's current minimum specialist

requirement for professional educators in the FET band, as discussed in chapter 2 (South Africa, 2000b: 20-30). One human resource manager at each of the colleges, the manager responsible for working with new staff, is included in the target population as a means of verification of information relating to the college.

What Babbie and Mouton (2011: 166-167) call *purposive sampling* was employed to select interviewees from a list of lecturers, identified by the college, who at the time of taking up employment at a TVET college lacked a professional educator qualification; and human resource managers indicated by college management as the most appropriate to interview. A total of eighteen participants were interviewed. Fifteen lecturers in total and one human resource manager are selected from each of the three of the Western Cape Province's six colleges. Of the six colleges, three are located in the Cape Peninsula, a fourth has campuses on and to the north of the peninsula; one in the rural area to the north west and one in the rural area to the north east. The three colleges involved are all multi-campus institutions located on the Cape Peninsula. These colleges were selected partly for geographical/ logistical reasons, but mainly because they form a competitive tertiary network. Service areas of colleges A and B overlapped in the southern suburbs, as did colleges B and C in the northern suburbs. Purposive sampling was used because interviewees with specific profiles were required for purposes of data validity and reliability.

Each college's involvement began at a meeting with a Deputy Chief Executive Officer (DCEO), where interviewees were identified. The meeting was followed by interviews with lecturers, followed by an interview with a designated HR manager. All interviewees consented to the interview. All were interviewed at a time acceptable to them and in a pre-arranged, private venue. They were selected from a list of members of staff identified by each college's Deputy Chief Executive Officer (DCEO) responsible for working with researchers. Interviews took place over a three-month period.

### **3.8 RESEARCH QUALITY**

A common concern for scientific research in general and social scientific research in particular is whether it successfully measures what it sets out to measure. Henning

*et al.* (2004: 146) refer to the need to yield evidence that is 'believable, trustworthy and valid'. Babbie and Mouton (2011: 118-124) refer to the criteria for 'measurement of quality'. There has been 'little specific discussion', according to Wodak and Meyer (2009: 3), within CDA on issues of quality. They do mention, however, that within forms of discourse analysis that feed into CDA, 'classic criteria' and triangulation feature.

Key conceptual tools used to test and measure research quality are reliability, validity, bias, consideration of ethics and method of triangulation. It is generally accepted that research quality in social scientific research can never be absolutely exact, but research is expected to be as precise as possible. Babbie and Mouton (2011: 118) indicate that the superiority of research is determined by the extent of such precision.

Regulating quality, particularly research validity, is a widely contended subject. As Denzin and Lincoln (2011) argue: 'Nowhere can conversation about paradigm differences be more fertile than in the extended controversy about validity'. Validity, Babbie and Mouton (2011: 648) indicate, refers to the 'measure that accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure'. Reliability, according to Babbie and Mouton (2011: 646) refers to the extent to which the same data is collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon. Bias refers to the result of misrepresentation (Babbie & Mouton, 2011: 641). Ethics comprise the tension between intent and rights of the different parties involved in research (Babbie & Mouton, 2011: 520). Triangulation (Henning, *et al.*, 2004: 103) is used to describe a trajectory aimed to reach a 'measured position' from a variety of other points. Triangulation could take a variety of forms; ranging from multiple methodologies to checks and balances with a single methodology; serving as way of demonstrating validity (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007: 141-142). Each aspect of quality verification is discussed in the sub-sections that follow: validity, reliability, triangulation and bias.

### **3.8.1 Validity and trustworthiness**

A wide range of different forms of validity has been identified, but not all are applicable to all forms of research. Cohen *et al.* (2007), for example, details eighteen

forms of validity but discusses only nine. Babbie and Mouton (2011:1 23-124) identify three forms of validity, namely *criterion-related validity*, *construct validity* and *content validity*. Criterion-related validity refers to validity determined by criteria external to the research process. Construct validity refers to the way in which variables should theoretically relate to each other. Content validity refers to the extent to which a measure covers a range of meanings included within a concept.

Criterion-related and construct validity used in this study are linked to prescriptive criteria applied in critical research in general and critical discourse analysis in particular. A number of terms and processes associated with CDA have been noted earlier in this chapter (section 3.3).

Cognisance was taken of two points made by Denzin and Lincoln (2011). Denzin and Lincoln's (2011: 121) argument that validity criteria are linked to the nature of what the social inquiry taking place ought to be. Validity criteria could "make use of both professional and lay judgements. Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 123) later note that one of the 'new standards' derived from the poststructural search to bring ethics and epistemology together'. One of the new standards relate to 'specific discourse communities and research sites as arbiters of quality'.

As a methodology, critical discourse analysis facilitates construct validity because it is particularly useful for mapping interactive social processes. CDA focuses on choice, meaning of words and sentences, and the way in which they have been linked (see Fairclough, 1989; 1992a; 1992b; 2001; 2003; Maclure, 2003). In this study, the methodology produced its own (internal) validity by applying linguistic discourse analysis of text produced through interviews. Drawing on broader issues, social Discourse is identified. By duplicating the process five times within the same institution, and then over three institutions, fifteen responses are collected; allowing relevant indicators to be projected and extrapolated with more confidence. This correlation of evidence renders the findings reliable and, as a result, valid.

Content validity is substantially increased through the use of in-depth interviews which involve face-to-face interaction of a long duration during which a researcher aims to achieve the same level of knowledge and understanding as that of the interviewees

(Henning *et al.*, 2004: 74). The depth and richness of the data provides insights into the initial dynamics of relations between mentors and mentees. In-depth interviews provide a large amount of data, which are regarded as the driving force for content-based arguments used in CDA (Henning *et al.*, 2004: 45; De Beaugrande, 2006: 45). Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 123) note 'reciprocity, or the extent to which the research relationship becomes reciprocal rather than hierarchical' and 'intense self-reflexivity' as more of the 'new standards' in validity. These are issues involved in determining content validity.

### **3.8.2 Triangulation**

Cohen *et al.* (2007: 142) differentiate precisely between six methods of triangulation, which include *combined levels of triangulation*, *theoretical triangulation* and *methodological triangulation*. Combined levels of triangulation comprise more than one level of analysis, preferably at least three: individual, group and societal. Theoretical triangulation draws upon a variety of theories. Methodological triangulation uses more than one method on the same object.

Cohen, *et al.* (2007: 135) argue that confidence can serve the purpose of triangulation in qualitative research. Triangulation, he argues later, (Cohen, *et al.*, 2007: 141) generates confidence. In-depth interviews have constructed a large amount of data, analysed by means of two levels of DA, and the relation of findings to theoretical constructs are key to validity within this study. Fifteen different interviews from members of staff employed at six campuses in three colleges, covering and involved in four sectors of business education provides a level of content corroboration that provide triangulation of information.

### **3.8.3 Bias**

Bias and prejudice are generally accepted as ineluctable elements of social research (Bogden & Biklen, 2007: 37-38). Mouton and Marais (1996) and Babbie and Mouton (2011: 169-172) indicate that various forms of bias can be detected in a research process. This study isolated mentoring processes from informal learning; it could therefore be critiqued for this separation. The view taken in this study, however, is in



line with Bogden and Biklen's that bias is a fractional part of the overall research process. This concession to scientific veracity is qualified by Babbie and Mouton's suggestion that bias is necessarily inherent in a research process.

In research associated with a critical approach, the term subjectivity, as opposed to objectivity, is used. Fairclough (2003: 14-15) reflects this view by arguing that there is 'no such thing' as objective analysis, particularly of textual analysis: textual analysis is inevitably selective, even if only due to motivations for choosing a specific text. He notes further that objective analysis describes what *there is*, without going beyond what could be.

Wodak and Meyer (2009: 31-32) concur that rigorous objectivity cannot be reached by discourse analysis. Each research *technology* used must be examined as potentially containing, exhibiting or disguising embedded beliefs and ideologies. Duberley and Johnson (in Alvesson, 2010: 360-361) mirror Fairclough's view by indicating that the 'philosophical attachment to a subjectivist ontology creates a clear demarcation with critical theory'. They go on to indicate that discourse is pivotal to critical theory. But discourses, particularly a dominant discourse, stabilise subjectivity to the extent that it is not questioned: thus they need to be deconstructed, which tends to happen by means of *genealogy*.

In this study, bias has been detected, and allowed for, through the systematic design of a research framework, in-depth questioning, use of rigorous discourse analysis, and, throughout, awareness of how persistent human bias cannot consciously be eliminated. The particular form of bias recognised, and corrected for, in this study is one that results from the size of its target population. The choice of whom to interview was left up to the colleges involved. All but two of the lecturers had been students on one of the programmes I coordinate and two of the three human resource managers had collaborated on projects. Prior acquaintance before interviews assisted in orientating interviewees: potential consequences of prior lecturer-student relations were controlled by a discussion prior to commencement of each interview.

An ontological bias, that emanates from the research question and is noted below as a primary assumption, is that new professionals are active agents in their own development. The greatest fear faced during interviews was the response of an individual who did nothing to develop him/herself and/or was not willing to speak about it.

### **3.9 ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

In this study, assumptions are made regarding both the reason to enter the education profession in the public vocational education sector, as well as the design and structure of the project. The primary assumption underlying the study is that people enter a professional environment with a need and will to be integrated into the new organisation. Some elements of the integration process are conscious processes, while others are subconscious. It is recognised that some people join the education profession without any intention of further professional development. This study is structurally limited by the size of the sample, which covers three institutions in one province. This one limitation is, however, intentional: the methodology requires depth, in this case, arguably, at the expense of breadth.

This study is, to an extent, constrained by limitations of the methodology developed. Particular cognisance is taken of Fairclough's (2003: 15) warning that textual analysis alone is insufficient for social analyses. His advice is, however, taken: textual analysis is combined in this study with other forms of analyses. In this study, textual analysis is combined with Foucauldian discourse analysis.

### **3.10 ETHICAL ISSUES**

With reference to interviews, Henning *et al.* (2004: 73) indicate four ethical considerations. They are: informed participation, privacy, sensitivity and guaranteed anonymity. Henning *et al.* continue by noting that a letter of consent from organisations involved needs to be obtained and provided in this thesis.

The ethical issue, noted by Henning above largely relates to the ethics of the relation between researcher and interviewee. This study, however, had to deal with relational

ethics and the form of ethics that Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 84-85) call Governmentality which is Foucault's (1978 in Denzin & Lincoln, 2011: 84-85) term to describe the production of regulatory power over individuals. In the case of this study, regulatory power was exercised by five institutions, namely, the university at which the project was registered, the national Department of Higher Education and training and the three colleges from which the sample was drawn. As can be deduced from the attached approval letters, each approval process was subject to a different set of documents, a different review process and different expression of approval.

Once colleges gave permission for research to be conducted, they supplied the names of lecturers who met the sample's research requirements. One college tried to arrange an interview schedule, with limited success; while the other two colleges supplied names, contact details and permission for me to use college facilities when conducting interviews.

Meetings for all interviews were arranged at a time and place determined by the interviewees, which was the starting-point for developing an ethical relation. At each interview the issues of informed participation, privacy, sensitivity and guaranteed anonymity were addressed before the interview was conducted. Specific issues addressed individually through conversation was my position as researcher, the right not be interviewed, to end the interview at any time and, if wished, to withdraw information supplied prior to the study's conclusion. Once the interviewee agreed to be interviewed, the university's informed consent form was worked through and signed. Following the completion of the informed consent form, and as soon as the interviewee was at ease, the interview was conducted. Throughout the interview, care was taken to keep the interviewee as relaxed and comfortable as possible and, if privacy and confidentiality issues were raised, they were reminded of the confidentiality agreement.

### **3.11 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 3 forms a bridge between Chapters 2 and 4. Chapter 2 provides a broad analysis of mentoring in education, indicating factors of specific relevance to the

study. Chapter 4 seeks answers to specific questions about lecturers' initial professional development. Chapter 3 situates the mentoring discourse conceptually in education within the discourse analysis research framework adapted in Chapter 4. In addition to acting as a bridge between chapters 2 and 4, chapter three describes the structural and ethical issues that frame the field work that follows.

Chapter two ended with the argument that the Identification of the nature of mentoring practices necessitates analysis of current initial staff development practices with the aim of identifying which initial staff development practices can be considered mentoring practices. By means of discourse analysis in general, and critical discourse analysis in particular, this chapter illustrated a broad methodology and the analysis of micro level discussions integrated into a broader level of analysis.

## CHAPTER 4

### SUMMARY AND ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEWS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports on, and explains interviews with members of college staff<sup>25</sup>. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of the data capturing process. The second section forms the main body of the chapter: it comprises an explanation and analysis of the interviews. The third section is an examination of the analysis. All interviewees answered each question; the data allowed an overall pattern of similarities and differences.

Section one of this chapter links the data capturing process to the previous chapter. This section was developed during the interview process: it summarises the realities and implications for the application of the methodology into practice. The section relates each interviewee's story of how he/she entered public TVET and developed lecturing skills in a field of specialisation. Each individual narrated how mentoring occurred: by supervisors, peers and themselves. Each individual explains how, conceptually, he/she moved to a position of competence and confidence in a current work environment. Each individual story concludes with a micro-level (linguistic) discourse analysis. Interviews are grouped by industry sector, not by college; similarities transcend campuses and colleges. Interviews of each business sector are concluded with a genealogy of the sector, drawing on Foucault's (1972: 47) general concepts of institutional relations and specifically his terminology, such as *grids of specifications*.

The third section analyses each question and provides genealogy from the answers to questions across campuses and colleges. Following the provision of information linked to individuals and questions, an indication of mentoring profiles is provided. This provision is, in terms of Foucault's social strategies, the ethical substance of mentoring as a process in the public vocational educational institutions under review in the study.

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<sup>25</sup> As indicated in Chapters 1 and 3.

## 4.2 OVERVIEW OF DATA CAPTURING PROCESS

The three colleges selected for this study are all multi-campus tertiary institutions located on the Cape Peninsula. The Cape Province has six colleges, three located on the Cape Peninsula, a fourth with campuses on, and to the north of the peninsula; one in the rural area to the north west and one in a rural area to the north east. Colleges chosen for analysis were the three located on the peninsula. The colleges were selected partly for geographical logistical reasons but mainly because they form a competitive web. Service areas of colleges A and B overlapped in the southern suburbs, as did those of colleges B and C in the northern suburbs of the Cape Peninsula.

Each college's association with this project started with a meeting between the researcher and Deputy Chief Executive Officer (DCEO), where the research aim and procedures were communicated. The meeting with the DCEO indicated college expectations and required procedures. Once written permission was received, lecturers and designated HR managers were interviewed. All interviewees consented to the interview. All were interviewed at a time acceptable to them and in pre-arranged private venues. Interviewees were selected from a list of employees identified by each college's Deputy Chief Executive Officer (DCEO).

For data collection purposes, the colleges were named A, B and C: with no particular significance given to the order other than college A was the first college to be interviewed. With the aim of ensuring privacy, each interviewee was assigned a number, from 1 to 5 per college, listed in order of the interview schedule. Interviewee A1 was therefore the first person interviewed and candidate C5 the last. The Human Resource (HR) Managers are listed as HRA (Human resource manager college A), HRB (Human resource manager college B) and HRC (Human resource manager college C). During the process of analysis, it became clear that grouping interviewees by business sector would be a more effective method for clarifying interviews than grouping interviews by college. There was no distinct similarity between experiences within colleges, but there did appear to be sectorial similarities between colleges. Given the number of people interviewed, it was apparent that a college-based method of identifying interviewees could compromise the anonymity of

interviewees. For purposes of data analysis<sup>26</sup>, interviews were grouped by business sector. Fifteen interviewees came from four sectors associated with the field of business studies *per se*: Business Studies, Catering, Tourism and Information Technology. As a result, for reporting purposes, interviews were re-numbered from 1 to 15 and grouped per sector.

The structure of the analysis that follows is based on the framework developed in chapter 3 (section 3.6). An analysis of each interview is undertaken using textual analysis as presented in Fairclough (2001). Each interview is presented as a narrative explanation. Individual interviews takes , using Foucault's terminology (Keevy, 2005: 67-71, *surfaces of emergence, lines of authority* within which interviewees work and *delimitations*, imposed by themselves and the dynamics of their workplace.

The presentation of interviews is followed by an interpretation and analysis of the discursive practices presented to individuals and industry groups. From the interviews, their interpretation and analysis, using Foucault's terminology, *grids of specifications* are determined and indicated as summaries. All interviews and summaries are presented, the summaries compared and using Foucault's (1980: 83) terms, *knowledge, local memory* and *erudite knowledge*, are reviewed and summarised, to form the *ethical substance* of mentoring as a discourse in TVET colleges.

### 4.3 INTERVIEWS

As can be seen from Table 3, below, the largest demographic entity interviewed comprises females (67%) and, as classified by the South African Employment Equity Act (South Africa, 1998c) coloured<sup>27</sup>. (40%), followed by whites, blacks and Indians. This demographic pattern reflects employment patterns in the Western Cape Province as determined by McBride *et al.* (2009:4-5) in terms of black (11%) and Indian (1%). The demographic pattern of individuals interviewed does not reflect

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<sup>26</sup> Reflected hereunder.

<sup>27</sup> South African legislation classifies citizens into the four main race groups noted. The origin of South Africa's racial classification is the Population Registration Act (South Africa, 1950), which required that the population register note a person's race as "a white person, coloured person or a native" (Brookes, 1968: 19)

racial employment patterns for coloureds (37%) and whites (46%). The demographic pattern of those interviewed does not reflect gender patterns for either race group: 3% more coloured males are employed than females, and 9% fewer in the case of whites. A large percentage of coloured females interviewed is probably linked to the sample sector employing more females than males and the age profile for whites being older than for coloureds

**Table 3: Interviewee profile by college**

PROFILE	COLLEGE A		COLLEGE B		COLLEGE C		TOTAL	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
BLACK		1	1			1	1	2
WHITE			2			2	2	2
COLOURED		3	1	1		2	1	6
ASIAN	1						1	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>		<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>10</b>

The demographic profile of the sample provides a reflection of employment practices in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. Grouping interviews by business sector, furthermore, enhances interviewee anonymity.

**Table 4: Interviewee profile by industry**

PROFILE	BUSINESS STUDIES		CATERING		TOURISM		INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY		TOTAL	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
BLACK	1					1	1	1	2	2
WHITE	1			1	1	1			2	2
COLOURED	1	2		2		1			1	5
INDIAN			1						1	
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>9</b>

As can be seen from Table 4, five interviewees were business studies lecturers (33%), four (27%) catering lecturers, four (27%) tourism lecturers and two (13%) information technology lecturers. From College A, one lecturer was involved in business studies, none in tourism, two in catering and two in information technology.



From College B, four lecturers were involved in business studies, one in tourism, none in catering and none in information technology. From College C, no lecturers were involved in business studies, three in tourism, two in catering and none in information technology.

The tables indicate that the employment pattern mirrors the demographics of the county's Western Cape Province. In terms of race the largest profile is made up of people classified as coloured, and the smallest number Indian. In terms of subject discipline females dominate tourism and catering industries and males the theory oriented Business Studies, which tends to require a university degree, and gender employment patterns for the two industry sectors in question.

Methodologically, grouping interviews by sector facilitates movement from discursive practice to its interpretation. The move from discursive practice to interpretation is effected by recording factors indicated by individuals and the comparison of identified factors with those noted by others in the sector.

#### **4.3.1 Interviews with Human Resource Managers**

The same questions asked of lecturers, were posed to human resource managers. Lecturers provided their own perspective and human resource managers provided a general management perspective.

##### **(a) Human Resource Manager College A (HRA)**

HRA, who has almost a decade's experience in human resource management in the sector, argues that a combination of the institution's attractiveness and conditions of service in what draws people to the sector. HRA went into detail comparing schools as places of employment to colleges: she points to extramural activities, or absence of any, as a motivator for people to enter the TVET college sector. Her argument included the case of school teachers who no longer want to be involved in extracurricular activities and individuals employed in industry. Those employed in industry, she suggested, regard schools and colleges as employment opportunities: they offer similar work-related programmes. With reference to conditions of service,

HRA argued that her employer was a multiple-campus college, which made it possible for people to work at any of the campuses, once employed. She went on to say:

*[The] college itself is an attractive place to work because of our ethics, because of the professionalism, I think.*

A third attractive factor mentioned by HRA was that people have ‘a passion for teaching’. She noted that people earn more in the private sector but that the private sector ‘is a lot harsher than what you have here’. It is common practice, she went on to indicate, for chefs to have apprentices and to supervise students on work integrated learning, which contributes towards the development of an interest in education. As she said:

*a lot of them find that they have that passion [for education] and that is when they start looking out for positions ... and obviously the holidays, no work over weekends, no evening work.*

She indicated that the college did not have a formal mentoring programme, but informal mentoring of new staff is regarded as part of a line manager’s staff induction task. A new member of staff, she pointed out, is subjected to two institutional induction sessions: one focussing on the campus and the other on the institution. Each member receives an induction pack. Mentoring, she argued, ‘takes place on the campus’ where the new member of staff is to be located. Mentoring is regarded as a task of the person’s line manager, as part of the manager’s responsibility for incorporating the member into the programme. New lecturers are expected to ‘keep up to date’ with developments in their respective fields of industrial expertise. A programme is being developed that will provide what she termed ‘workplace education’ for existing staff, facilitating the continued development of expertise.

From the perspective of HRA, college A seeks to employ people who are passionate about education and training and who are willing to keep up to date with developments in their specific fields of expertise. Mentoring is viewed as a line manager’s function: to be carried out as part of staff induction at a programme level.

One-on-one vertical mentoring is perceived as the key to initial staff development, augmented by self-mentoring in Glenn's (2003) terms.

**(b) Human Resource Manager College B (HRB)**

HRB recently joined the college human resource department after gaining experience in human resource development. She has a specific interest in training and human resource development.

HRB's response focused on what the college looks for in applicants, a focus that she summarised in one word: interest.

*Lots of times we found that the education degree is absent, so what drives them to become a lecturer is the interest in standing in front of a class because when we interview them they say they're passionate about transferring knowledge:*

She went on to indicate that, along with interest, industry experience is a crucial employment factor. She pointed out that the downturn in the economy has resulted in an increase in the number of people applying for posts, often without meeting the stated entrance requirements.

Like college A, college B has no formal mentoring process. College A regarded mentoring as part of a line manager's function. The human resource manager for college B regarded the lack of a formal mentoring programme as a structural weakness. Her description of the new lecturer skills development process at the college mirrored, in part, that of the process followed by college A. In addition to identifying informal mentoring carried out by line managers, she indicated the existence of self-mentoring:

*[Lecturers] do observation and that's how they develop the technique, you know, they make friends.*

From the newly-developed peer groups, information and inputs on techniques are received. She indicated that new staff are positive about studying further and, as they know that she has a learning facilitation background, tend to go to her for technical teaching advice. HRB regards the lack of formal mentoring as a structural shortcoming because it results 'in our new lecturers being under huge stress'. She indicated that lecturers tend to take up employment without really knowing what is involved:

*I don't think anybody prepares them for what awaits them ... I think it's the shock culture. You know they walk in and they get painted initially a rosy picture of what it's like to be a lecturer and we have a lot of people calling us now saying there is admin, there is marking, I don't have a social life, I don't have this, I don't want to be a lecturer anymore, I want to resign. So I think that dampens their spirit a lot.*

HRB noted that line managers should be mentors for new staff. She suggested that managers:

*are saying we are not here to babysit you know, all our admin work, group work, our, they don't have time.*

From HRB's perspective, and using Glenn's (2003) terminology, self-mentoring and Du Bois and Karcher's (2005) terminology, peer mentoring constitutes the informal mentoring adopted by new lecturers. The college has no formalised mentoring programme or institutional strategy to involve line managers in mentoring new lecturers.

### **(c) Human Resource Manager College C (HRC)**

HRC moved into the post shortly before the interview. He has, however, spent a number of years in the human resource department and indicated that he is aware of the issues at hand. He stressed the sector's unique employment situation compared to other employment situations in the education sector. The college employment situation is one where skills are more important than qualifications. He indicated:

*The drawback means that the person entering is not an educator.*

He reflected the views of HRA and HRB by showing that 'eagerness' is a key factor expected from applicants. He demonstrated that conditions of service attract applicants and noted that applicants tend to be either graduates who could not find work but who meet stated entrance requirements or experienced people who want to 'settle down'. He noted that he did not understand why some well-qualified and experienced individuals apply for posts at colleges. He noted that it is:

*quite interesting for us also because sometimes you get the most qualified people and we don't understand why the industry wouldn't be able to offer them more generous dispensation ... the general feeling is that the way or the direction of the FETs go into is where they sort of feel they fit in.*

In accordance with the other two colleges, he explained, the college has a two-day induction programme for new staff, where new members are 'taught ... very basic type of principles of teaching'. Inductees are given what he calls an 'educator companion', which is a manual of teaching resources. A new member of staff is 'matched up' with a person 'who is already settled in the college sector' as well as a subject matter expert. The college offers a range of skills development programmes and finance for formal courses to staff.

From HRC's perspective, the college employs people who are eager to become involved with colleges. His perception is that mature practitioners seek work at colleges with the aim of settling down. New staff, he indicated, are introduced to the institution and its principles of education; then paired with an experienced peer.

#### **(d) Explanation of interviews with Human Resource Managers**

All three human resource managers concur about the characteristics of the staff they seek to employ. The first interviewee called the concept *passion*; the second interviewee first referred to it as *interest*, and later used the term *passion*. The third

interviewee used the term *eagerness*. There is a marked similarity between perceptions of why people apply for work colleges. The first and third managers emphasised the difficulty of work in other sectors when compared to that of colleges. The first manager noted the harshness of the private sector and extramural activities at a school, while the third manager indicated that people seek employment at colleges because they want to settle down. The second manager interviewed focussed on the economic downturn.

The three colleges have similar institutional induction processes and clear perceptions of the place of mentoring in competence development. All see institution-level induction as the starting-point for the institution/lecturer match. The colleges selected have widely differing approaches to staff mentoring. For college A, mentoring is a line function but for college B mentoring is self-driven: new members of staff are left to learn from each other. For college C, mentoring is a peer-oriented process in which employees are matched up with experienced peers.

The HR managers' general indicators of looking for passion and eagerness in a new lecturer contrast starkly with the professional indicators noted by Bialobrzaska and Allais<sup>28</sup> (2005: 48-49) and three types of qualifications noted by McBride *et al.*<sup>29</sup> (2009: 8). HR managers appear to accept that applicant lecturers do not have qualifications required for the posts to be filled and come from work environments that do not share professional requirements associated with the education profession. HR managers appear to accept that informal initial development does take place, although they could not identify how or why it works.

HR managers were aware of their representative function, which influenced the wording of their answers. Their answers did, however, generally serve as corroboration of responses provided by lecturers interviewed.

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<sup>28</sup> Bialobrzaska and Allais.(2005: 48-49) argue that being a professional TVET educator includes being competent in a field, having autonomy to make judgments, bearing responsibilities, reflecting on practice and developing expertise in an on-going manner.

<sup>29</sup> McBride *et al.* (2009: 8) argue that the three qualifications TVET lecturers need are academic qualifications teaching he indicated and workplace qualifications.

### 4.3.2 Interviews with lecturers

Fairclough's (1989; 2001) methodology involves a description of vocabulary, grammar and textual structure. The description of interviews that follows uses a combination of descriptions of what was said and illustrations of how it was said. Descriptions are presented within the framework of the questions asked.

Five lecturers who teach subjects that can be categorised as *business studies* or subjects related to general business theory, were interviewed; one from college A and four from college B. The five interviewees have different employment backgrounds and academic profiles. Four are university graduates and one obtained a business qualification through part-time studies while working at her current place of employment. Two interviewees had statistical analysis and postgraduate research backgrounds. One had general business experience and two entered the public TVET college sector directly after graduating. Four interviewees view the public TVET college sector as a long-term career, while one sees it as the initial phase of an academic career.

Unlike the business studies group, in which each of the five interviewees had different entry routes, all four catering lecturers were employed in the public TVET sector after working in the catering industry. One of the interviewees left the industry, completed a professional teaching qualification and then applied for work in the public TVET sector. The other three moved into the public TVET college sector from the catering industry prior to completing a professional educator qualification. Of the latter three, one interviewee's entry followed a period of oscillation between the catering and private college sector and a spell in the NGO education sector. The other two moved directly from the catering industry into the public TVET sector.

Four lecturers who teach tourism-related subjects were interviewed. The four have different backgrounds and different routes of entry into the public TVET college sector. One moved into the public TVET sector from the private tourism sector. Two were employed in the public tourism sector and one was employed by a public TVET college immediately after graduating from university. Two were university graduates

and two, coincidentally the two who had worked in the public tourism sector, were practitioners who accumulated most of their qualifications after being employed in the public TVET sector.

In addition to differing routes into public TVET colleges, the nature of entry differed. One interviewee's entry into the public TVET sector was gradual and incremental, starting with part-time employment at a private tourism provider, followed by an increased workload at another provider and, finally, full-time employment at a public TVET college. Another interviewee entered the public TVET sector after being retrenched and two actively sought employment in this sector. Of the two who actively sought employment in the public TVET sector, one did it for reasons linked to family-based employment patterns; suggesting that teaching was in her 'blood' [her term], while the other did it for reasons linked to perceptions of an academic career.

At first glance, the two IT practitioners appeared to have similar backgrounds. Both were university graduates and work at the same college. Both found employment in education directly after graduating from university, without first being employed in the IT industry. Their employment routes within the education sector are, however, different. One is married to a teacher and found employment in education a convenience. For the other, the development of an education specialisation was coincidental. He accumulated employment experience after graduating and moved to Cape Town. In his own words, he became 'more employable on the lecturer side than the IT side'.

A third factor distinguishing the two interviewees from each other was that one's teaching experience prior to moving into public TVET colleges was at school level, while the other's was in private higher education. Their different starting-points resulted in diverging perceptions of themselves as lecturers, the work they do and the key elements influencing their development.

#### **(a) Interviewee 1**

Interviewee 1 became a lecturer when she transferred from an administration post in the college at which she is currently employed. Prior to seeking employment at a



public TVET college, interviewee 1 qualified with a one-year diploma in television presentation at a national private higher education provider. The television industry, she argued, is based largely in Johannesburg, to where she did not want to relocate. Employment in the industry in Cape Town, by contrast, is largely part-time by nature of the entertainment industry which is seasonal and project-based. As a result of not being gainfully employed, she became involved in volunteer teaching at the institution where she had studied. From volunteer teaching she developed an interest in teaching as a career option.

She replied to an advertisement for an administrative assistant to the open learning centre co-ordinator and therefore joined the public TVET sector, in an administrative post, two years after graduating as a television presenter. She indicated that she made use of the development opportunities offered at the college, both in terms of experience gained and further studying. In her own words: 'I started picking up a lot of things' working in the centre and completed N4 to N6<sup>30</sup> in Business Management and, later, a National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) through part-time studies. She recently took up a post as a business studies lecturer and, indicated that 'I love what I am doing'.

Interviewee 1 suggested that she found working in education gave her 'encouragement', which motivated her to study further, first in business and later in education. Working at the college motivated her to apply for a teaching post. She stated that she has a number of family members who work in education. Her sister is a foundation phase teacher, and their comparison of work environments encouraged her in the pursuit of work at the college.

Interviewee 1 explained that she did not take part in a mentoring programme. 'I didn't get much', she said. She, however, went on to say that 'I've really been encouraged a lot by my colleagues', indicating that she willingly received peer mentoring.

She spoke at length about peer mentoring and attributed her colleagues as the key to her development as a lecturer:

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<sup>30</sup> N4 to N6 refers to National Education Department (NATED) programmes level 4 to 6.

*I've really [pause] I've been encouraged by them over the past two years and I'm still being like that and I will still get the people coming to me, my normal colleagues, coming to me and say do you need help with that, can we assist with that, can we show you how to do that and I can sit here and I can tell you I can go back to each and every one of them at any time and they will be able to show me and guide me the right way.*

She went into detail on how her colleagues assisted and continue to assist her. Throughout, she alluded to the collegial atmosphere at both campuses of the college at which she is employed.

In addition to working in a collegial atmosphere, Interviewee 1 claimed that she is a 'fast learner'. She noted further that she will 'always go the extra mile'. Her learning was not limited to informal learning. She improved her qualifications, first by completing a N4, N5 and N6 in business studies and then by registering for an NPDE. She added that she did 'a lot of things on my own'. Her development was, in her own words:

*a combination, it's things I pick up from my employees, it's things I pick up from my colleagues and also my own, it's what I pick up myself as I go along.*

A third factor in her progress, she commented, is that the 'college has given me a lot of opportunities here to progress'.

Interviewee 1 noted two issues that prevented her from developing as a lecturer. The first related to teaching without being professionally qualified; something that negatively affected her teaching competence. The second factor that prevented her from developing was linked to negative attitudes of some colleagues. She noted that, in meetings, people 'would sit and moan', leaving her questioning herself:

*... do I want to go into education? Is this what I'm going to work with for the rest of my life? Is this really what I want? So, so there was a time ... I think it was in the June holiday ... I was very demotivated for months and I was depressed actually. It got to that extent when I was, I was depressed because the way [of] people around me.*

Interviewee 1 believes it is too early to identify whether or not she has been able to make a difference to the institution. She went on, however, to show that she has started focussing on individual student issues. She pointed out that it is in assisting students with problems that she could make a difference.

## **(b) Interviewee 2**

Interviewee 2 is a business (Bachelor of Commerce) graduate who elected to seek employment in the public TVET sector after graduation from university. He sees himself as a business specialist who, as part of his post-studies analysis of the labour market, regarded college lecturing as one of a range of potential employment options. He indicated that he did search for work widely. His decision to accept a post at a public TVET college was, however, the only employment choice open to him. As he said:

*... honestly, I couldn't find other work. I just ran with it and I went through every interview...wasn't successful and for some reason I was successful at [the college].*

He was first utilised as a business specialist in the college's art department but later moved to a department offering National Curriculum (Vocational) (NCV) in business studies. He recently completed an NPDE but works at the college in what he calls 'series and series of contracts'.

Interviewee 2 responded to the question of what formal institutional mentoring programme was available when he joined the college: 'very informal'. He went on to indicate that there was 'no actual process' but there was an induction session held that covered general college matters. There is 'no real mentoring here' he indicated,

'it's something that is overlooked'. He went on to describe this process of informal mentoring:

*... they just push you in different things but, mentoring, no formal mentoring. What happened is when I ... came to the art department no-one could actually mentor me because [referring to his colleagues] they're all art. When you went to the, um, they just said here's the text book and see what you can do.*

Colleagues' input to his initial development was therefore limited to providing him with curriculum-related information, 'people taught me about unit standards, all this terminologies [sic] that I had no understanding about'. He indicated that he was given copies of external exams. Because he was a subject specialist in a field that was outside the department's core discipline, he was left to his own devices, with the acceptance that he was a subject specialist. In his second year of employment, he worked closely with two people who could, according to him, be regarded as mentors. One focused on the development of his subject knowledge and teaching competence: the other, who happened to be a union representative, taught him about his 'rights and stuff like that'.

He commented that, when he joined the institution, the department was in a state of turmoil, because, as he phrased it, an almost legendary programme manager had left. The acting programme manager was not content with his own situation. Interviewee 2 explained that the new programme manager was approachable, 'it was easy to talk to him'. A number of new employees joined the programme staff soon after he had, which resulted in them helping each other: 'a kind of group mentoring', he said. This group works well together: 'you kind of learn, you jump off [bounce ideas off] each other all the time', is how he articulated it.

With reference to his own involvement in his development as a lecturer, he indicated that, when he started, he taught the same subject to a number of classes and had a significant amount of spare time between classes. He mastered the content through repetition and developed his own didactic skills by adapting the content to suit the

different classes. He spoke at length about the development effect of the collegial spirit that grew.

When asked what factors or instances may have been obstacles in his development as a lecturer, he spoke unguardedly about some individuals not changing while others were developing. He indicated that:

*the general attitude of the college kind of gets you down but then again in this economic environment ... you're thinking okay so this is bad, but how bad is it out there and I think that's what attacks the other people as well.*

When asked to pinpoint the source of the negativity he could not but spoke generally about the institutional bureaucracy, some members of management and conflicting instructions. He noted that he has consistently been developing and up-skilling himself, which, he indicated, is his way of coping with the situation.

He expressed the opinion that his ability to make a difference to the institution had been facilitated through the allocation of extra work. He indicated that he was recently given control of the programme's practical component, which involved developing a book that 'students loved'. The book was produced by him and a number of colleagues. Recently, he was assigned two people to mentor, which provided him with a chance to develop new staff.

### **(c) Interviewee 3**

Interviewee 3 is an economics and mathematics graduate who was employed as an economic analyst at a local university prior to seeking employment in the public TVET sector. While, he indicated, he enjoyed the environment of his previous place of employment and earned more than he does at the college, he felt that he had 'lost touch with people' since his work involved little more than 'reading and writing'. His reply to why he wanted to become a lecturer was that:

*I always found that I loved to perform on stage and I thought this is a captive audience, I think it is something I can be very good at.*

He indicated earlier that his choice of employment was based on doing 'something to contribute to the country'.

In response to the question of formal institutional mentoring programmes offered when he joined the college, Interviewee 3 indicated that he was sent on a mentoring course and therefore learnt about mentoring others. He was however:

*... never in a position where somebody was formally assigned to me, to say this person is going to show you the ropes or this person is going to. I was told that if you have a question go and ... don't hesitate to come and knock on the door. That type of thing. But I cannot say that person was my mentor in both instances.*

He commented that the programme manager he worked with when he joined his current employer was closest to his impression of a classic mentor.

*We worked very closely together for three years and I would come up with ideas and he would run after that idea and make it extremely big and then he and I would tailor-make it for our institution. And he would take me on workshops; he would organize for me to go to attend speaking arrangements. So he really helped me to develop my educational profile.*

From working together, he indicated, he and his programme manager developed respect for each other and became good friends. He went on to note that there were other people whom he 'admired for certain reasons'. He described a woman, an academic manager, with whom he had worked. He spoke at length about her work ethic and her ability to work well with people while under pressure.

Interviewee 3 followed his reflection on inputs of supervisors by stating how much he learnt from his peers. He claimed that there were extremes. There were those who

worked efficiently and effectively. He provided information on what to do and not to do, what to worry about and what not to or where to focus. There were others, however, he murmured with a negative tone, who had systems of files 'like a rainbow, everything was colour coded, it was neat, it was tidy, it was perfect'. He went on to note, in amusement:

*I swear that' it's only the teaching profession that gets excited about plastic files. Nowhere else in my life have I seen people going crazy about these plastic sleeves.*

Interviewee 3 noted that he learnt from people and college processes that, in his opinion, were inefficient, unproductive or slow. He stated that he made a point of learning to understand how the bureaucracy worked. He noted that the income-based efficiency that he was used to was replaced by bureaucratic procedures. He spoke at length on the element of his work that was his strong point: subject content. He mentioned the practical element of his subject, Economics was not being treated 'properly'. He used, as an example, that doing a poster was regarded as a practical element of the subject. He responded to the problem by working on ideas to make his subject more practical.

Interviewee 3 mentioned lack of management support as the most significant factor that hampered his development. He specified that the support he received from one programme manager was not matched by that of the person who replaced him when he was promoted. He cited interpersonal politics, which he called 'office politics':

*it was so easy to get caught up in the office politics. The one person said this and the other person said that, and it was at a time like playing survivor. Who are you allying yourself with now? Who's your allies now in this education situation?*

He continued:

*once I went through that, things changed for me dramatically but it did make an impact on my motivation. It made an impact on my dynamics,*

*my momentum. There were times I was not in the mood to come into college because of the personal vendettas.*

Regarding interviewee 3's ability to influence his working environment, he described himself as working like a:

*little honey bee ... I go from department to department and person to person and I get everything. I draw on little honeybee and I come up with new ideas.*

He followed his analogy by indicating that he has learnt to keep his focus on students and to ignore 'the gossip'.

#### **(d) Interviewee 4**

Interviewee 4 was employed in the public TVET sector after working as a graduate student in business administration and later substitute lecturer in marketing. Prior to working as a graduate student, she worked as a financial analyst at an organisation that served the non-governmental sector. Her work as a graduate student included research and tutoring which facilitated her employment in the public TVET sector. Although she developed an interest in education, she indicated that finding employment at school 'wasn't an option, so to stay in the [education] environment I opted for FET<sup>31</sup>'.

She regards employment in public TVET colleges as part of her development as a business academic. She holds a Master's degree in business administration, is completing an NPDE and has plans to start with a doctorate as soon as she graduates. In answer to the question of formal institutional mentoring, she had a short and straight answer:

*No, not at all. I started in 2009, in July and they were just about to start with the ISTATS [integrated assessment tasks] and so I was just thrown into the deep end. My senior was there if I had any questions.*

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<sup>31</sup> The interviewee, like most of her colleagues, used FET as a term of reference for the TVET sector.



She went on to comment that:

*the fit was quite easy, because I worked in academics for so long, like for 3 to 4 years so it was okay. It was learning the new words, the new terms and memos, a lot of memos and assessment tools and that kind of thing.*

Students, she advised, were different to those she worked with in higher education:

*Here at college we are not just lecturers, we are social workers, we are policemen and women, we are bankers ... we don't just lecture, I don't just teach.*

Her initial appointment was to teach marketing, a portfolio that was expanded to cover other business subjects. She formed part of a small team, consisting of people who worked closely together, each teaching one or more related subjects. She noted about one of her colleagues:

*He was a friend when I joined; he was a friend so I wasn't shy to ask questions or anything like that. So he helped a lot because he was in the system for much longer than me and X [another colleague] assisted us, so it was easy to go ask questions because it was just the four of us. We grew since 2009 but at the time ... the marketing groups were also small ... We work in a team ... and the dynamics is ginormous.*

Interviewee 4 stated that the key to her own growth was that: 'I read'. She went on to claim that she learnt as a tutor in higher education by what she referred to as 'observe and you pick up on things'. She went on to comment that she has a master's degree in her field. She noted that the college has sent her on courses, which she found motivational. She then spoke at length about the micro-dynamics of the marketing department; indicating how she integrated herself with her colleagues, the programme manager and the broader college environment.

Despite much coaxing and illustrations, Interviewee 4 could find nothing that inhibited her development as lecturer. 'I haven't really experienced such road blocks, um, personally', she noted. Interviewee 4 pointed to additional work as an indication of how she made a difference to the institution. She explained that she has been involved in the college open day, as one of the project leaders. She organised the college open day, which involved securing a guest speaker, entertainment and student outings:

*It's not something that I have to do you know. I can say 'no thank you', I don't want to do it but I choose to do it because um, if I don't do it then the others is not going to do it and it's for the students at the end of the day.*

**(e) Interviewee 5**

Interviewee 5 is a sports and recreation graduate who entered the public TVET sector after a period of work in the insurance industry. He has been working in the public TVET sector since 2000 and has been employed at two institutions. At his first college of employment, he taught management communication. He indicated that he competed with a number of other applicants for the post, including qualified teachers. His first post in public TVET colleges was at a campus in a small town north of Cape Town. Of this post he said:

*I lectured there for one year. For me the lifestyle there, it was not the lifestyle of Cape Town. It was very quiet and boring. The only thing that I do from the College I would go to the house and then I would stay there.*

His move from that college to the one where he is currently employed was based largely on an expectation of an improvement in living conditions that a move to Cape Town promised. The post he applied for was one that he heard of through an acquaintance he formed with a programme manager at the college where he now works. At his current place of employment, which he joined in 2007, he has taught Economics and business-related subjects.

Interviewee 5 confirmed that neither of the colleges at which he has been employed had formal mentoring programmes. One was, in his opinion, devoid of effective management communication. He indicated that at that college he was never subjected to the State's integrated quality management system (IQMS) assessment; he had to initiate communication with his line manager who was located at a campus a distance from the campus at which he was located. Face-to-face meetings with his line manager were subject to the manager securing a car from the campus car pool. At his current place of employment, in contrast, he indicated referring to his supervisor:

*there is someone who can mentor [you], who can take you from this level to that particular level and there are many college meetings.*

At his current place of employment, he explained, colleagues provided a variety of forms of assistance: alignment of curriculum and time, lesson planning, using PowerPoint, and tips to make lessons more interesting. This differed from the previous college, where he was largely without collegial support.

To develop himself as a lecturer, he made an effort to 'network with colleagues' from an early stage of his employment at colleges. He used personal contacts. When he was told to teach economics, which was a subject that he had done at university but that he did not like, he solicited the help of his sister, an Economics major, and achieved an 80% pass rate.

Interviewee 5 regarded issues related to conditions of employment as the major factor that inhibited his development. At both colleges he was initially employed on one-year contracts, which weakened him financially, and denied him opportunities to complete external courses funded by the college. Since getting a long-term contract, he believes, the situation that prevented his development had ended; especially since he now finds himself in extra-classroom projects.

For interviewee 5, recognition that he was able to make a difference to the institution was when he was included in an innovation team at the college, initially tasked with

developing on-line assessment mechanisms. He is the campus representative of the team. Their task has been to develop protocols for using the college's e-learning platform, as well as related hardware and software. Since joining the team, he has become competent in using the interactive white board, increased his PowerPoint presentation skills and, as he puts it, learnt 'how to do a good presentation within the classroom'. He has been able to mentor other members of staff in the use of these technologies in the classroom.

**(f) Interviewee 6**

Interviewee 6 is a chef who attained qualifications himself while working in the catering industry. He worked in the catering industry, in various parts of the county, initially Kwa-Zulu Natal, and later Johannesburg and Cape Town. While in Johannesburg he was appointed on a contract basis to a private college in 2007. He taught professional cookery courses accredited by the International City and Guilds. The initial trigger to teach cooking was a broken hand, which affected his cooking competency. As he said, he 'needed something quick and' added an ancillary reason, 'then the hours were really appealing'. After completing a three-month lecturing contract, he spent the next few years with a number of employers in the catering industry, moving between Johannesburg and Cape Town. He periodically taught at the private college where he had been employed in 2007. In 2010 he moved to Cape Town, completed a Bachelor of Technology in Catering and, after a short spell in the catering industry, was employed by a catering training non-governmental organisation (NGO). His involvement with the NGO cemented his interest in catering education. His interest in teaching, and the need to increase his income, led to him to seek employment in the public TVET sector. He is currently completing a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) through distance learning. He sees a continuum between cheffing and teaching, indicating that, 'a good chef is a good teacher'.

Interviewee 6 indicated that he was not involved in any formal mentoring programme at any of the colleges at which he was employed. He noted at length that he learnt what he needed to know from other lecturers. He indicated that: 'I had to interview teachers, the lecturers, to get the information'.

In response to the question on inputs colleagues made to his development as a lecturer, Interviewee 6 indicated that at the private college he received only the formal coursework:

*which is pretty much straight forward. It will tell you exactly how to go and what to do, so that was self-explanatory in a way.*

The NGO, in contrast to private colleges, involved large amounts of administration required by the Eastern Cape service provider and SETA, with which it was accredited. The work required a lecturer to, in his words, 'sink or swim'. In contrast to his previous places of employment in education, colleagues at his current place of employment, he indicated, have been helpful, providing explanatory assistance, examples of assessments and notes.

In response to the question of what he did to develop as a lecturer, he used the phrase 'sink or swim' on a number of occasions. He indicated that he did a lot of research and reading. Through reading, he indicated, he identified what to do, developed a plan: 'this topic so many hours, this topic so many hours'. He communicated with other lecturers as much as possible and had confidence in his product knowledge. 'Slowly, slowly, slowly' he indicated, 'then I was comfortable'.

He identified a lack of knowledge as an inhibiting factor in his development as a lecturer. He called knowledge and information *gold*:

*People lack information, that is one of the key problems I identified while working at the NGO ... if I had all that information, I'm sure, I could have done something like this long time ago.*

He regards his ability to make a difference by his sharing information and knowledge with others. Sharing knowledge, he noted, is to 'empower someone else':

*I strongly believe in sharing knowledge, I strongly believe in empowering people. I firmly believe in giving them the knowledge and the skills so*

*when they leave this institution they can go out there and perform at 100%.*

While his focus is on transformation of students through supply of information, he believes that the principle applies equally to working with colleagues 'if their mind-set is open to it'.

The result of his work, or evidence of making a difference, he indicated, is in student marks, how they behave in class, how they interact with the lecturer, the amount of work they do, the respect they show to a lecturer and in their own evolution.

#### **(g) Interviewee 7**

Interviewee 7 entered the public TVET sector from the catering environment. She qualified for work in the catering industry at the only institution located in her hometown. She worked in that environment in the South Eastern Cape area for one year and developed an interest in education. She completed a PGCE full time. After graduation, she was employed at a college in the Southern Cape area, but moved to find employment at another institution, located in the Cape Town area, one year later. Interviewee 7 indicated that she wanted to be a teacher but decided to study cooking partly because she 'loved cooking ... and I just loved to see how people enjoy my food.' She then added: 'but like I said teaching was my first option'. She took up the only study opportunity in her home town (food and beverage management) primarily as a result of her parents' preference for her to remain in her home town. The closest other providers, where she could have studied either cooking or education, were located in Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, which would have required relocation, residence and expense.

Her employment in education has been exclusively at public TVET colleges; although her experience at the two institutions, she argued, has been different. From her perspective, one was a negative experience while the other was positive. She interpreted her experience in terms of her perception of professionalism. She interprets professionalism as 'having things in order'. She experienced her second

college of employment as more organised and indicated that it is a more professional organisation compared to the first college at which she was employed.

Interviewee 7 indicated that neither of the colleges had a formal induction programme: 'there was no such thing as induction', she said. She noted that the two colleges treated new staff differently. At her first college of employment she was provided with a 'bunch of papers to read, and that was it, and I had to sign documents'. She then contradicted her indication that neither college had an induction programme. She noted that at her current place of employment she has been 'treated like a princess' at, *inter alia*, an orientation process. She noted:

*when I came here they made us feel welcome. Everybody came together ... all the management staff came together, the CEO came to speak us, that made us feel very welcome ... that made me feel very welcome.*

While neither of the colleges had mentoring programmes, her current employer made her feel welcome, provided her with an induction programme, briefings and clear channels of communication within the college. This allowed her to feel she knew what was expected: She said 'everybody knows' repeatedly.

In response to inputs that colleagues made to the person's development as a lecturer, interviewee 7 went into detail discussing her appreciation for being welcomed into the organisation. She attended induction training, departmental briefings and was provided with channels of communication. She summarised her introduction to the college by saying that:

*it's always good to know what developments are taking place on other satellite campuses. You know and because you are one big family and you need to know what's happening.*

She was positive about the inputs of her colleagues, saying such things as:

*my colleagues are very helpful. I can go to anybody and ask them you know about anything, it's like a family here, you are not left in the dark.*

Interviewee 7 indicated that the ability to survive was the key to her own development as a lecturer. As she put it, she was 'thrown into the deep side', but, partly because she likes challenges and is 'a survivor', she indicated 'I automatically swam [sic] ... I can't explain it, it's just there'.

Interviewee 7 provided a contrasting analogy between the two colleges at which she was employed to indicate factors or instances that inhibited her from developing as a lecturer. At the college where she was formerly employed, she found the location and infrastructure debilitating. She noted about her first place of employment that:

*there was hardly any technology ... one of my classrooms were situated way at the back and a whole lot of animals were roaming around.*

She indicated further that:

*I wanted to get out of that ... to study further ... to [go to] Cape Town and get a better job.*

She chose resignation, further study and a new place of employment, where the social and educational technology is more positive.

In response to the question of her ability to make a difference to the institution, she indicated that her focus is 'to make a difference in every student's life'. By providing a contributory social and technological environment, she indicated, her new place of employment provided her with the environment she needed to make the difference of choice.

#### **(h) Interviewee 8**

Interviewee 8 has been employed in the public TVET sector for a decade. Prior to finding employment at a public TVET college, she was employed in the catering



industry. As a catering manager in her place of employment, she completed an assessor course, which was a requirement for staff training. While on the course, she heard that there was a teaching post available at her current place of employment. She applied for it, was appointed and 'liked it'.

She argued that she was employed because the college was 'looking for someone specifically from industry'. She claimed that she originally wanted to be a teacher; both her parents are in the education profession and 'teaching is most likely in my blood'. She sees herself moving out of the public FET college sector and opening her own, smaller, private college.

In answer to the question of her employer's formal mentoring programme Interviewee 8 indicated, in Afrikaans and by using a swimming analogy, that she was thrown in 'in deep water and swam', figured out 'what was where' and, in her opinion, got a little better each time. She went on to indicate that there was a member of staff who has played a mentoring role. The person who played such a role was a colleague who had been employed at the college for a number of years, and with whom she shared an office. As a result, she indicated, if she had questions she would ask that person.

In response to the question of inputs from colleagues and how this affected her development as a lecturer, Interviewee 8 noted, in contrast to the positive inputs of the person she shared an office with, that she had been repeatedly reminded by colleagues that she does not have a professional teaching qualification. She mentioned that she was reminded that she was the only one at the hotel school. The lack of a qualification, she stated later, was a motivator for trying to be better than the rest.

Interviewee 8 noted, while discussing her relation with colleagues, that she is a hard worker and puts much effort into classroom preparation and presentation. 'There will not be a day' she indicated 'that a person asks me a question that I cannot answer'. She regards her own efforts as central to her development.

In addition to working on her presentations, she completed a number of courses; aimed at developing her facilitation and assessment skills, as well as her technical skills. She has, in her own words, kept a foot in the door, by involving herself with registered bodies and events in the local community.

In response to factors or instances which obstructed her developing as a lecturer, Interviewee 8 felt that she was demotivated when comments are made by senior staff: their prior assistance would have made negative comments unnecessary. She noted that the responses of some classes of students results in a reduction in passion. She provided an example of different food preparation methods to illustrate this. While the curriculum requires the application of certain techniques, students have challenged the techniques based on home practice, which they veil in cultural arguments. She mentioned a lack of promotion opportunities to be a demotivator.

She noted respect received from students was the most important proof of making a difference. She spoke about students asking advice, noticing the amount of effort she makes and the results she achieves. She followed this, however, by stating, in closing, that the college's employment practice inherently limits development: 'I will never get a level two post because my programme manager is going nowhere' she concluded.

In contrast to the previous two catering specialists, Interviewee 8's interest has moved from finding her place within the college to further development at the college. She spoke positively about her move into public TVET colleges, but cognitive dissonance about staying was evident.

#### **(i) Interviewee 9**

Interviewee 9 has a food service management qualification and has worked in the catering industry; first because she had a bursary and later, according to the career opportunities that arose. Shortly after resigning from her last job in the catering industry, she met an ex-colleague who was working at the college where she is now employed. '[I] dropped off my CV [and] that is how I ended up here'.

She stated that she enjoyed the catering industry but that the working hours at the kind of catering business that interested her were too demanding for her to meet family commitments. With reference to the catering industry, she explained that:

*... you need to be prepared to sacrifice that aspect, your family life and your home life in pursuit of your career. Yes, career is important but then I had to change my whole mind-set.*

Moving from catering management to teaching was not difficult. Like the other interviewees involved in catering, she agreed with the idea that teaching others is an integral part of the work of a manager in the catering industry. She claimed that it was:

*something that I actually enjoyed and people would often approach me to ... assist them or show them. I could bring something across in a manner that they could understand and walk away, knowing what I mean or what I'm speaking about.*

Interviewee 9 averred that the college's induction programme she attended was the closest event to a formal mentoring programme that she experienced:

*...they do two days doing that. New staff are given files as a guide. All I received were six files, here teach, the first day I arrived.*

Later she attended assessor and master facilitators' courses, but 'the rest has always just been on-going', she indicated. She went on to indicate that she was:

*in a fortunate position that my manager, [name], she is the type that you can approach. If you're sitting, if there's a dilemma, how do I handle this, what do I do, how do I approach this ... I learnt a lot from her.*

Interviewee 9 characterised her work environment as a collegial learning atmosphere:

*... we're always asking each other because we find that we each specialize in a certain area. Hospitality and catering is vast so we all have our own area of expertise and we know exactly who to go to and normally the one that just came from the industry, more recently than the rest of us.*

Interviewee 9 developed her skills by means of continuing studies and maximising interaction with others. At various times during the interview, Interviewee 9 noted courses and workshops she attended and completed. Apart from short courses, she completed a Bachelor of Technology in 2010 and is currently completing a Post Graduate Certificate in Education. Interaction with her line manager and colleagues, communication with friends who have experience and drawing on resources from professional bodies formed the elements of her own self-driven mode of mentoring.

In response to the question of factors or instances which prevented her from developing as a lecturer, she responded 'nothing: nothing, yeah nothing'. She followed the statement by a discussion on future options in the public TVET sector, both at the college at which she is currently employed and others.

In response to the question on the extent to which she can make a difference to the institution, Interviewee 9 noted that her focus is on how she has affected the lives of the students with whom she works. She noted that she initially tried to behave as she perceived teachers should behave and by focussing on discipline, or as she put it:

*Jy moet streng wees, like nee juffrou, dissipline is dissipline (you must be strict, like no miss, discipline is discipline).*

She pointed out that once she adapted her teaching style to suit her work/college situation and started using available technology, she received a more positive student reaction to her inputs. She went on to discuss how the college is assisting her in her development; once again illustrating her perception of the interrelation between her own development and her interaction with those surrounding her.

**(j) Interviewee 10**

Interviewee 10 worked in the tourism industry for a decade before making a decision to move into the public TVET sector in 1999. He received a severance package brought about by downsizing in the public transport sector at the time. He completed an N6 certificate in tourism, as well as a number of short courses related to the tourism industry. He has been employed at two public TVET colleges and recently completed an NPDE.

He stated that he wanted to become a teacher when in grades 11 and 12 but decided to study tourism as ‘things that you wanted change from ... minute to minute’. His decision to enter the teaching profession, he indicated was made ‘to give it a chance, seeing that it was my first choice to become a teacher’.

In response to the question on formal institutional mentoring programmes, Interviewee 10 reminded me that he had been employed at public TVET colleges for thirteen years; noting that when he was employed, there was no mentoring programme. He went on to explain that he:

*learnt by myself, remembering when I was studying, what they did ... I worked in tourism and [when I] teach in tourism, I could apply my knowledge and, especially in situations of case studies, I could draw from my experience out of the industry and apply it with my teaching.*

Interviewee 10 owed much of his initial development to collegial inputs. He indicated that he learnt from his colleagues by sitting in on other people’s lessons during his free periods. He found that he could relate to what happened in other’s classrooms and apply what he learnt in his own classes. Colleagues, he claimed, helped him with lecturer administration. He used setting of examination papers as an example and later spoke about it to colleagues making study material available to him. Throughout the interview, he mentioned interaction with other members of staff and being accepted as a member of a group.

In addition to learning from colleagues, Interviewee 10 completed short courses and, later, formal courses that were available. What he learnt, he argued, he applied in class. He mentioned assessor and moderator courses as examples, and spoke at length about the value of the NPDE. What clearly emanates from the interview is that, for him, his own learning and his interaction with others are closely related.

He stated categorically that he has not experienced anything that hampered his development. He switched to his home language, Afrikaans, and simply said: 'nee, definitief nie (no definitely not)'. Later, however, he noted the availability of administrative IT (computers and printers) as disturbing: 'they expect you must do the 100% thing but the support for equipment, is *nog nie daar nie* (not there yet)'.

In answer to the question on making a difference to the institution, Interviewee 10 clearly focusses his efforts on students. He indicated that, as a person gets opportunities to develop, one becomes better at equipping students.

#### **(k) Interviewee 11**

Interviewee 11 is a travel consultant who entered the public TVET sector after more than a decade's work in corporate and private travel environments, both in South Africa and abroad.

Her entry into education was incremental; it started with the presentation of night classes at what she called a *small training institute*. From the training institute, she moved through a number of private colleges, first from part-time employment to full-time and then increasing her scope of activity. Her decision to seek part-time employment at education and training institutions was based partly on interest and partly on income generation. She indicated that income from teaching part-time was good, better than that of a travel agent. By teaching part-time and working as a travel agent, she indicated that she realised 'that I can have the best of both worlds'.

As a travel agent who became involved with private education and training on a part-time basis and ended at a public TVET college, she had a number of different introductory experiences. She experienced a range of organisational expectations of

staff: they were expected to be practitioners at one extreme yet fully familiar with state-designated bureaucratic processes at the other. She spoke at length about the difference between private educational institutions that 'tended to appreciate more that you had industry experience', compared to public TVET colleges, where lecturer qualifications and conditions of employment dominate.

When employed at private colleges on a part-time basis, the emphasis appeared to be on the incumbent's industry experience, compared to state-imposed imperatives when employed on a full-time basis at a public TVET college:

*The private colleges tended to appreciate more that you had industry experience and to bring that into [the class] instead of focussing on my [pause] 'where's your teachers diploma' because you're either a teacher or not.*

In response to the question of institutional mentoring programmes, Interviewee 11 indicated that different types of educational institutions approached new staff differently. Her mentoring experience differed from institution to institution. When starting at one private college, she received no induction training; in her own words:

*zip, zero, got a curriculum, there, that's what you need to do ... there was no file for part-time. You do it, that's what's expected ... [I] had to look at the modules and old papers and then worked from there.*

With reference to mentoring at the college:

*I had, [pause] there was one other lecturer and she said 'I'm too busy to help you. If you want this job you must make it work'. I said 'thank you I will'.*

At the second private college:

*I had a very good mentor there [they came] from industry as well, [and] know how important it is to work as part of a team and helped and say if*

*you battle, come, and are you okay and also, are you struggling, still struggling or battling again. They were always there to help.*

The third private college at which she worked was similar to the second. The public TVET college where she is currently employed, she found to be 'more approachable' in terms of mentoring. In her experience, senior staff would meet with new staff and work through what was expected, covering curriculum content, common problems areas or student issues. She noted that the head of department and the department management team were 'totally open door'.

In answer to the question of collegial involvement, Interviewee 11 differentiated between people who had worked in the private sector<sup>32</sup> and those who had not. People with industry experience, she indicated, 'know that you cannot work on your own, you have to share'. She spoke at length about sharing, not only information, but resources, advice and support at a personal and emotional level. For her, the existence of supportive colleagues was a key element in her development as a college lecturer: it is something that she now does for new staff who join the department, if they want help. As she said:

*Sharing ... well it's a cliché, sharing is caring, but some people well you get, I think both sides, some people feel vulnerable, they don't want to ask for help 'cause they might think you might think they're stupid and others are just plain selfish.*

Interviewee 11 linked her own role in her personal development process to her desire to provide as much support as possible to her students because, she 'got so much from my students, especially at the beginning'. She went on to state that her motto is still: 'if my student hasn't learnt, I haven't taught', which led her to spend time summarising complex contents for students to learn from. She kept 'in touch with industry, seeing what is out there.' She continued:

*I don't see my students as my customers. I still see the industry as my customer and I have to give them a product which is my students that is*

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<sup>32</sup> She used the college colloquialism 'industry'.



*usable to them, otherwise we're just putting people through the mill and they still can't read and they still can't write.*

A third thread in her development was studying. She noted that she has completed tourism-related short courses and reiterated that she is currently busy with a PGCE.

Being too busy was the greatest factor that Interviewee 11 felt held her back from developing as a lecturer: 'You can't do everything 100%. You can try but you can't do everything'. She went on to discuss multiple demands placed on TVET college lecturers and the challenges that she and her colleagues face trying to meet them.

Earlier in the interview, when speaking about her initial development, Interviewee 11 spoke about how she currently manages and mentors new staff as part of the department management team. In response to the question about her ability to make a difference to the institution, she spoke at length about having a positive attitude, working with colleagues, industry, schools, students and parents. She indicated that the programme's marketing portfolio has been handed to her. In her current post, she has an influence on the activities of staff, student recruitment, throughput and college/industry relations.

She ended her interview by stating that she loves what she does. As in the case of a number of other interviewees, she used the term *love* to describe her motivation. She ended the interview by reformulating the difference between lecturers who had worked in the private sector and those who had not:

*People badmouth this place but they have no idea what they have because they haven't been in the private sector. They haven't been at other colleges where they expect you to do everything, come in and just get out and if you're not there for that hour, you will not get paid. Here, you say, ekskuus my kind is siek [sorry my child is sick], ... it needs to be accepted and you still get paid for that time. You know, they don't see it. They don't see that we get paid for our holidays and all in all yes we might not earn a phenomenal salary but jislaaik, we earn okay for the hours we are here. Yes, there are periods that we have to mark and we*

*have to um, um moderate and that takes time but it's not the whole time. Admin is swamping the lecturers as well because you have to do in class attendance the admin is getting a bit hectic and they're complaining about that but compared to where I've been. I would change this for nothing. I love it.*

### **(I) Interviewee 12**

Interviewee 12 is a travel consultant who worked in various posts in local government tourism agencies for fifteen years. She explored other employment opportunities when she decided that 'maybe I should try something else, 'cause I was getting a little bit bored'. She made contact with some colleges, was invited to attend an open day at one college and decided that she liked the atmosphere. She found employment at a private college and remained there for two years before she succeeded in getting a post at her current (public TVET college) employer. She indicated that:

*working with the students ... was the one thing that I loved, 'cause I could actually explain to them and tell them what was my experience and all those different things.*

She indicated that her move from the private college to a public college was based on income potential. Although she had been earning a monthly salary, it was much lower than that offered by the college at which she is now employed. Furthermore, her position at the public college was permanent, while the private college at which she was employed offered contract posts only. She mentioned, in passing, that a number of the members of her family were in the teaching profession and agreed with the insinuation of a family link to working in education, by indicating that 'teaching is in my blood'.

Interviewee 12 responded to the question of formal institutional mentoring programmes by contrasting how the two colleges at which she was employed contributed towards her development. Her previous employer put her onto an Education, Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training

Authority (ETDP SETA) accredited facilitators course, but in her words, 'nothing happened ... we didn't even finish it'. At her current place of employment, she attended an institutional induction programme, followed a week later by meetings within the department and then with staff involved with the programme. At the meetings, she was given details about the work she was to do and what was expected of her. The meetings, she maintained, involved 'getting to know your senior lecturer and who's the moderator and those different things'. She stated that she was placed on an assessor course and, soon thereafter, a National Professional Diploma in Education.

In response to the question on collegial inputs towards her development as a lecturer, she spoke about the role played by senior lecturers in her decision to master the curriculum and study further. The information that she supplied was interspersed with indications of how her development was facilitated. She noted how one of the senior lecturers showed an interest in an examination she wrote: one motivated her to enrol for a professional teaching qualification. In conclusion she remarked 'the fellowship, it's there'.

In response to the question of what she did to develop herself as a lecturer, Interviewee 12 spoke at length about changes to her lifestyle since joining the college sector. She noted that, since being employed by the college, she has become:

*more relaxed, focusing on my work ... with the studying now I've actually just informed most of my friends ... they all know they're going [to] have to excuse me [from social activities] for the next few years.*

Interviewee 12 briefly discussed four issues that negatively impact on her work. The first was the selfish nature of some members of staff: those who 'are just looking at it as earning money'. She gave the example of people who are appointed as examiners or moderators. The second factor that had a negative impact on her was staff who do not help students. The third negative factor, illustrated by means of an example of recent collective student action, was what she called 'ungrateful' students. The fourth factor she noted, but did not elaborate on, was 'sometimes its finances as well'.

In response to the question of the extent to which it is possible for her to make a difference to the institution, Interviewee 12 noted that, at a recent meeting, an administration manager not only gave the impression that her work had been noticed, as the senior knew her name, but the same manager gave her a primary part at an open day. The incident created the impression of being noticed and, in her own words, 'you can't mess around with me'. She provided a second example: of an excursion, that she can not only provide constructive feedback based on her experience in the tourism industry, but that her seniors and 'the college itself find[s] positive'. She noted, in conclusion, combining positive and negative sentiments, she is:

*just enjoying lecturing ... I thought I was going to hate marking and all this different things but I actually enjoy it, to see how these people are actually communicating with me in that way, showing that they do respect you or they don't respect you.*

**(m) Interviewee 13**

Interviewee 13 applied for a post at the college straight after university, seeing it as a step in an academic career. She indicated:

*I love interacting with people and I realised that because I'm already in a master's level, it means automatically somehow you're an academic and being an academic.*

Although she saw herself working in higher education and indicated that she did not think she would 'end up in FET', she concluded, 'I love it'. She indicated that she loves reading and doing research. In her classroom she applies that dual love. This interviewee was the only person interviewed who has not completed, or is completing, a professional teaching qualification.

In response to the question on whether the formal institutional mentoring programme was available when she joined the college, Interviewee 13 noted that, while she did

not attend any mentoring programme and lacked a specific person assigned to assist her: 'there's always someone willing to assist'. She continued, however; 'that's not mentoring as such, [but] it is somehow'. She contrasted her work as a graduate student in higher education and at a public TVET college noting that, in her experience in higher education, a mentor is assigned the specific task of developing a new member of staff's knowledge. By contrast, she suggested, the departmental structure at a public TVET college provides a mentoring mechanism.

Interviewee 13 summarised the role of colleagues in her initial development as readily sharing information. She indicated that she sometimes needed to ask for assistance; while, on other occasions, colleagues offered assistance. She once again contrasted her experience in higher education. At the college:

*you must also do your own research ... and you learn on your own as well. You don't, you're not dependent on anyone, you go all out even whether you are .... you explore more than what you're given.*

In response to the question of what she did to develop herself as a lecturer, throughout the interview, Interviewee 13 described herself as a person who reads, does research and communicates with others. She indicated that her communication is not restricted to colleagues at her place of employment. She accesses information through her friendship circle, which includes people who lecture at other public TVET colleges and private colleges.

Interviewee 13 noted the difference between her Master's research topic and the college curriculum as an inhibiting factor in her development. She argued that her friends who work in higher education have their research and classroom content aligned. But she complained that she is required to perform different sets of reading, one for her classroom and another for her master's degree. She remarked that she does not have the power to make changes to the curriculum, should her research indicate the need for a change.

Interviewee 13 indicated that she has made, and can make, a difference to the lives of her students. She focuses on developing the confidence of her students:

*I see a student with a very low self-confidence generally trust me by end of three months ... I try and develop the students more than develop the college actually because our students are people that we're sending out to the industry, and that is a reflection of the college. It's a reflection of me.*

In response to the question of the extent to which she made a difference to the institution, she mentioned, that she has not served on any committees. She said further that she plans to start serving on committees, concluding with 'that's a promise'.

#### **(n) Interviewee 14**

Interviewee 14 is an immigrant and IT graduate who entered the public TVET sector after being employed at a number of schools for less than a decade. She completed a number of IT degrees while she was employed at school and is currently completing a PGCE. She indicated that she was averse to completing a professional teacher qualification because she was of the view that completing it would 'set [her] up as a teacher'. She conceded that a professional teaching qualification is a necessary part of her career but did not see herself as a teacher: she sees herself as an IT practitioner with teaching being a part of her work with young people.

Interviewee 14's response to the question on institutional mentoring programmes was: 'my subject is very unique in a learning environment out of universities'. She did not expect to be involved in a mentoring programme.

In response to the question on inputs of colleagues, Interviewee 14 noted the mentoring that she was exposed to was, in her own words 'always informal', and provided by colleagues on issues of curriculum delivery, not subject knowledge. Most of Interviewee 14's work in education can be characterised as that of a single subject specialist at an institution. Much of her development has been self-motivated. She remarked that the first classes that she taught were small and

students were of a mature age. She characterised students at her first place of employment as of an age that made it:

*easy for me to actually say if you don't understand something or if I'm going fast guide me and they were free enough, because they paid for it and they wanted return on investment so they would be free enough to say hey slow down or yeah that we get.*

She regarded her students at her first place of employment as her mentors.

She commented that learners at her second place of employment, a private school, were similarly valuable to her development. At the school, the costs and technology that learners had access to, resulted in a situation where she needed to keep up with technology that learners had access to. As she said:

*kids would chase me, ... I mean a student would come in with something that I will have in the classroom and I've got to make sure I help them work this device, I don't have it, the school doesn't have it but the student has it, because daddy has the money for it, so we've got to make sure we make this thing work so I could learn a lot.*

In response to the question of factors or instances that prevented her from developing, Interviewee 14 noted the major factor as living and working in rural areas:

*For the greater chunk of my career ... so it was a big draw back in that you couldn't really do much, you needed to be in a big city to actually be able to do short little courses.*

She went on to compare classrooms, illustrating that physical space available to a person either motivates or demotivates a person's will to learn and, in her case, study further.

In response to the question of the extent to which it was possible for her to make a difference to the institution, Interviewee 14 expressed the opinion that her focus needs to be on students, because she does not see herself 'saving the college'. She went on to assert that her focus on students has, and will continue to result in, her arguing against policy that hinders a concentration on students. She influences the appointment of staff and tends to be the only one who can comment on the content knowledge of potential IT applicants. Other panellists involved with the selection would:

*turn around, [her name], what do you think when it comes to content? ...  
you can say I've got the sense that he knew what he was talking about.*

#### **(o) Interviewee 15**

Interviewee 15 is an IT graduate who moved to Cape Town after graduating from a technikon in the Eastern Cape. He entered the public TVET sector in 2008 after spending time employed at two private training institutions for a total of four years. His current employer is the second public TVET college at which he has worked. He recently completed a postgraduate certificate in education. He sees himself as an IT practitioner whose 'accumulated experience' resulted in him becoming 'more employable on the lecturer side than the IT side'.

In response to the question of a formal institutional mentoring programme that was available when the person joined the college, Interviewee 15 indicated: 'nothing formal'. He continued, 'when you need advice you go to a colleague and you find out'. He went on to indicate that, in his view, mentoring occurred during IQMS [Integrated Quality Management System] assessments, in which a supervisor assesses a class and provided feedback.

In response to the question on collegial inputs, Interviewee 15 commented that colleagues helped 'on the administrative side'. He went on to remark that the department he is employed in is staffed by IT specialists. In the department he is the programme development specialist. As such, he is the person who needs to decide on content delivery issues. As the team's programme development specialist, he



believes, he did not need mentoring, but assistance in terms of how to complete administration and feedback on his performance.

He noted his reflective skills as the source of his own personal development. He indicated that he builds on feedback from IQMS assessments, classroom visits by managers and student results, using the information to improve his practice:

*I would look at what I've done and what I've achieved and what I've set myself up for, actually the following year and benchmark according to that. If I have achieved that as well then I'd set my aim higher so that I can achieve better the following year.*

In response to the question of factors or instances that may have obstructed him from developing as a lecturer, Interviewee 15's answer was short and to the point: 'I wouldn't say there's any; I would not say there were any preventing me from developing as a lecturer'.

Lastly, in response to the question of the extent to which it was possible for him to make a difference to the institution, Interviewee 15 indicated that as he developed:

*I've learnt to look at students; initially I had looked at students the same way. So when I did PGCE I learnt that the students don't learn the same way and students don't have the same ability in terms of understanding and in their committed levels, they understand differently. So now I bring into class different methods of bringing the content across to them so in that way some students that would have not understood the way I did things, would be accommodated by the way now bringing it across to them. So that is one way that I've improved in terms of and understanding their background in terms of the socio-economic background and their cultural backgrounds and their learning difficulties and those kinds of things. So in that way I've learnt to accommodate different students but initially I just thought students are just lazy, they don't want to think and all those kind of things. So it had*

*sort of improved me and so and return improvement, the performance of the college as a whole.*

As a result of further study and its application, he indicated, he has improved in understanding and accommodating students.

#### **4.3.3. Analysis of interviewee discursive practice**

Fairclough's (1989; 2001) method involves an interpretation of schemata, its topic and point, of what was said (speech acts), as well as its contextualisation. Interpretation of what was said provides validation for the earlier description of evidence,

##### **(a) Interviewee 1**

Interviewee 1's vocabulary is good and sentence structure clear: as expected of a practising college lecturer. Her tone of voice is positive and relaxed throughout the interview. She interspersed her responses with slang, positive expressions such as *yo* (wow) and colloquial interjections such as *jasus* (Jesus). But they appeared inoffensive in the context of the interview: they added authentication to her responses. The schemata, topic and point (Fairclough, 2001: 131-133) that underlay her responses were expressions of her enjoyment and achievement at the college. The cohesion of her discourse lay in her expressions of a feeling of purpose.

There were no overt expressions of power in her discourse: it exhibited rather a sense of empowerment. The college in her opinion offers growth and development opportunities for employees. Coming into contact with other members of staff who did not share her positive attitude affected and irritated her. To overcome the negative influences of some members of staff at the college she focused her efforts on students.

**(b) Interviewee 2**

Interviewee 2 has a vocabulary and sentence structure similar to Interviewee 1. Like interviewee 1, his vocabulary and sentence structure are clear. His tone of voice is positive and he was relaxed throughout the interview. He spoke with ease about his knowledge and experience, marking his responses with discursive practices associated with the college, TVET in general and teacher education qualifications. The cohesion of his discourse lay in his belief that he was a business expert who added value to student experiences and was respected as such by his colleagues.

Like interviewee 1, there were no explicit expressions of power. His discourse, like that of interviewee 1 was characterised by empowerment. The schemata, topic and point that underlay his responses were expressed in his belief that he had made the right decision to use his expertise in TVET and focussed on developing himself as a lecturer; despite the lack of security the 'series and series of contracts' provided.

**(c) Interviewee 3**

Interviewee 3 is eloquent. His vocabulary and sentence structure is controlled, clear and complex, characteristic of someone who has achieved a high level of research and presentation. His tone of voice is positive yet more formal than the previous two interviewees. He was obviously relaxed throughout the interview: although his grammar and sentence structure sometimes revealed that he was not speaking in his home language.

Like the previous two interviewees, his discourse is marked by a sense of empowerment. As a qualified and experienced economist, he had confidence, in his view, to *know* how to link theory, in his field, to practice. He had the communication and resource development skills to implement his views. Unlike the previous two interviewees, he showed a discourse of empowerment, as well as a discourse of power based on experience and knowledge. In his case, he knew more about the application of knowledge in his field and was able to express it. He had a developed sense of production and administration, which were, in his opinion, more effective than those practised at the college.

His expression of power was advantageous: he had the protection of a line manager. His expression of power may, however, have contributed towards other negative collegiate experiences that he spoke about. The schemata, topic and point that underlay his responses were expressions related to his ability to produce knowledge that was superior to what was currently available. The cohesion of his discourse lay in expressions of his views of knowing what is correct.

**(d) Interviewee 4**

Interviewee 4 produced a response similar to that of Interviewee 2, but with a greater level of confidence. Her vocabulary and sentence structure are sound, lucid yet nuanced. Her tone of voice is positive yet serious. She was relaxed throughout the interview. She spoke with ease about her knowledge and experience, interspersing her responses with discursive practices associated with the college, TVET in general and teacher education qualifications. The cohesion of her discourse lay in her belief that she was a business expert who added value to student experiences and was respected as such by her colleagues. The confidence that underlay her responses clearly emanated from her tutoring work when she was a graduate student, and her business experience.

Like the previous interviewees, her discourse is one of empowerment; like interviewee 3, her empowerment and work in higher education gave her confidence to express her own views on how learning should be produced. The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses indicated the views of a confident person who had a right to be heard and was used to being heard. The cohesion of her discourse was based on expressions of her future vision.

**(e) Interviewee 5**

Interviewee 5 produced responses quite different to those of the other business specialists. Most notably, his qualification and career path which led to his current place of employment was unlike the other business lecturers interviewed. While English was clearly not his first language, his vocabulary and sentence structure are

sound. His tone of voice is subdued, but positive and serious; although the ease with which he responded to the questions indicated that he was relaxed. He spoke with ease about his knowledge and experience, interspersing his responses with discursive practices associated with the college and TVET practices.

Like the other interviewees, his responses expressed a discourse of empowerment. Noteworthy expressions of his empowerment included his use of contacts within colleges and his personal environment: his freedom to move from one college to another and to develop knowledge required to teach the subjects allocated to him. The schemata, topic and point that underlay his responses revealed a person consciously building a career in TVET, and a network of contacts in the process. The cohesion of his discourse lay in expressions of his sense of purpose.

**(f) Interviewee 6**

Interviewee 6's vocabulary was good. His sentence structure is coherent and clear. His tone of voice was positive and relaxed during the course of the interview. His responses tended to involve large amounts of information: he made tangential elaborations relating to his experiences.

Interviewee 6's discourse expressed a combination of a discourse of empowerment, and a discourse of power or power of knowledge. His discourse of power is reflected in his discussion of competencies that he developed in the catering industry. He went into detail to describe what he learnt from specific individuals at various places of employment. His discourse of empowerment is expressed in the mechanisms he applied to acquire information and materials from colleagues. The schemata, topic and point that underlay his responses were the expressions of a person who has entered into a catering career by design. He consciously moved into education for reasons linked to his expertise, as well as the comfort, stability and employment opportunities at a TVET college. The cohesion of his discourse lay in the amount of information supplied in response to each question.

**(g) Interviewee 7**

Interviewee 7's vocabulary is good; sentence structure clear and complex. Her tone of voice is quiet but positive and relaxed. There were no notable expressions of power. Similarly to interviewee 1, her discourse expressed empowerment. She spoke at length about what the college offered her and help provided by colleagues, often contrasting her experiences at her current place of employment with the previous college where she was employed.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses were expressions of contentment and gratitude. She recalled being treated like a *princess* and was satisfied with her choice to enter the public TVET sector. Like interviewee 1, and to an extent interviewee 2, she believed that the college at which she is employed offers her growth and development opportunities. The cohesion of her discourse lay in her expressions of contentment.

**(h) Interviewee 8**

Interviewee 8's vocabulary is good and sentence structure clear. Her tone of voice is quiet and positive, but formal. Much of the interview was conducted in her first language, which was Afrikaans.

As with the other interviewees, who had significant amounts of industry experience, her responses reflected two discourses: one of power and one of empowerment. She is perceived as a person with industry-related knowledge and competencies, which are a source of power in her interactions with colleagues and students. Unlike any other person interviewed, her industry-based power was juxtaposed with the lack of a teaching qualification.

The schemata, topic and anxieties that underlay her responses were expressions of both pride, in what she had done at the college, as well as irritation at criticism she received from colleges. Her discourse cohesion lay in the clarity and succinctness with which she expressed her views.

**(i) Interviewee 9**

Interviewee 9's vocabulary was good; she is capable of constructing complex sentences. Her tone of voice is lively and positive. She was relaxed throughout the interview, and often switched to her first language, which is Afrikaans, to provide clarity in her answers. She had a substantial amount of industry experience and was focussed on developing herself in education. In contrast to the other catering interviewees who experienced both empowerment and had to subject themselves to power structures, she expressed only a discourse of empowerment. Throughout the interview she demonstrated how she developed herself at the college with the aid of her colleagues.

This interview was one of the more relaxed interviews conducted. The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses expressed contentment with her new career path. The cohesion of her discourse lay in the direct manner in which she responded to each question.

**(j) Interviewee 10**

Interviewee 10's vocabulary is good and sentence structure subdued but clear and complex. Although he has a good command of the English language, which is the language in which he teaches, his sentence structure strongly indicated that English was not his first language. A significant amount of his responses were in Afrikaans, his first language. The oscillation between the two languages appeared, at times, to influence his English sentence structure and choice of words.

Of the fifteen lecturers interviewed, he has the longest record of service at public TVET colleges. He relied on long-term memory for most of his answers and demonstrated that, in various ways, throughout the interview. The need to sometimes work back more than a decade did not prove to be an obstacle; his answers provided an indication of development over the whole period.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay his responses expressed acceptance. He noted in his concluding remarks that he is happy [*baie gelukkig*] and has reached

an age where he can think of retirement. But he prefers to focus on what he can do, professionally, for students and for his colleagues. Word choice and sentence structure that exhibited acceptance formed this interviewee's discourse cohesion.

**(k) Interviewee 11**

Interviewee 11's vocabulary is good; sentence structure vivid and clear. Her tone of voice is lively and positive. English is not her first language: she switched to her first language, Afrikaans, when convenient. But her English language communication skills appeared equal to those of someone who speaks English as a first language.

Like most of the other interviewees who had industry experience, she expressed discourses of power and empowerment: most strongly expressed in contrasting working habits of those who had industry experience and those who did not. Unlike some of the other interviewees, her experience was not marked by conflict between the two discourses. Although she appeared irritated by those who did not work collaboratively, and associated that attitude with people who did not have industry experience, she appeared to perceive the two discourses as complementary.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses expressed professionalism of a high order. She had a high service ethic, which she developed in the private tourism industry, and has transferred to her work in the professional environment where she is currently active. The clinical manner in which she responded to questions, augmented by her references to industry practice, formed the basis of her discourse cohesion.

**(l) Interviewee 12**

Interviewee 12's vocabulary is good: sentence structure colourful yet clear. Her responses varied from formal to informal, and were uttered in English and Afrikaans; the latter being her first language and language in which she teaches. As with other interviewees with industry experience, she contrasted her attitude with those who did not. She alluded to behavioural differences between herself as a tourism employee and a lecturer; the latter being calmer than the former.



Interviewee 12 was the only one who expressed openly feelings of cognitive dissonance about working at college. With employment stability, she appeared to expect social, particularly financial, stability. The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses were the expressions of a person inherently happy with her choice to move into public TVET, but who struggles with negativity from some colleagues and students. Interviewee 12's discourse cohesion lay in the manner in which she contrasted negative and positive aspects of her experience.

**(m) Interviewee 13**

Interviewee 13's vocabulary is good and sentence structure coherent and clear. Xhosa was her first language but she responded fluently in English. The only indicator of her answering in her second language was the occasional unexpected pause, while thinking about the correct word to use, or prefixing her response with 'what is the word now'.

Like other interviewees, she reflected on her professional development at the college. Unlike other interviewees, she has not been exposed to a professional teaching qualification. Her frame of reference for her employment at a public TVET college did not meet the demands of TVET, but did accord with tourism research. Her personal discourse included both expressions of power and empowerment. Unlike the other interviewees, who used industry experience as a source of power, her perceived source of power was research.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses were different to those of any of the other professionals interviewed before. The schemata, topic and point of the interviews presented so far were those of TVET teachers/lecturers but hers were those of a researcher. The confident manner in which she responded to questions formed the basis of her discourse cohesion.

**(n) Interviewee 14**

Interviewee 14 is eloquent. Her vocabulary and pronunciation are excellent: her sentence structure sound, lively and clear. As an interviewee, she is different from the others in that she did not have an (IT) industry background. She spent her working career in education but saw herself as an (IT) industry specialist. As a result, her discourse reflected a power struggle between her professional identity, an IT practitioner, education and the professional environment in which she operated. In addition to the discourse of power, she has come to terms with the direction her initial employment choices have taken her career. Her responses reflect a discourse of empowerment. In her case, empowerment has been the result of working with learners whom she respected, given her position, their age or financial capacity: 'I see myself as saving a student'. This is how she summarised her relation with students.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses involved expressions of enjoyment in being able to work with the two things that she loved: people and information technology. The cohesion of her discourse lay in the manner in which she expressed her somewhat contradictory situation.

**(o) Interviewee 15**

Interviewee 15's vocabulary is good and sentence structure clear but subdued and calculated. Like Interviewee 14, he linked his identity to the IT industry. Unlike her, however, whose development focus is on her learners, he focusses on colleagues and statistical analyses in the form of IQMS assessment information. Like her, he sees himself as an IT practitioner whose employment choices made him 'more employable on the lecturer side than the IT side'.

The schemata, topic and point that underlay her responses were expressions made by a person with high expectations of his own competence and one who is constantly involved in self-evaluation and self-development. The cohesion of his discourse lay in the succinctness of his answers.

## **4.4 RESPONSE TO AND ANALYSIS OF SCHEDULE OF QUESTIONS**

### **4.4.1 Reasons for joining the public TVET college sector**

There is no dominant pre-determined career route into public TVET colleges for lecturers involved with business-related subjects. This pattern does tend to occur in engineering and hair care where an apprenticeship is required for professional accreditation. No two people interviewed had the same career route into the public TVET sector. There are, however, similarities between individuals involved. Two general factors influence choice of employment in public TVET colleges. Some entered the public TVET sector for reasons linked to their chosen career paths. Others made the choice based on labour market dynamics. Some generalised patterns can be observed from choices made, yet each business sector had its own peculiarities. For lecturers of Business Studies, their knowledge was perceived as their speciality, their source of power: its application at colleges was a career option. The IT group was similar, but, unlike the business studies group, who saw themselves as lecturers, the IT group considered themselves as IT practitioners. For IT practitioners, their identity was their source of power. Their career paths, as one said, made them 'more employable on the lecturer side than the IT side'. The catering and tourism groups regarded themselves as industry specialists who had made a career shift from being industry practitioners to college lecturers. Like IT specialists, their background gave them power within colleges. Unlike IT specialists, power was not derived from mere identity, it was derived from what they called 'industry experience'.

For those whose choice to enter the public TVET sector can be attributed to individual career paths, a number of differences are identifiable. The majority of interviewees moved from industry to education. From those who moved from industry practice to TVET, some moved directly from full-time work in industry to a public TVET college. Others first acquired part-time employment in private colleges or the non-governmental sector. For these people, the move to colleges was perceived as career path realignment; a move from industry to education.

Four interviewees moved directly from university; one after graduation and the other three after some graduate work. In contrast to individuals who have experience in practice, for these interviewees the term *industry* tends to mean industrial knowledge. The choice of finding employment in public TVET colleges was generally an initial career choice. The two interviewees who moved from one public TVET college to another soon after being employed fell into the same category. They made an initial career choice soon after entering the labour market and realised that the initial one was incorrect. For these people, career improvement opportunities within the sector, were evident.

A number of interviewees who entered public TVET colleges were previously employed at private colleges. One interviewee's part-time route involved evening work; while another's involved oscillating between industry and college. Employment conditions at private colleges were less stable than at public TVET colleges. Private colleges, therefore, served as career advancement to the education sector as a whole.

One interviewee moved from schooling to a public TVET college and is, to a certain extent, an anomaly. Although she had spent her working career in education, she perceived herself to be a practitioner. This interviewee does, however, share a career path with another IT lecturer. They consider themselves as working in one career environment when they are, in fact, employed in another.

Market dynamics constitute a common reason for entering public TVET colleges. Career realignment was commonly noted as a reason for entry. All interviewees, to some extent, expressed career alignment as a key factor. For some, the positive realignment of their careers is more noticeable than others. Job loss or lack of job opportunities commonly appeared as a reason for entry. One person indicated entry into public TVET colleges resulted from retrenchment in the 1990s. Two indicated responses that can be attributed to not finding work of choice in the business sector they selected. For a number of interviewees, six out of the fifteen, family background influenced initial employment choice in education.

Two key factors appear to dominate college selection process as reported by HR. The first demonstrates personal interests; the second is an indication of competency. Lack of teaching competency or a professional educator qualification was accepted as an inherent challenge by all three colleges which had contingency plans in place to deal with the lack of professional qualification. Two colleges provided a written resource manual while the third college's training officer made it known that she was available to provide information on classroom practice, when new lecturers 'come to you to say we need help'. All the colleges accepted, and trusted, that informal mentoring takes place. While college management regarded the lack of teaching qualifications or experience as weakness, interviewees did not. Interviewees regarded things like knowledge, business experience and identity as sources of power.

#### **4.2.2 Existence of formal institutional mentoring programme**

All lecturer interviewees indicated that none of the colleges provided a formal mentoring programme, which was corroborated by the human resource managers. But all colleges had induction programmes: one of the three included an introduction to teaching methods in their induction programme. The majority of interviewees did not mention institutional induction programmes and those that did so only in passing or negatively.

All three human resource managers confirmed that the college lacked any formal mentoring programmes for new staff. All three were aware of mentoring as a staff development practice: two of the three confirmed that the institution of formal mentoring processes was under consideration. All three human resource managers spoke comprehensively about mentoring practices. Two indicated that mentoring was the task of the new lecturer's line manager. One spoke positively about how line managers carried out a mentoring role in the college, which was corroborated by lecturers of that college. Another college's human resource manager spoke negatively about mentoring by line managers. All human resource managers noted that some line managers failed to provide mentoring. One human resource manager expressed his opinion:

*[line managers] don't have time, they don't have space you know and ... they're not willing to basically give. ... you get some programme managers that's very supportive, very willing but, yeah, it's not a formal process, you know, so they say 'I'll give you time but I am busy you know'. So every time you go to them you think I'm being a burden.*

All human resource managers discussed the possibility of including mentoring in line managers' performance appraisal. Human resource managers asserted that line managers acted as mentors. This assertion was corroborated by lecturers interviewed. In cases where mentor figures are mentioned by lecturers, the mentor figure tends to take the form of a line manager with whom a reliable relation was developed. In cases where institutional mentoring was not noted, little or no mention was made about line managers. Effective, institution-led, mentoring occurred where there was a line manager who took care to welcome new staff, to introduce them to the job and job environment, and to monitor their growth in competence in a sustained developmental manner.

At the college where line manager mentor profiles did not feature, peer and self-mentoring featured in interviews with both lecturers and the human resource managers. One human resource manager in particular noted that: 'a lot of their learning comes from observation, it comes from peer observation'.

The human resource manager noted how lecturers developmentally interacted, stating that it was not uncommon for a lecturer to respond to her advice by demonstrating what they picked up from other sources. At that college interviewees lecturers, covering four programmes and two campuses, spoke at length about how they learnt from colleagues, friends and members of their family.

The absence of mentoring programmes was clearly perceived as a systemic weakness for human resource managers, which accounts for their discussions on roles and challenges faced by line managers. The absence of mentoring programmes did not appear to be a shortcoming for lecturers. Interviewees saw themselves as their own mentors. A systemic shortcoming therefore gave

interviewees power: to be confident enough to argue that they were responsible for their own development.

One conclusion about mentoring that could be drawn reliably from all interviews is that successful mentoring is driven by the mentee. Lecturers used themselves as reference points only. Human resource managers indicated how others facilitated lecturer development and how the college provided the environment and resources for lecturer growth.

#### **4.4.3 Collegial inputs in lecturer development**

All three human resource managers<sup>33</sup> emphasised the importance of collegial inputs. For interviewees, inputs from colleagues differed from non-existent to close interaction. Those who indicated that they had been employed on a part-time or contract basis made mention of no collegial inputs when employed part-time or on contract. Some interviewees were specialists who operated in some departments where the programme had a different focus. This was the case for one business specialist teaching on an art-related programme. In such cases collegial involvement largely took the form of advice on administrative matters. This pattern was noticed where a programme consisted of subjects where each required its own specialist. In this study two IT specialists were a case in point.

Peer mentoring occurred when employees formed part of a related teaching team or were paired with others, even if this was coincidental as in sharing an office. Part of the interviewee cohort mentioned that some colleagues indicated they were available if needed. Some indicated how they learnt from colleagues by asking questions, procuring copies of educational resources and sitting in on their lessons. One went into detail on the developmental value of sharing an office with an experienced colleague.

Developmental collegial inputs were not necessarily always positive: interviewees spoke about the developmental results of a lack of inputs or negative inputs. One interviewee provided a telling monologue on the developmental results of negative

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<sup>33</sup> Indicated earlier.

collegial inputs. The person noted that she was the only lecturer in the department who did not have a teaching qualification, which, in her view, resulted in colleagues having a 'negative idea' of her. The feeling that there was a negative attitude amongst colleagues towards her, made her work harder, with a determination to perform better than colleagues.

Another indicator of negative collegial inputs was intradepartmental politics. One person spoke about the tendency of some colleagues to carp and complain at meetings. Another phrased it as 'office politics'. While there were doubtless those who left the public TVET college sector for this reason, the interviewees who mentioned these forms of negative inputs demonstrated how their attempts to ignore or circumvent the expressions contributed positively towards their own work-related focus. One indicated that he stayed out of the general office. Another indicated that she decided to 'just continue' with the realisation that lecturing was what she wanted to do.

For interviewees, peer involvement, whether positive or negative, could be empowering.

#### **4.4.4 Own involvement in lecturer development**

Significantly, once in the classroom, lecturers were alone, irrespective of the extent of collegial support received. The expressions 'on my own' and 'sink or swim' permeated most interviews, indicating the inherent need for reflection and self-mentoring.

All interviewees differentiated between inputs of others, on the one hand, and taking responsibility for their classroom-based performance on the other. Ownership of development as a lecturer was a key aspect of all interviews. All interviewees spoke at length about how they orchestrated their development: be it interaction with colleges or doing courses. All interviewees desired success, even though they were not necessarily sure of how to achieve it. The drive for success is what appeared to motivate the interviewees to analyse and interpret documents, ask (or not ask)



questions and reflect on their performance. All lecturers argued that their own efforts were key to their own development and a source of power.

#### **4.4.5 Factors or instances preventing development**

With the exception of one interviewee, all expressed a positive attitude towards their place of employment. The interviewee who expressed a negative attitude was specifically exploring new career opportunities and was able to do so as a result of her development at the college despite the lack of a teaching qualification.

Despite the generally positive attitude, all could indicate demotivating factors. Some mentioned demotivating factors by referring to previous employers. Others were able to identify demotivating factors at their current place of employment.

Two interviewees cited geographical factors as demotivating. Both discussed geographical factors as reasons for leaving their previous places of employment. One suggested that the campus of the college where she was based lacked sufficient resources. The second noted the lack of social life as a reason for seeking employment at a city-based college.

A number of interviewees noted structural issues at college as factors that repressed development. Two spoke about being on short-term contracts and concomitant difficulties such as lack of job security or perks. Managerial aspects were mentioned as negative factors. One interviewee spoke candidly about a lack of management support; another mentioned staff inefficiencies.

Interpersonal factors were reported in a number of interviews as obstructing factors. In some cases negative interpersonal communication was linked to management and structural communication; one individual indicated that he refused to walk through the administration office. Another interviewee spoke about knowing 'who's your allies [sic]'. In many cases negativity from interpersonal communication was restricted to communication between interviewees and other members of staff. In two cases, negativity linked to interpersonal communication was merely the result of the interviewee being present when others expressed negative views. One noted,

generally, that people make negative comments in the presence of a new member of staff, which is demotivating. In meetings, another indicated, members of staff 'would sit and moan', resulting in being 'very demotivated for months'. She indicated the impact of others on her attitude as follows:

*I would sit in meetings, people would complain, people would sit and moan and I would sit and say 'jasus' I would long to have your job and that demotivated me a lot because I would actually sit and say do I want to go into education. ... Do I want to go into education? Is this what I'm going to work with for the rest of my life? Is this really what I want? So, so there was a time I think and I'm going to, I think it was in the June holiday I can remember, I was very demotivated for months and I was depressed actually. It got to that extent when I was, I was depressed because the way people around me, so whenever I came to work the people around me would always ask: Why must we do this? What is happening? Why is that happening because so I was demotivated for a time and I asked myself the question a lot of time and I even had to take it home with me and I would sit and I would think do I want to be here? Is this what I'm actually going to have to go through for a lot of, I mean all my life. And funny enough I um, I got to speak to somebody on my, as one of my colleagues and, and that person actually encouraged me and said don't let them get you down.*

Inhibiting factors were not perceived as a lack of power: all lecturers interviewed stated that inhibiting factors were factors that were identified, addressed and overcome. All who noted negative aspects were able to identify ways that the negative issues could be regarded as challenges to be met positively.

#### **4.4.6 Extent to which it is possible for the individual to make a difference to the institution**

Most highlighted the importance of making a difference or contributing towards student success. Student results were regarded as a key factor while others spoke about helping students, with advice, in one case, or transport, in another. Most

interviewees perceived student results to be linked to teaching ability, while help was linked to a perception of student trust. Additional work and involvement in special projects were appreciated as a way of making a difference. Being given additional work was regarded as a sign of recognised competency, while involvement in projects exhibited trust and managerial ability.

One person identified that availability of new opportunities was an indication of making a difference. This interviewee, after contrasting her skills to those of qualified educators, noted that she reached a point where she was able to leave the college and open her own educational institution.

Two interviewees, both graduate students, argued that employment at a TVET college provided career path opportunities. Success in the college classroom, in addition to an advance qualification, was in their opinion, a route to employment in higher education. Both recognised employment in colleges as the first phase of a career process.

#### **4.4.7 Other issues**

During the interviews, a number of issues related to mentoring and development were highlighted. There was no articulated perception of identity or identity shift. One assumption made prior to interviews, was that college lecturers would share an identity. In contrast to prior assumptions, however, some interviewees regarded themselves as teachers, considering themselves teachers with TVET areas of specialisation. These interviewees did not regard themselves as different to teachers. Some noted that their decision to seek employment at colleges was driven by other members of their family having worked in education. Some spoke about education being in their *blood* or family. Others thought of themselves as practitioners who exercised their expertise in the TVET college sector. One IT practitioner noted that he had 'accumulated experience ... [becoming] ... more employable on the lecturer side than the IT side'. Some alluded to identity parity: one catering lecturer viewed himself as a chef and felt that there was little difference between cheffing and teaching, arguing that 'a good chef is a good teacher'. Two

others implied that cooking, training and education are interrelated. Employment in education granted status and social power.

The importance of practice and experience in what interviewees called *industry* emanated from all interviews where individual lecturer credibility was raised as an issue. Those who had industry experience mentioned it, at length. Those who did not, claimed that they gained industry-related competence through study and experience within the college. One individual, who did not have industry experience, noted her resistance to attaining a professional teaching qualification. Antagonism towards being perceived as a teacher was, however, only one interviewee's perception. Power of industry experience was common to all who had such experience. Only one interviewee, who had not industry experience, felt that being a teacher was negative.

Working conditions were noted by a number of interviewees as a reason for moving from industry to TVET colleges. Interviewees who moved from the catering industry tended to cite hours of work as the main reason for doing so. Those in the tourism industry cited income as a main reason for seeking employment in the public TVET sector. Conditions of service were mentioned as a reason for moving between colleges, especially the choice of moving from colleges in rural areas to those located in urban areas. Status and its related forms of social power, like employment in education, provided interviewees with stability that the industry from which they came could not.

Development of skills required to operate as a college lecturer did not follow any predictable or set pattern. Each person's development process was different yet two general patterns appeared. Some tended to learn with, and from, collegial interaction while others developed from working alone. Some worked alone by choice. Others did so as a result of college or department interpersonal dynamics. Some worked in groups out of their own choice, while others enjoyed collaborative work through shortage of space.

## **4.5 ARCHAEOLOGY AND GENEALOGY**

From interpretations included in the previous section, a number of surfaces of emergence appear. Some are generic to all interviewees while others are specific to groups of interviewees or peculiar to specific individuals.

### **4.5.1 The archaeology and genealogy of the business studies group**

From this group, two significant surface emergences appear. The first is the recognition of the need to survive in a post, within a programme and at a particular institution. To ensure their survival, all studied further and solicited help from people willing to assist. All interviewees indicated that they had helpful colleagues. Interviewees 1 and 5 solicited the help of family members, while Interviewees 2, 3 and 4 developed mutually beneficial friendships at work. The complexity of the task, demands of the institution and students permeate interviews.

The second surface emergence is the realisation of the importance of building and developing healthy, constructive relations. As was noted in the explanations of the interviews, all interviewees showed that they had to master required learning content, methods and administration simultaneously. Each one did this by means of a self-crafted web of information sources. The second surface emergence is linked to the lines of authority within which they operate: some of which are imposed, some ignored and others chosen by them. The links between themselves and their line managers have an impact on how they fit in and their perception of their own performance. Lines of authority emerge between them and their colleagues which tend to be informal and self-selected.

Delimitations, primarily negative delimitations, emerge partly from communication via the institution's informal organisation, in which expressions of negativity in meetings or during informal communication have a deleterious effect. Delimitations are experienced from the functioning of the institution's bureaucracy. All interviewees specified that line management and collegial influences, both positive and negative, constitute motivational and demotivating factors. One interviewee mentioned that he

made a point of not going into the administration office for a significant period of time, so as to avoid contact with certain colleagues and their negative influences on him.

Of the five interviews, three grids of specification emerge, or conclusions are drawn. The first is survival, the second is building sound relations and the third is the realisation that success will be determined by the extent to which they take ownership of, and are responsible for, the life choice that they have made. The local memory that interviewees drew on is primarily their own reflective memory, augmented by what they gleaned from others. All interviewees elevated this memory to a state of knowledge; all being able to defend their views as fact, or to use Foucault's terms, erudite knowledge.

All interviewees provided explanations of interpersonal relations and constraints. Such relations include vertical relations between themselves and line managers, horizontal relations with peers and, not to be ignored, relations between each other. There are a variety of entry stimuli and long-term goals, but the single factor that binds this group of interviewees is their general interest in teaching business to learners who have an interest in business careers. Interviewee 1 moved through voluntary and administrative posts to reach her present position. Interviewee 2 regarded himself as a business specialist who, as part of his post-studies analysis of the labour market, considered colleges as one of a range of potential employers. Interviewee 3 considered work at colleges as a way of regaining a link with people; while Interviewee 4 regards it as a step in an academic career. Interviewee 5 moved to colleges because he was unhappy with his initial study and career choices. All of the participants demonstrated that they had found a career niche in college education. To succeed, they all confided that they were mentored by those in authority, by colleagues and by each other.

The acquisition of a career niche appears to be the overriding factor that makes it possible for them to overcome the knowledge, didactic and bureaucratic constraints that challenged or soured their continued employment as TVET college lecturers. A mix of supervisor, peer and self-mentoring can be identified from the interviewees, yet each individual experienced his/her own particular kind of mix. Interviewee 1 was mentored by experienced staff who had an interest in her work; interviewees 2 and 4

formed part of a group of new lecturers and interviewees 3 and 5 were mentored by supervisors and peers. Interviewee 5's peer group went beyond the confines of the workplace and was extended to what he called a *network* that included a member of his family. All interviewees note their own reflective involvement in their development; some in passing and others by specific analysis. One interviewee cited her *fast learning* abilities and another invoked a *honey bee* analogy. In reflecting on the influence of others on their initial development, interviewees cited the developmental value of both positive and negative inputs.

It is not possible finally to determine whether or not, or how, this group would have learnt differently if formally recognised mentors had been assigned to them or if they had been exposed to a prescribed mentoring programme. What can be determined from this group of interviewees are patterns of mentoring which formed without the assignment of mentors or the existence of mentoring programmes. A further point that emerges from this group of interviewees is how mentees learnt and who they learn from. Mentoring in this instance was a demonstrably personal learning process. The lecturers, mentees in their development process, chose who to learn from; they filtered and interpreted inputs from others and then decided what to learn from the inputs.

#### **4.5.2 The archaeology and genealogy of the catering studies group**

From this group, similar to the business studies group, survival in the new work environment is a significant surface emergence. Survival, *sinking and swimming* analogies, were used by the interviewees generally. A second surface emergence is related to reasons for entering the public TVET college sector. One interviewee used the word 'hard' to describe working life in the catering industry. Another indicated that it was not conducive to having a family. A third simply noted that she had to 'get out of that'. In addition to physical working conditions, remuneration was noted as a primary reason for entering the public TVET college sector. In contrast to the view expressed by human resource manager C, that the private sector provides higher levels of income, income at public TVET colleges, in the interviewees' experience, is perceived by lecturers to be better and more stable than in the catering industry.

A third surface emergence<sup>34</sup> is a dual interest: an interest in catering, on the one hand, and teaching, on the other. One interviewee claimed that teaching was an option available to her on leaving school; the other three mentioned an interest in teaching or an aptitude for it. A fourth surface emergence, which manifested itself in the third catering interview, was an indicator of future prospects. The other three interviewees' focus fell on the classroom and their interaction with students. The fourth interviewee's focus shifted to promotion prospects. She felt that promotion prospects were not good, partly because she did not have a teaching qualification, but primarily because, as she put it 'I will never get a level two post because my programme manager is going nowhere'.

Unlike the business studies group, where lines of authority do not transcend parameters of the institution at which they are employed, for the catering group, lines of authority determined by the college coexist with lines of authority associated with the catering industry. The two interviewees indicated that the two industries were similar: one noted that 'a good chef is a good teacher'. A third explained that her interest in finding work at a college was the result of acquaintances made during an assessor course. All spoke at length about knowledge, the need to share and collegiality as success factors. All spoke at length about lack of collegiality and the need for it. All spoke about love for, and enjoyment of, cooking as a motivator. Two cited interpersonal conflict and individual selfishness at colleges as limitations.

The grids of specification identified from this group are, in some respects, similar to the business studies group, but different in others. The need to survive the college environment is similar to that of the business studies group. In contrast to the business studies group, however, their experiences in the catering industry, and their enjoyment of food and cooking, have created an attitude of survival.

A number of forms of local memory were drawn on by interviewees. One was their own experience; the catering interviews tended to be longer than the others and included a significant explanation of own work experience. A second source of local memory was that of industry practice. A third spoke of personal work enjoyment: the word *love* was used repeatedly with reference to cooking.

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<sup>34</sup> This also occurs with the tourism interviews that follow.



From the forms of local memory, various types of knowledge could be identified. The form of knowledge that predominates is that which is gleaned from the catering industry as a whole. This kind of knowledge is developed out of the discipline required by the industry and the hierarchy within the industry. All interviewees could explain their industry identity, such as a chef or catering manager. From knowledge developed out of the industry's discipline, emanated individual knowledge, order, collegial knowledge and knowledge required by students. Just as identity within the industry defined individuals, their need to improve their qualifications was a greater driving force than for any of the other groups of interviewees. Once again, the focus on qualifications and upward mobility can be attributed to the hierarchical structure of the catering industry.

Relations and constraints experienced by this group emanate from the convergence of two industries. On the one hand, there is the catering industry, in which sharing of knowledge is perceived to be in the interest of collective development; both a management and staff development function. On the other hand, there is education, where educator content knowledge is not readily shared.

Collegial relations in the two employment sectors differed. Work relations in catering, in the experience of the interviewees, tend to be characterised by collegial relations, whereas those in education are characterised by individual actions with outcomes that are not shared. For the interviewees, time demands tend to be the most significant constraint in the catering industry; whereas in education it appears to be the acquisition of information from colleagues.

For this group, a number of forms of mentoring converge. One form of mentoring could be described as subject mentoring which involves the application of their catering knowledge. This is provided by line managers and colleagues who know the two industries. A second form of mentoring involves the development of skills required to survive the bureaucratic education environment. This should be a line function but appears to be carried out by various people. One interviewee spoke about the person with whom she shared an office. Another indicated that he had to

'interview' experienced staff to gain the information he required. All interviews from this group allude to the need for self-reflection and self-mentoring.

#### **4.5.3 The archaeology and genealogy of the tourism group**

The surfaces of emergence for the tourism group are similar to those of the catering group in some distinct respects. Like the catering group, industry requirements are a determining factor when it comes to learning decisions. One interviewee explained:

*I don't see my students as my customers. I still see the industry as my customer and I have to give them a product which is my students that is usable to them.*

A significant difference, however, between the tourism group and the catering group is the lack of industry stratification. Unlike the catering industry, where the status of chef or catering manager appeared to be critical, for this second group, industry experience appeared to be what was of importance. Interviewees involved in this study gained their experience from a wide range of occupations: public transport, private tourism, local government and tourism research.

As with the view of catering lecturers, HRA and HRC regarded working hours and remuneration as triggers for moving from tourism practice to tourism education. One interviewee indicated that his decision to seek employment in education followed retrenchment. For others, a change from private education was a move caused by a desire for greater financial stability. One interviewee stated that her decision to move into public TVET colleges from the private college was based on income potential. The fourth interviewee remarked that she accepted a post at her current place of employment while actually wanting to work in higher education. Of all the groups of interviewees, this group has the highest proportion of professionals who preferred historic or specific career reasons for seeking work in education. One interviewee claimed that education was his initial career choice. A second indicated that family members were employed in education. A third considered employment at public TVET colleges as a step towards an academic teaching career.

A surface emergence that occurred within this group alone was its criticism of students with whom they worked. One business studies interviewee indicated, with a positive attitude, that 'we are social workers, we are policemen and women, we are bankers'. One tourism interviewee referred to needy students as 'ungrateful'. Student neediness and negativity were regarded as motivation to one lecturer but as a negative factor for another. Whether the difference in perception of students may be linked to individual attitude, campus or college dynamics is open to conjecture.

Collegial relations feature strongly in this group. All spoke in detail about the influence of experienced and senior staff employed on the programme: one spoke of how she now mentors new staff. Two spoke about collegial involvement in positive and negative terms. One averred, 'the fellowship, it's there'. Both interviewees who spoke at length about collegial involvement suggested that some staff do not support a collegial approach. One spoke generally about the kind of person who does not share; while the other expressed the view that such people are either scared of being perceived as stupid 'or just plain selfish'.

The forms of knowledge that emanate from this group, like the surfaces of emergence, are similar to those of the catering group. Some form of industry qualification is a given for employment at public TVET colleges but the type of qualification does not appear to be especially significant. Valuable knowledge is what the interviewees call *industry experience*: research is indicated as another form of valued learning.

Relations and constraints experienced by this group, and their counterparts from the catering industry, emanate from the convergence of two industries. On the one hand, there is the tourism industry, in which sharing knowledge is perceived to be of advantage to collective development: it is part of a management and staff development function. On the other hand, there are TVET colleges, where educator content knowledge is not readily shared. Two interviewees who addressed the issue differentiated between those employees who had industry experience and are collegial, and those who lacked it and were uncollegial.

For this group, the same forms of mentoring were identified as found in the analysis of interviewees from the catering industry. One form of mentoring could be described as subject mentoring, which involves the application of their tourism knowledge. This is provided by line managers and colleagues who know the two industries. The tourism group's line managers feature more strongly than the catering group's. The most likely reason for the difference is the comparatively stratified nature of the catering industry. A second form of mentoring in the group involves development of skills required to survive bureaucratic regulation. This should be a line function. From those interviewed, it proved to be a function carried out by line managers. Self-reflection and self-mentoring featured but less strongly when compared to the previous two groups of interviewees. Self-mentoring was mentioned by Interviewee 13 in her monologue on research.

A factor peculiar to the tourism group of lecturers is the importance of work experience. With the exception of the employed graduate student, who perceives research to be the primary proof of success, practical experience is perceived to be the key factor in success, and the factor that binds tourism lecturers together.

#### **4.5.4 The archaeology and genealogy of the information technology group**

From this group, two significant surfaces of emergence appear: they form the basis of their attitude to work, lines of authority, relations with others and, as a result, delimitations imposed on them by their work environment. First, IT lecturers see their own specialist knowledge as important. Second, they consider themselves to be part of a team of specialists, each with a specific knowledge set. Perception of themselves as a team of specialists creates perceptions of the lines of authority within which they operate. They perceive two lines of authority. The one line of authority links them and their students within the IT knowledge framework. The second line of authority is between them and the institution within which they work. In addition to providing lines of communication, the dual lines of authority provide delimitations for performance and, ultimately, grids of specification applicable to their operational behaviour.

The local memory that the IT interviewees draw on, is their own personal memory. As a result, they rely strongly on themselves as a form of knowledge, underwritten by the knowledge acquired from their qualifications. Unlike any of the other groups, the IT lecturers focus strongly on their students as a source of knowledge. Interviewee 14 indicated that she did so because, at her first place of employment, students were mature. In her second they had items of technology and expected her to be able to work with these. The second lecturer used the IQMS statistics to assess his classroom-related work which formed the basis for improvement. Both members of this group did use collegial inputs, but, as interviewee 15 remarked, limited them to 'the administrative side'.

This group identifies three relations, each with its own constraints. The first is with colleagues on the programme or department within which they work. Colleagues have mutual respect for each other and regard each other as specialists in a related field. As such, their relations are constrained by a lack of knowledge of colleagues' area of specialisation. They are therefore limited to matters relating to subject complementarity and programme administration.

A second set of relations involves students with whom they share a common understanding of information technology and whom they both teach and learn from. Relations with students are, however, constrained by power relations that teachers/lecturers sustain with students. A third set of relations is between them and college management. They appear to be respected as IT specialists and left to practise as such. At least one of the interviewees expressed the lack of an educational qualification as a definite constraint.

For this group, external mentoring is not expected: external mentoring would be of little benefit other than to support administrative aspects of their work. For this group, therefore, the freedom to choose any particular mode of mentoring is a personal exercise in which they determine who will mentor them about any particular aspect of their work.

In summary, six surfaces of emergence appear. Some are found in all interviews, others are linked to the groups, primarily industry groups with which interviewees are

associated. The six surfaces of emergence are survival, the need to develop and build relations, taking ownership of development, the need to move out of industry, dual interest and criticism of students. Table 5, below, indicates the surfaces of emergence.

**Table 5: Summary of surfaces of emergence**

<b>INDUSTRY GROUP</b>	Survival	Relation- ships	Taking Ownership	Need To Move	Dual Interest	Criticism Of Students
Business Studies	X	X	X		X	
Catering	X	X	X	X	X	
Tourism	X	X	X	X	X	X
Information Technology			X	X	X	

#### 4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an explanation, analysis and conceptualisation of interviews conducted in the course of this study. It provided information on the nature of mentoring gleaned from interviews with lecturers and selected managers in public vocational institutions in South Africa's Western Cape. Interviewees demonstrated that colleges had no formal mentoring programmes, but that of mentoring systems were in fact evident and effective. Partly as a result of the absence of formal mentoring programmes, but largely as a result of new staff members' own perceived needs, mentoring was driven by the individuals themselves who were entering the public TVET college sector.

From the information drawn from interviews, it can be concluded that mentoring, at least in the sample cohort, is a process that is largely selected and constructed by individual employees who require mentoring. Unlike some of the studies included in the literature review (Healy, 1989: 32; Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Golden & Sims 1999; Bleach, 1999; Mostert, 2003) mentor/mentee matches were not a constraint, simply because mentors were not allocated. Unlike TVET college lecturers' counterparts from the United Kingdom (Lucas & Unwin, 2009), those interviewed in this investigation were not constrained by the contents of mentoring imposed from above.

This study<sup>35</sup> provides analysis of how mentees themselves integrate the inputs of various mentoring agencies in their own discretion. As such, this study constitutes an examination of the case of 15 lecturers in terms of what may be called self-driven mentoring or post-neoliberal professional mentoring. Post neo-liberal mentoring is mentee-driven. It contrasts with the neo-liberal mentoring, in which the point of power is located in the mentor, as a representative of management of the organisation to which new staff is being introduced (Kobeleva & Strongman, 2010: 8), and one in which the state- or employer-appointed mentor acts as, to paraphrase Mooney Simmie (2012), a *pied piper*.

The chapter that follows indicates general and industry-specific surface emergences that crossed industries. The chapter provides an analysis of each question, drawing the questions toward this study's primary question.

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<sup>35</sup> Indicated at the end of the previous chapter.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **MENTORING SYSTEM AND RELATED DISCURSIVE PRACTICES**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter 4 responses were structured by interviews and analysed within surfaces of emergence linked to relations and constraints of the industrial sector within which each interview was associated. There are, however, general and industry-specific surface emergences that crossed industries. This chapter provides an analysis of each question, drawing the questions toward this study's primary question. Section 5.3 of this chapter provides a summary of the profile of mentoring in the colleges that formed part of this study. 5.3 provides an analysis of the questions posed to the interviewed, indicating the nature of the mentoring system and forms of mentoring identified by the study, as well as the interplay of discursive practice and power.

#### **5.2 MENTORING PROFILES**

This study proves unambiguously that there is a lack of formal mentoring programmes in TVET in South Africa, as described in mentoring publications and as practised in other education sectors. The absence of mentoring programmes does not, however, suggest that mentoring does not take place in other forms as a skills development process at the public TVET colleges that formed part of this study. Mentoring, as a mechanism for developing skills of lecturers at public TVET colleges in South Africa is informal and an integral part of new lecturer skills development. Because it is informal and integrated into skills development of new lecturers, it is driven by new lecturers themselves and not the institution into which they are being integrated.

Mentoring, from the perspective of those individuals interviewed, is a self-driven, informal, yet conscious process in which an individual identifies competency gaps and learning required: then selects experts and other resources that will contribute towards the closure of the identified competency gap in learning required. This understanding of mentoring contrasts with commonly perceived definitions and descriptions which define mentoring as mentor-driven. Mentoring in practice at the



colleges from which the interviewees were drawn is mentee driven. Mentee-driven mentoring appears to suit those interviewees. It places the power of decision-making in their hands; not at the discretion of someone else who may or may not appreciate what skills are required.

The mentoring practice at the public TVET colleges interviewed as part of this study is a unique amalgam of three mentoring profiles. The first mentoring profile is performance by line managers, who are expected, at least in two of the three colleges that formed part of this project, to mentor new staff. At one college, the human resource manager indicated that mentoring was expected; in another it was regarded as an aim to work towards. Line managers are involved in mentoring new staff in the traditional one-on-one mentoring in which the mentor figure (line manager) guides the protégé (new lecturer) through the lecturer integration process. An alternative mentoring profile is one in which peer mentoring dominates. Where offices are shared, friendships are often created or where experienced staff shared information and monitored its assimilation, peer mentoring of a sort took place. Most interviewees indicated that they had made collegial friendships and learnt from colleagues. Some learnt from those with whom they shared offices.

The third mentoring profile, and one that is a dominant option of lecturers interviewed as part of this study, is that the development of skills of TVET college lecturers, is not supervisor or peer mentoring, but self-mentoring. Self-mentoring or self-driven mentoring appears to suit all the lecturers interviewed: it complements the environment into which they are entering and the dynamic nature of their work entry process. Self-mentoring is empowering.

Interviewees who took part in the study are, to varying degrees, practising professionals who took individually-oriented decisions to move into TVET colleges. As a result, each individual has a unique selection of development needs that require individual development focus. All interviewees were acutely aware of their own development needs and utilised opportunities to satisfy the needs they identified.

The individual development nature of those interviewed as part of this study is clearly illustrated by their entry route. The sub-sector of colleges from which interviewees

were drawn are unlike school teachers, who tend to move into a school directly after graduating, or TVET college lecturers involved in engineering where entry follows an apprenticeship and work linked to the apprenticeship. In the case of those interviewed, six different routes into their current place of employment could be identified. The entry routes are:

- Industry to college;
- School to college;
- Part-time to full-time;
- Private college to public TVET college;
- Public TVET College to public TVET college;
- University to College, with the intention to move back to university;
- University to College, with the intention of developing a career in TVET colleges.

In addition to a number of entry paths, three distinct but significantly different reasons for joining the public TVET college sector emanate from the interviews. Some joined the public college sector for what can be described as career alignment or realignment. Examples of career alignment and realignment include working hours and, in one case, related family pressure. Examples of career alignment are found when lecturers left one place of employment in education, either a private or rural public TVET college, and moved to another. A key factor linked to career realignment is labour market dynamics. A number of interviewees, particularly those in catering and tourism, spoke about working hours and the transient nature of the employment market they found themselves in. Once again, two interviewees, who worked in the catering industry, emphasised time demands made on them. Not only does each individual have different development needs; each of the profiles listed above has a different set of development needs.

Two further, and partially related, paths into public TVET colleges were loss of work and the inability to find work. The example of loss of work was stated categorically by one interviewee as retrenchment. Descriptions of entry suggested inability to find work: it was worded around other positive arguments. Such arguments include the

appeal of the public TVET college sector and gaining experience that redirected career aims and objectives.

New lecturers are demonstratively influenced not only by factors internal to the environment that they are entering. They are influenced by the dynamics of the social environments from which they come and what Engeström (Engeström, Miettinen & Punamaki, 1999; Tuomi-Gröhn, Engeström & Young in Tuomi-Gröhn & Engeström, 2007: 5) calls boundary crossing. In the TVET college classroom, boundary crossing commonly occurs where content from the workplace is applied or analogised in the classroom. By being, or perceiving themselves, as practitioners, TVET lecturers have at least two communities: each one with its own distinctive discursive practice. One is the college where they operate, the other the industry from where they originate and to where their graduates go.

### **5.3 RESPONSE TO THE PRIMARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In chapter 1, it was noted that this study proposed an answer to the research question:

*In what ways do mentoring processes in a college contribute to the incorporation of staff into a college?*

Following on the primary research question, this study sought to identify the nature of mentoring in selected TVET colleges as far as it contributes towards the reproduction of staff involved in learning facilitation, teaching, in the vocationally aligned technical and vocational education and training sector. From the primary question, the following sub-questions were identified:

- What are the nature and structure of a mentoring system?
- In what forms is mentoring manifested?
- How are sector- or institution-specific language used in the organisation?
- How is institutional power reflected in the discourses used?

Lecturers interviewed as part of this study regard a decision to move into colleges and their subsequent development as an individual act. Having, or perceiving to have, control over the process is, for them, empowering.

### **5.3.1 The mentoring system**

In the sample used for this study, no formal mentoring system existed. The absence of a formal mentoring system does not, however, mean that no effective mentoring system exists. Largely informal and mentee-driven elements can be found in a classic description of a social system, namely in social institutions and social forces (Idenburg, 1975). Similar elements occur in contemporary descriptions associated with activity theory (Engestrom, 1987) in so far as that there was a division of labour, tools appropriate to the work carried out and rules determining behaviour.

Social institutions include the places where the interviewees studied, where they had worked and where they are currently employed. Social forces include the individuals who manage them, peers, friends and family. How each person developed as a college lecturer was determined largely by the dynamics of the individual social institutions and the social forces within them. The division of labour, social rules and tools of the trade of each social environment served as social bench-marks for individual behaviour. Business studies lecturers considered themselves as content specialists, using studies as the basis of their competency. IT specialists had a similar perception but added to theoretical content, was technical knowledge. Technical knowledge and skills learnt in industry were seen as essential for the catering and tourism groups of interviewees.

In addition to knowledge, division of labour associated with the industries from which they came formed an integral part of the interviewees' development. The job-specialisation and stratification of the catering industry, determined whether a person was a chef or a catering manager, which influenced their behaviour. In contrast to the stratified catering industry, interviewees from the tourism industry expressed the cooperative attitude that characterised the tourism industry which was described by one interviewee as 'sharing is caring'.

While largely informal, at least from the perspective of those interviewed as part of this study, the mentoring system they were exposed to proved highly effective. In contrast to informal mentee-driven learning, structured mentoring in vocational education does not appear to have produced the desired results. In a report involving mentoring in vocational education, in the United Kingdom, where mentoring has been a structural requirement since 2003 (OFSTED, 2003), mentoring is critiqued as 'sometimes non-existent' (Lucas & Unwin, 2009: 430). In an article on in-service training for FE teachers, the U.K. equivalent of TVET lecturers, Lucas & Unwin (2009: 427-248) note that none of the learning logs, kept to provide information on evidence of learning, 'recorded an encounter with a mentor'. Lucas & Unwin (2009: 430) note further that members of their sample 'had been allocated a mentor [but], they rarely had contact with them'. Assignment of mentors evidenced inefficiency and lack of commitment. In one case a person had no support from an assigned mentor over a two-year period. In another case, a number of people had been assigned mentors but none was available. Lucas & Unwin's (2009) study demonstrates the shortcomings of a formal mentoring programme.

Lucas and Unwin's critique of mentoring finds compatibility in State Reports at the time. In 2008 OFSTED (2008: 5 in O'Connor, Marlow & Bisland, 2011: 223) noted that 'not all subject mentors had the understanding or skills to fulfil their training role to a high standard; others lacked the time they needed to carry out their role effectively'. Lucas and Unwin's critique of mentoring is congruent with studies from mentoring's application in other sectors of education (see Loots, 2007) and other social sectors (see Healy, 1989; Bleach, 1999), noted in chapter 2, in which challenges of mentor/mentee matching is reported. A recent study of a project for teachers in New York City (O'Connor, *et al.*, 2011: 229) followed the same critique: trainees argued that mentors should have been made more accountable for their mentoring tasks and spent more time with them.

The report of O'Connor *et al.*'s (2011: 229) study noted further that practising teachers who were not part of the project most valued 'information and support' (O'Connor *et al.*, 2011: 229); two qualities which were perceived by trainees as 'very valuable and make a difference' to their development. What O'Connor *et al.* (O'Connor *et al.*, 2011: 229) note as 'interesting' is in fact significant: formal

mentoring was not effective, but peer mentoring **was**. Because peers rated highly in providing support. Similarly, while mentoring imposed on the sample was not effective, self-mentoring **was** because mentees involved in O'Connor's study identified and sought the assistance of certain experts according to individual requirements, choice and self-development.

The mentee as driver was identified in Lucas and Unwin's (2009) study of further education in the United Kingdom. In their article, Lucas & Unwin (2009: 429) note that FE colleges do little to develop unqualified teaching staff, 'there is very little their colleges could do to improve the daily pressures put on teachers<sup>36</sup> in the form of students, inadequate funding, to recruit extra teachers, and the general problems faced by managers'. Lucas and Unwin (2009: 431) continue:

*it was clear from the interviews that the learning that takes place as part of everyday practice as teachers engage in what Engeström has termed the 'co-configuration' of new learning (with colleagues, students and others) occurs in spite of the restrictive nature of the workplace environment. The challenge for colleges is to render this learning more visible and, importantly, seek to create conditions that enable this learning to be fostered, sustained and enhanced.*

In critiquing mentoring, Lucas and Unwin (2009: 430) affirm the positive role played by line and programme managers in the development of new staff, often despite workload, logistical and interpersonal issues. This points to the logical place for formal mentoring or a line management function, not what economists call an *externality*, a cost or benefit that accrues to a party that is external to a transaction (McConnell & Brue, 2005: 80). In the case of mentoring, this may be retired or semi-retired individuals or those who have time available.

Another indicator emanating from Lucas and Unwin's (2009: 429-430) critique is the existence of communities of practice and the extent to which new staff are permitted or encouraged to draw or rely on the community: 'Teachers learn from and share

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<sup>36</sup> In the United Kingdom, learning facilitation staff are called teachers, not lecturers, as is the practice in South Africa.

ideas with a range of colleagues, including fellow trainees, as part of the social engagement involved in their everyday workplace practice' (Lucas & Unwin, 2009: 430). Webb *et al.* (2007: 179-181) noted in corroboration of Lucas and Unwin (2009), that membership of a community of practice forms one of the principles of what they call a *pedagogy for mentor education*. Webb *et al.* (2007: 180) suggest that membership of such a community is attained through participation in common practices towards shared aims and activities. This description is in line with understanding developed by Wenger (1998) and applied to education in various conditions including rural education in South Africa (Islam: 2012: 20-21) or further education in the United Kingdom (Gale, Turner & McKenzie, 2011). Since entry into, and continued existence of, a community of practice involves productive interaction with peers, peer and self-mentoring emerge as effective and coherent forms of mentoring.

A third factor emanating from Lucas and Unwin's (2009: 428-431) critique is the complexity of technical and vocational education institutions. The complexity of vocational education<sup>37</sup> has recently been reiterated by Gale, Turner & McKenzie (2011) in their analysis of scholarship and practice when higher education is offered at further educational institutions. The complexity of TVET was the underlying topic of a series of publications commissioned by the South African Human Science Research Council (HSRC) in publications by Crosser, McGrath, Badroodien and Maja (2003), Gamble (2003), Akoojee *et al.* (2005) and Young and Gamble (2006). The complexity of vocational education alone questions the applicability of any single preconceived mentoring process or programme aimed at incorporating new staff and developing their skills. The wide variety of knowledge and skills possessed by those who enter TVET colleges would require a matching range of forms and types of mentoring programmes, some with a pedagogy focus, others focused on content, and others on administration. In the absence of mentoring programmes<sup>38</sup>, interviewees who formed part of this study indicated their preference for a more flexible system of mentoring actuated by personal choice and freedom of association. Some focused on peers, others on inputs of line managers or their own abilities. Each individual tailored a set of issues which suggests that an informal self-driven

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<sup>37</sup> Addressed in chapter 2.

<sup>38</sup> As will be discussed in the next section.

mentoring system is more appropriate than formal pre-determined and inflexible programmes of mentoring.

### **5.3.2 Forms of mentoring**

There is no systemically required mentoring in South African public vocational education, as there is in the case of the U.K. (see OFSTED, 2003). Nor are there formal mentoring programmes at the colleges where interviews were conducted: yet mentoring still took place. There was an absence of outside influences determining the development of skills within departments or programmes within colleges but this study provided a comprehensive overview of the forms of mentoring that did take place and the factors that drove them. A number of forms of mentoring, and their drivers were noted earlier. Three forms of mentoring were observed: by managers, peer mentoring and self-mentoring. All these forms of mentoring evolved from individual skills development needs and were influenced by a number of social agents.

The majority of mentoring studies tended to report on, and analyse, mentoring programmes or management-driven mentoring. But in the colleges from where these interviews were drawn, mentoring was driven by the individuals themselves who required skills development. Mentoring in the context of this study was motivated by perceptions of the individual's own skills development process. Mentoring was shaped by the industry from which the individual came and for which students are developed, the programmes, departments and institutions in which the individual operates, and individual perceptions and career intentions.

All those interviewed had clear perceptions of how they were mentored. Not one questioned the meaning of mentoring, and all spoke openly about being mentored. Some mentioned mentoring by their line managers, others by peers and even by themselves. At one campus, where a number of individuals started at the same time and were at similar stages of development, the interviewees spoke about a peer group that formed. Interviewees affirmed some aspects of the mentoring they were exposed to and criticised other aspects. One interviewee went into more depth than the rest by identifying and discussing people whom he 'admired for certain reasons'.



From the sample cohort, it can be concluded that all participant interviewees received some sort of mentoring from their line managers. In most cases, it was relatively superficial, more aligned with the human resource management definition of coaching (Meyer & Fourie, 2006: 8) than mentoring. All interviewees were exposed to peer mentoring. Some experienced one-on-one mentoring that can be associated with descriptions of authors such as McKenna and Beech, (1995); Meyer and Fourie (2003) and Renton (2009), while for others mentoring was more egalitarian and closer to Loots (2007) or Du Bois and Karcher's (2005) descriptions of peer mentoring. The most significant form of mentoring that permeated all interviews was the form of mentoring that Glenn (2003) called self-mentoring.

All forms of mentoring were identified by all interviewees, but they tended to indicate the dominance of one particular form of mentoring in their peculiar development. The dominance of a single form of mentoring is linked partly to the social situation within which the interview operated, and partly the dynamics of their subject discipline. At one campus, new lecturers appeared to be given an introduction and then left, as one said, to 'sink or swim'. The two lecturers in question had little option but to mentor themselves. At five campuses, covering six programmes, experienced staff were active in incorporating new staff into the college work environment. On one programme, at one campus, a lack of effective programme management coincided with the employment of a number of new lecturers which resulted in the development of peer mentoring: what Wenger (1998) would call, a *community of practice*. At one campus, the nature of the subject discipline was attributed by both interviewees as a reason for self-mentoring. As one indicated 'my subject is very unique in a learning environment out of universities'. The driving force was each individual's perception of his/her own development needs, which supports and demonstratively confirms the postulation that effective mentoring is driven by the mentee, not the mentor.

### **5.3.3 The Use Of Sector-Or Institution-Specific Discursive Practice**

During the interviews, language and discourse were used as a form of reference: language and terminology are a form of association and, as a result, expertise. From

the analysis of language used in the interviews, a number of discursive sources and practices could be identified. The discursive practices were associated with:

- College lecturers and the South African TVET structure and environment
- South Africa's TVET Curriculum
- The industry from which each interviewee came
- Teacher education and professional teaching qualifications
- Mentoring

The first and most obvious discursive practice was that of the college itself: its physical and policy environment. Members of the sample spoke of colleges, national structures and processes, as if they were *reified* entities. Interviewees refer to colleges as *IT* and SAQA as a curriculum determinant. They use acronyms associated with South African technical and vocational education and training as naturally occurring phenomena, usually without the need to elaborate on meaning. Only those who had experience of work in private colleges felt the need to elaborate.

A discursive practice closely associated with that of a college structure is one linked to curriculum. Interviewees used terms such as *NCV*, *NATED*, and *outcomes* to describe, and elaborate on what occurs in the classroom. Where individual interviewees had experience of working at educational institutions other than public TVET colleges, broad terms such as *there* and *at school* were used. The reduction of processes, and the reduction of associated structural entities, into nouns is what Fairclough (2001: 103) calls *nominalization*. Through nominalized terms, lecturers subordinate themselves to college discursive practices. By doing so, their mentoring need involves a search for meaning within an overall and self-prescribing discursive practice.

Interviewees who had work experience outside education, in both private and public sectors, used that experience as reference. In most cases, the term *industry* was deployed when referring to their pre-college employment. In two cases, *industry* referred to a number of private sector employees, while in other cases *industry* meant quasi-state and local government. While *industry* was consistently used as a

term of reference, to determine knowledge and skills required by students, industry knowledge was, using the Foucauldian term, a source of *power knowledge*. As stated by one interviewee with *industry* experience referring to her colleagues:

*I don't mind calling a spade a spade ... 'dis die waarheid [it is the truth]. They [the college] had the cream of the crop and now, hulle kan nie aanpas nie [they cannot adapt], they battling to adapt and to adjust, to do the change, um, their teaching methods because I feel many, most of them come from a teaching background not industry background and they say 'well this is the way I've been taught', 'I've been doing this for fifteen years', 'oops, I don't know how to adapt and change', whereas in the private sector you have to deal with different kinds of customers and I can't say well I don't like your attitude because I like your money. I must adapt to what you want and what you need, and that irks [annoys] me on this side.*

Where interviewees had little or no industry experience, a subject discipline related discourse replaced industry experience. One lecturer, who was employed after graduation without first spending time in industry, considered herself as a researcher. In contrast to her colleagues, she spoke only of what she was teaching as a function of research. In two other cases, where lecturers were involved in subject areas that were largely theoretical and conceptual by nature, the interplay between theory and their perceptions of practice substituted an industry focus.

The fourth discursive practice that plainly emerged was one that had professional teaching qualifications as its discrete discursive source. All but one of the interviewees had completed, or were in the process of completing a professional teaching qualification required by the State (South Africa, 2000b). The fourteen qualified or partially-qualified interviewees were all aware of the discursive practices used in teacher education and education theory. The interviewees expressed themselves clearly within the parameters of the South African teacher education discourse, using acronyms and requirements as the interviews progressed. In the interviews, qualification acronyms featured as a possession, a source of knowledge or, in one case, disappointment. The one interviewee who had no exposure to

teacher education relied on her research background to frame and endorse her perceptions of what she was doing. Since her discursive frame of reference was tourism research, there appeared to be an amount of cognitive dissonance on her part: the structure of the knowledge of public TVET was where she differed from the employment environment of her friends who were employed in private colleges and higher education.

All interviewees were decisive and certain about the meaning of mentoring. But only one of them attempted to access the mentoring discourse practice in answering questions posed. From the interviews, it was evident that all were mentored and understood what mentoring was, but only one had had the need, or opportunity, to interrogate mentoring as a discursive practice or cognitive signal.

#### **5.3.4 The reflection of institutional power in the discourses used**

All lecturers interviewed as part of this study actively developed their skills through a variety of means, including learning from others (management and peers) and through self-reflection (self-mentoring). It can be concluded that the demands of work at the college, as expressed by others and themselves, exerted power over newly-appointed lecturers. The existence of power that managers and peers have over new employees is generally accepted (Stoner & Freeman, 1989: 299-307) but the ways in which power manifests itself in the development of college lecturers is intertwined with the reciprocating power that new lecturers have over the people who employ them. During the explanations of interviews in the previous chapter, power was described as manifesting itself in one of two ways. One way in which power manifested itself was through positive development of the new lecturer, which may be termed a *discourse of empowerment*. Some lecturers, however, expressed the opinion that they had (industry) experience that the college needed, and which their supervisors and peers lacked. Lecturers with industry experience were therefore not only empowered by management and peers, but had power over them and expressed their power by criticising college practice. The expression of individual power and the struggle to include its source in the college could, for the purpose of explanation, be called a *discourse of power*.

Fairclough (2001: 36-63) argues that, with reference to power, discourse has two aspects; namely power *in* discourse and power *behind* discourse. Power *in* discourse (Fairclough, 2001: 38-39) refers to the controls and constraints that a powerful person exerts over one that is non-powerful. Power *behind* discourse (Fairclough, 2001: 46-47) refers to the social order of discourse, a complex, multi-levelled order which discourse holds together as a hidden effect. Power, in and behind discourse, Fairclough (2001: 57) continues to assert:

*is not a permanent and undisputed attribute of any one person or social grouping ... those who hold power at any particular moment have to constantly reassert their power, and those who do not hold power are always liable to make a bid for power.*

Fairclough's (2001: 54) argument around discourse and power, and the assertion that education is a political way of modifying the appropriation of discourse, is illustrated in all five discursive practices noted in the previous section (5.3.3).

The first of the two discursive practices noted in 5.3.3 was the discursive practice linked to college lecturing within the South African TVET structure and environment, and South Africa's TVET curriculum. The related discourses associated with college structures and curricula used by colleges are expressed as determinants for new staff compliance. Colleges offer national curricula and externally-assessed curriculum content knowledge. Pedagogical knowledge and pedagogic content knowledge therefore forms a social framework for classroom and related administrative activities. All interviewees cited curriculum as knowledge and as something that needs to be gained and adopted. Interviewees perceived knowledge related to curriculum as something that could not be negotiated. All interviewees remarked on how they learn about curriculum frameworks, contents and related administration matters as something that they desired to learn, assimilate and master. One interviewee claimed cognitive dissonance as a result of a lack of alignment between her content knowledge and what she thought should have been pedagogic content knowledge, on the one hand, and the pedagogic content knowledge required by the college curriculum.

Interviewees tended to perceive compliance with college and administration structures as a derivative of curriculum-related knowledge. Most interviewees spoke about management behaviour, or lack of it, as a conduit to institutional structures. With the exception of one interviewee, who spoke about a lack of programme management, all perceived management communication and curriculum discourses as a single entity. One interviewee, who demonstrated a lack of programme management, indicated that he experienced conflict with administration personnel.

Industry knowledge, the third discursive practice noted in 5.3.3, is a form of knowledge power that interviewees perceived as their own, something that they possess but the college did not. Industry knowledge and related knowledge of disciplinary practices was used as a framework within which interviewees could critique colleges and collegiate practices. In contrast to discursive practices related to the college and curriculum, in which discursive power lies with the institution, the locus of social power in industry and its related discursive power, lies with individual employees. Interviewees all appeared to be aware of their power.

Discursive practices were linked to teacher education, the fourth discursive practice<sup>39</sup>, both by the institution and staff, as sources of power. A number of interviewees indicated that they were sociologically attracted to the college as a place of employment; they came from families employed in education. Education was claimed to be 'in [their] blood'. Some interviewees indicated the need to develop professional skills related to education. These interviewees perceived teacher education discourse as both an institutional source of power and an expression of individual power. For these interviewees, teacher education was a source of power for both the college and for themselves. An accredited teacher's qualification was something both the college required and something that the lecturers aspired to achieve. They regarded discursive practices associated with qualified teachers as an assimilation challenge. Interviewees commonly mentioned their family, their aspirations and, importantly, they appeared to take pride in using terminology associated with education theory.

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<sup>39</sup> Noted in 5.3.3.

For some interviewees, discursive practices associated with teacher education were regarded as an institution's source of power and an indicator of what an unqualified educator did not know. This type of interviewee tended to make comparisons between their practice and that of colleagues with a professional teaching qualification; using the qualification as a competitive competency measure. As one interviewee indicated (in Afrikaans):

*I noticed a lot, the fact that you do not have a teachers qualification people have half a negative idea of me ... a month does not go by that I do not hear 'you do not have a teachers qualification'. I think I am the only one at the [hotel] school without it (Ek het ook baie agter gekom, die feit dat jy nie 'n onderwys kwalifikasie het nie het baie mense half 'n negatiewe uhm id e van my gehad en nou nog terwyl ek nou nog sal ek, daar gaan nie 'n maand verby dat ek nie hoor, jy't nie 'n onderwys kwalifikasie nie. Ek dink ek is die enige een by die hotel skool wat dit nie het nie).*

Indicating the power relations, she went on to aver that a lack of a teaching qualification was something that created pressure for her to try to improve.

*it pressurised me to be better than them and to get better results, and from the start I was better than them. (Dit het my gedruk om ook te probeer om beter te wees as hulle en beter resultate te h e, en ek het nog van die begin af is my uitslae baie beter as hulle sin).*

One interviewee regarded the lack of a professional teacher's qualification as an identity indicator. Her response to the first question, 'what made you become a lecturer?' was 'which is separate from just plain teaching because the two are not separate, as far as I'm concerned'. She proceeded to explain how she completed her information technology-related education, while teaching it in a variety of curricular environments. She stressed that: 'IT is all I know'. Her response to completing a Post Graduate Certificate in Education was to deny its value at any level other than a personal one. She argued:

*[although] lecturers were told they had to do the PGCE ... PGCE was not a mandatory thing for me, but I've never been a teacher, a trained teacher so to speak and I thought if I'm going to be monitoring people who are actually teaching, it's going it will be fun to actually ... [I] suppose not really fun but I need to have that sort of knowledge.'* She continued: *'Although I have to admit that PGCE didn't give me what I was hoping I'd be given, not because it is not a solid ... I have always done most of my husband's documentation, he used to teach PGCE, so essentially I knew where we were going and what we would be doing .... So in terms of the theoretical side of things that part I was sort of, like, sorted.'* For her *'It was more an issue of 'this is how it slots in'. It was more confirmation than anything, except, I have to admit, inclusive education is a brilliant course and that we did a huge amount of things with X [lecturer] ... that really did the greatest benefit to me as an individual because that opened up my eyes ... I appreciated that course for me as an individual, not as a professional, as an individual.*

Power *in* and *of* mentoring, the third discursive practice, is perceived to be neutral. There were no formal mentoring relations, or mentoring programmes, therefore no mentor to determine power relations. Interviewees perceived mentoring as something that they sought, if and when needed. They did not feel subordinate to those who played a mentoring role in the process of their development. All fifteen people interviewed considered themselves to be their own mentors. They identified a single factor as an indicator of complete initiation into their places of employment. This single factor was *acceptance*. Some indicated that they found acceptance amongst their peers and students in that peers and students would ask them for advice or for an opinion. Other interviewees found acceptance in actions or expressions of managers. For one interviewee, it was being taken to a management workshop, for others it was organising functions. For another it was a mere observation: *'I did actually leave that impression with these people [campus management] that you can't mess around with me'*. She indicated as a prefix to noting that she was given the task of arranging an open day.



## 5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter formed a summation of the study by, firstly, providing a summary of the mentoring profiles of this study's participants, then describing the system and forms of mentoring that were identified. This chapter concluded by analysing the interplay of different discursive practices and, using Fairclough's (2001) terminology identified the power within and behind the discourse practices.

The chapter that follows provides a summary of the study and an indication of some of its implications. The identification of the efficacy of self-driven mentoring is highly significant. It adduces the truths of Freirean structures: the individual has to be appropriate and assimilate information and skills in the course of individually driven self-development.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS**

#### **6.1 CONCLUSIONS**

This study is a sustained analysis of mentoring processes in TVET colleges in South Africa: how they contribute to the incorporation of staff into colleges by identifying the nature and structure of the mentoring system, the forms that mentoring take, and how sector- or institution-specific language used in the organisation or institutional power are reflected in the discourses used. The study focused on constructing data from a comparatively small number of interviews from a specific sector. A combination of critical principles and methodologies associated with discourse analysis is used and explained in chapter three.

The mentoring system at colleges was found to be informal, mentee-driven but functional. This study shows that while there was an absence of outside influences determining the development of skills within departments or programmes within colleges, mentoring took a number of forms, including mentoring by supervisors, peer mentoring and self-mentoring. Some focused on peers, others on inputs of line managers or their own abilities. Each individual tailored a set of issues which suggests that an informal self-driven mentoring system is more appropriate than a formal pre-determined and inflexible programme of mentoring.

Language of mentees reflects mentoring they were exposed to. It included language of the industry or discipline they are associated with, and discursive practices peculiar to TVET in South Africa and the South African teaching profession. Power of both mentees and the people with whom they worked, was articulated in the language used, as reported in chapter four.

The location of this study in the critical paradigm, and use of a critical discourse analysis, was appropriate for a variety of reasons. A key reason for the initial enquiry that led to this study was that, across time and employment sectors, mentoring appeared to face common challenges, namely mentor-mentee matches and lack of success. The consistent failure, despite indications of success, required an answer

to the first question posed in Fairclough's (2010) methodological paradigm: identification of what is wrong. In answering the question, mentoring itself was regarded as a *social wrong*.

Following the identification of what was wrong, Fairclough's (2010) suggestion of focussing on the semiotic aspect of the *social wrong* was logical. Errors that other studies placed within the mentoring process, were centred instead in the process of mentoring itself. Regarding mentoring as the problem, facilitated a broad-based analysis of its use and a comparison with its original sources and, as a result, in chapter 2 (2.3), the identification of, what Foucault called, the *ethical substance* of the concept. Through analysis of the various ways in which mentoring has manifested itself, a number of mentoring profiles were identified and critically compared.

The use of linguistic analysis, as described by Fairclough (2001), to analyse interviews was critical: it initiated a search for discursive practices. As an exercise, however, it was disappointing because a greater level of expression of power through discursive practices was expected. The reference value of discursive practices was clear, and, to a limited extent, it expressed power language used by interviewees which tended to maintain the formality of discursive tones. Using critical discourse analysis to determine what was learnt and from whom it was learnt, has proved to be invaluable.

Systems of mentoring are in operation at the colleges that formed part of this study despite the absence of officially appointed mentors and mentoring programmes. Mentoring that follows the neoliberal capitalist approach (Kobeleva & Strongman, 2010: 8), has mentors who are appointed to tasks and have specified key performance indicators, mentees are regarded as subjects. But the interviewees in this study were exposed to a mentoring format of their *own* choice. Interviewees who took part in this study are, to varying degrees, practising professionals who took individually-oriented decisions to move into TVET colleges. Lecturers used themselves as reference points only. As a result, each individual has a unique selection of development needs that requires individual development focus. All interviewees accepted inputs of others but took responsibility for their own

classroom-based performance. Ownership of development as a lecturer was a key aspect of individual development. All interviewees spoke at length about how they shaped their development: be it interaction with colleagues or doing courses. All interviewees desired success, even though they were not necessarily sure of how to achieve it. The drive for success is what appeared to motivate the interviewees to analyse and interpret documents, ask questions and reflect on their performance.

Mentoring, from the perspective of those individuals interviewed, is a self-driven, informal, yet conscious, process in which an individual identifies competency gaps and learning required: then selects experts and other resources that will contribute towards the closure of the identified competency gap in learning required. This understanding of mentoring contrasts with commonly perceived definitions and descriptions which define mentoring as mentor-driven. Mentoring in practice at the colleges from which the interviewees were drawn is mentee driven. Mentee-driven mentoring appears to suit those interviewees. It places the power of decision-making in their hands; not at the discretion of someone else who may or may not appreciate what skills are required.

The mentoring that interviewees were exposed to was not dissimilar to the mentoring system devised by Athena for Telemachus. Athena was on hand to aid Telemachus when needed; she took the form of the most appropriate being for the situation. Interviewees found situation specific mentors as and when they were needed. Like Telemachus, they were not compelled to meet with mentors, keep logbooks or report to someone else the nature of the skills and personal development that resulted from the interaction. Similarly, like Telemachus, their mentors took various forms. Like Telemachus, all were mentored by elders, including programme managers, line managers and experienced staff assigned to work with them. Interviewees were even mentored by strangers they met, other members of staff, who became their colleagues, and, like Telemachus, they drew inspiration from their surroundings and, finally, mentored themselves.

Interviewees<sup>40</sup> interspersed their responses to questions with the vocabulary of discursive practices associated with the industries from which they came or, that associated with discursive practices used at the colleges, and discursive practices associated with national curricula (e.g. SAQA, NCV) and South African education policy (e.g. NPDE, PGCE). They understood what mentoring was, and identified the mentors with whom they had interacted. Like Telemachus, they were empowered by the arrival of mentors as and when needed. Telemachus used new knowledge to improve his navigation skills; the interviewees used knowledge gained to improve their skills in navigating the complex environment of a TVET college. They arrived in their posts with an acceptable level of competence and were suitably empowered to greater levels of competence through mentoring that arrived in various guises. Mentoring therefore occurred without external domination or corporate prescription. They were not moulded into a governmental or corporate mould.

The predominance of western business mentor-style mentoring is linked to what Freire (2005: 72) designates as *banking*, that is the unilateral displacement of information from mentor to mentee. There has been little or no attention paid to the vital involvement of self-awareness or self-recognition by which a mentee independently assesses his/her career or life and selects a path that is coherent with his/her self-awareness and ambitions professionally. The application of self-driven mentoring by mentee interviewees has had the same or better effects than mentor-driven mentoring; it has empowered mentees. Mentees were in a position of control over their learning. They controlled the nature, content and context of learning from the applicable mentor and decided when they had reached a required level of competence. The form of learning that has multiple levels of learning recognition has been called *anagnorisis* (MacFarlane, 2000). Like Mentor, *anagnorisis* has its roots in Greek literature, and has been attributed to Aristotle's *Poetics*.

The complexity of technical and vocational colleges as a work environment, the speed and incline of learning curves set for new lecturers and the proactivity required from them to reach levels of competence have resulted in unique insight into mentoring as a form of human resource development. While studies in both business and educational practices tend to focus on *how to* mentor, this study has

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<sup>40</sup> As indicated in chapter 4.

conducted foundational research into *how people are mentored* when a formal conventional mentoring programme is not imposed on them.

## 6.2 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study contributes towards an understanding of the current approach to mentoring, specifically when viewed within the context of the two original sources, namely the text in which the character of Mentor was conceptualised (Rieu, 1948) and the text in which the methodology was first introduced (Hawkesworth, 1797). This study shows that current managerial approach to mentoring differs from the processes indicated in the two original sources. The study demonstrates that the point of power differs when the two original texts are compared with mentoring's current use. The point of power in the original texts was located with the mentee but the management-oriented neo-liberal approach, which predominates in such countries as Great Britain, locates power in the mentor, as a representative of management of the organisation.

In addition to indicating the difference between the original texts and current applications, this study indicates that the current focus on mentors has left a gap in the knowledge on mentees as subjects and agents of their own mentoring. This study demonstrates that mentees are both capable of shaping their own informal process of organisational and professional development and empowered by them. This study contributes substantially to the debate on mentee involvement in mentoring, new approaches to mentoring, such as those of Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) *productive mentoring* and introduces the concept of self-driven mentoring. Productive mentoring, this study illustrated, is one that is mentee-driven because mentees fit mentoring into their cycle of development. Mentees are not required, as in mentor-driven mentoring, to follow predetermined learning cycles based on generic requirements and the skills and availability of mentors. As alternatives to a focus on management and mentors, and systemic issues, this study shows how mentees can learn to direct their own career paths. By contributing towards an understanding of how mentees operate, conventional of mainstream corporate or governmental mentoring are interrogated.

## **6.3 POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS**

The discourse on mentoring, both in teacher education, and more broadly, in development of professionals, is vibrant and dynamic. Over the last two decades mentoring has vindicated itself as a human resource and form of professional development. When mentoring was introduced in the 1980s and early 1990s, it was illustrated as a professional development process. Since then, illustrations of mentoring have grown to include a variety of forms of learning. The social transformation potential of mentoring has been debated. The disparate uses of the term applied to informal learning continually validate Roberts's (2000: 151) assertion that 'essences and attributes [of mentoring] are not fixed and permanent; they are dependent upon those who perceive the phenomenon of mentoring and the choice of language they deploy to ascribe meaning to their experience'. Furthermore, association with what Kobeleva and Strongman (2010:8) term 'the 'socialisation of learning' within education that is contextualised in part by a political agenda' has resulted in the situation of mentoring 'within supervision pedagogy and within the framework of neoliberal organisation ... subject to an implicit network of ideological and organisational power dynamics'. The results of this study suggest that the key to the effective use of mentoring lies in a shift of emphasis. The emphasis in mentoring needs to change away from the express needs of the organisation into which new education professionals are being mentored, and role of mentor in ensuring that the new person, in the words of McKenna and Beech (1995: 167), 'adopts the senior manager's behaviour'.

Mentoring should emphasise instead an emphasis on reflective and developmental actions taken by mentees. Self-driven mentoring shifts the emphasis of mentoring to one where the power of the employee is critical. In the words of Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011: 468-469; 2012) mentoring 'takes into account mentoring as an academic, caring, and professional activity situated within its own environment'.

### **6.3.1 Possible implications for theory**

The broad range of research into mentoring, of which chapter 2 is indicative, has contributed towards the general understanding of the successful incorporation of new

professionals into complex work environments. Continued interest in mentoring shows that mentoring is a valid form of human resource development: learning facilitation practices called *mentoring* are inadequately understood in many cases.

One weakness in current discourse on mentoring is the breadth of the term itself. The use of mentoring as a term has broadened over the past decade, increasing confusion, not clarity over its use. Haggerty (1986) asserted in the mid-1980s, and Roberts (2000) did so a decade and a half later, that so many definitions of mentoring 'confuse the person, the process and the activities' (Roberts, 2000: 146). Another of Roberts's (2000) assertions is the way mentoring is used largely depends on 'those who perceive the phenomenon of mentoring and the choice of language they deploy to ascribe meaning to their experience' (Roberts, 2000: 151).

For further conceptual development, mentoring requires a classification system based on differentiation according to types of mentoring. Classifying types of mentoring is a process to which Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011) point by critiquing neo-liberalism, Kobeleva and Strongman (2010) construct and Mangan (2012) provide. Classifications based on the interpersonal nature of mentoring (Healy, 1989; McKenna & Beech, 1995; Bleach, 1999; Du Bois, & Karcher, 2005; Loots, 2007; Anderson, 2009; Zanetti, 2009) miss the broad applications ascribed to mentoring. Classifications of the social transformation approach to analysing mentoring, as indicated by Darwin (2000) and Van Louw and Waghid (2008) are largely academic: they address one aspect of mentoring, namely whether mentoring results in the maintenance of a social system or whether it can assist in its transformation. A broadened theory of mentoring needs to be developed: a theory that provides for multiple forms of mentoring, including mentee-mentoring, and the negotiating of mentoring by the mentee.

A further weakness is in finding ways to use research into mentoring to break the hold that the neo-liberal ideology has on informal and adult learning. Mentoring is an element of life-long learning and is dominated by a managerialist approach that subordinates new professionals to the status of mentee or protégé or corporate person. Their subjugation to social power is asserted by line and staff managers, and others appointed for reasons of varying validity. Research into how professional



mentees learn, who they learn from and how they use what they have learnt in their own development, contributes towards an understanding of the nature of adult learning in the workplace. Studies by Mooney Simmie and Moles (2011), Kobeleva and Strongman (2010) and Irby (2013) provide scope for productive mentoring and fresh perspectives in understanding adult learning in the workplace will, in turn, provide revisions to theories of adult learning in the workplace. This study shows that professionals entering complex institutional environments have a clear perception of their own competency, shortcomings and how to overcome them. This study shows, furthermore, that new professionals actively and consistently work towards overcoming their professional shortcomings. From the perspective of those interviewed as part of this study, it is possible to generalise that mentees can manage their own mentoring process. The mentoring role is needed to provide inputs as and when required: to point mentees in the direction required of them and to develop competencies required for the posts they fill.

### **6.3.2 Possible implications for policy**

From the perspective of national and institutional policy, mentoring does not form part of initial skills development of college lecturers. While all human resource managers could respond to questions on mentoring practices, none produced policy documents to support their claims. Furthermore, while national policy on teacher education, both policy currently in place and the policy to be implemented from 2016, indicate that mentoring of trainee staff is required (South Africa, 2000a: 19; South Africa, 2011: 15; South Africa, 2013: 29), they are referring to initial teacher education not initial training for un/underqualified college lecturers. In addition to the absence of policy, this study indicates that self-driven mentoring is effectively taking place in colleges. It must be noted, however, that both lecturers and human resource managers responded to questions on what was being done. Answers may have been honest and substantial but none denied that mentoring within the context of the colleges that formed part of this study operated in a policy vacuum. Mentoring that took place, one could argue, was incidental and required for personal and social survival. A researcher would expect mentoring to be managed as any other form of human resource development. Given the fact that significant numbers of un/underqualified lecturers are appointed, a researcher could expect to see productive management to

develop and sustain teaching competencies. Such an expectation could be sought from the national department of education and training.

This study has two expectations of, and as a result, implications for policy. As new lecturers are appointed at individual colleges, the existence of institutional mentoring policies is a legitimate expectation. As both colleges and teacher education in the country is a function of the national department of education and training, national policies should exist to frame college mentoring activities.

The existence of policy is one expectation. A second expectation is that national and institutional mentoring policies will be aligned with an approach that contributes towards the productive development of newly appointed lecturers. Policy therefore needs to be aligned not with general mentoring principles or neo-liberal bureaucratic procedures, but must promote principles of contextualised productive mentoring that empowers, not subordinates, new lecturers.

### **5.3.3 Possible implications for practice**

New professionals need to be made aware of their own empowering role in the initial phase of employment. Managers can be provided with training on how to mentor staff and new staff needs to be trained to mentor themselves. From the interviews, a clear distinction can be made between new staff who had effective line managers and who provided mentoring guidance, and those who were not effective and did not provide mentoring guidance. If new staff and managers realign their attitude towards mentoring, power to determine the nature and content of mentored learning of new professionals will migrate from a largely external mentor to the mentee. The focus of mentoring needs to move from its current focus on mentoring as a management-driven, corporate-style process to one driven by new staff yet facilitated by management. The key role-players in the mentoring of new professionals need to be the mentee and the mentee's line managers.

## 6.4 CONCLUSION

This study started with a question relating to the nature of mentoring applicable for use in South African technical and vocational education. The plethora of research, analysis of which was presented in chapter 2, proves that mentoring assists in the orientation and development of new professionals. The same research indicates that inflexible prescriptive mentoring programmes can be precarious: mentor/mentee relations are prone to mismatch and complicate line relations within organisations. Recent research indicates that mentoring is not necessarily developmental and tends to serve what Chochram-Smith and Paris (1995, in Mooney Simmie & Moles, 2011) call *reproduction* rather than *reconsideration*. For this study, mentees who had not been assigned mentors and who had not been exposed to mentoring were interviewed with the aim of identifying how they articulated mentored skills. Regarding mentoring as a possible social wrong suggested that a key to mentoring is to focus on how mentees mentor themselves, and not on the assignment of mentors. The form of mentoring in which the mentee was given the power to choose how and when to be mentored could be called self-driven professional mentoring, post-neo liberal mentoring or anagoristic-mentoring.

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**ADDENDA**

## Addendum A: Stellenbosch University ethics clearance



UNIVERSITEIT-STELLENBOSCH-UNIVERSITY  
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

### Approval Notice New Application

13-Nov-2013

VAN DER BUL, Andre James

**Proposal #: DESC\_VanderBijl2013**

**Title: Mentoring and the development of vocationally aligned educators in the South African FET sector**

Dear Mr Andre VAN DER BUL,

Your DESC approved New Application received on 07-Oct-2013, was reviewed by members of the Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities) via Expedited review procedures on 12-Nov-2013 and was approved.

Please note the following information about your approved research proposal:

Proposal Approval Period: 12-Nov-2013 -11-Nov-2014

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

Please remember to use your proposal number (DESC\_VanderBijl2013) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 0218839027.

**Included Documents:**

Research proposal

DESC form

Informed consent form

Permission letters

Sincerely,

Susara Oberholzer

REC Coordinator

Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

**Addendum B:** Letter of permission to conduct research: Department of Higher Education and Training.



**higher education  
& training**

Department:  
Higher Education and Training  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X174, PRETORIA, 0001 123 Frans Bosman Street, PRETORIA, 0002, South Africa  
Tel: (012) 312 5911, Fax: (012) 321 6770  
Private Bag X9182, CAPE TOWN, 8000, 103 Plein Street, CAPE TOWN, 8001, South Africa  
Tel: (021) 469 5175, Fax: (021) 461 4781

Programme: E-mail: amuse

E-mail: amuse1@hlt.ac.za

Tel: 012 312 5957

Mr AJ Van der Bijl  
85 Berg Road  
FISH HOEK  
7974

By email: [vandgrbijl@hlt.ac.za](mailto:vandgrbijl@hlt.ac.za)

Dear Mr Van der Bijl

**REQUEST TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH IN FET COLLEGES: THE ROLE OF MENTORING FOR VOCATIONALLY ALIGNED EDUCATORS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING COLLEGE (FETC) SECTOR**

I acknowledge receipt of your request for permission to conduct research in three Further Education and Training Colleges on the topic "The role of mentoring for vocationally aligned educators in the South African FET College sector".

Your request has been evaluated by the Department and it is my pleasure to grant you permission to undertake the above research in the False Bay, College of Cape Town and Northlink FET Colleges. You are advised to obtain further permission from the Principals of these colleges prior to commencing any research activities.

The topic of your research is of great interest to the Department. It will therefore be appreciated if you could share the findings of your research with the Department upon completion of your research.

I wish you all of the best in your research study.

Yours sincerely

Mr GF Qonde  
Director-General

Date: 06/10/2013

**Addendum C: Letter of permission to conduct research: College A.**



**CENTRAL OFFICE**  
Corner of Main & Atlantic Roads, Muizenberg  
Private Bag X26, Tokai, 7966  
Tel: 021 655 6000 Fax: 021 768 2555  
[www.falsebaycolleg.co.za](http://www.falsebaycolleg.co.za)

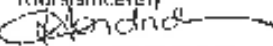
17 April 2013

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

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The college has been approached by Mr Andre van der Bijl (student number 1105611 1987) to do research towards the completion of a PhD.

False Bay College hereby grants Andre van der Ryl permission to conduct his research at the college.

Yours sincerely  
  
Karin Hendricks (Mrs)  
Deputy CEO: Education and Training

**Addendum D:** Letter of permission to conduct research: College B.



Andre van der Bijl  
Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT)  
Mowbray

4 October 2012

**PROPOSED RESEARCH PROJECT AT THE COLLEGE OF CAPE TOWN**

Dear Col. van der Bijl

Please note the following important considerations that must be fulfilled before research at the College of Cape Town can be evaluated and approved:

1. A concise description of the research project/proposal must be provided; preferably the summary research proposal submitted to your academic institution.
2. If questionnaires/interviews/tests are to be used in the investigation, copies of such questionnaires/structured questions/test questions are to be provided.
3. A letter from your supervisor/project head must accompany the application stating that you are registered at Stellenbosch.
4. List the names of the College of Cape Town campuses/ departments where the research will be conducted.
5. Who are the Respondents (i.e. learners, parents, educators, etc.)?
6. The period during which the research will be conducted.
7. **No research can be conducted whilst examinations are being prepared for, or during the examination period.** Please note that examinations are conducted at different times for trimester, semester and year programmes.
8. Approval for projects should be confirmed by the Quality Manager after approval has been granted by the College Executive.
9. Complete the Research Application Form (attached to this letter).

The above information can be faxed or e-mailed. If further assistance is needed, please contact me at telephone number 021 404 6726, or e-mail [awinks@cct.edu.za](mailto:awinks@cct.edu.za).

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Andrew Winks", with a stylized flourish at the end.

Andrew Winks  
Quality Manager

**CENTRAL OFFICE**

334 Albert Road, SALT RIVER, 7925,  
P.O. Box 1054, CAPE TOWN, 8000

Tel: +27 21 404 6700 • Fax: +27 21 404 6701

Info Line: +27 36 010 3682 | email: [info@cct.edu.za](mailto:info@cct.edu.za) | Website: [www.cct.edu.za](http://www.cct.edu.za)

**Addendum E: Letter of permission to conduct research: College C.**



Central Office, 80 Voordekkers Road, Stellenbosch 7530  
Tel: 021 870 8000 • Fax: 021 870 0000  
Private Bag X 1, Simon's 7508  
Info@northlink.co.za • www.northlink.co.za  
Finger co. 08300 N'LINK 054885

27 May 2013

Dear Mr van der Bijl

**RESEARCH INTERVIEWS**

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This is the contact details of the candidates that you have identified for the above.

Please contact them to set-up an appointment for the interview.

Kind regards

Mr Charl Coetzee  
Deputy CEO: Academic

**• Delter Campus**  
Tel: 021 551 2115 • Fax: 021 852 0594  
**• Helderberg Campus**  
Tel: 021 851 2201 • Fax: 021 851 3087

**• Ouderveld Campus**  
Tel: 021 881 3181 • Fax: 021 852 2487  
**• Parow Campus**  
Tel: 021 881 8298 • Fax: 021 881 8244

**• Penha Campus**  
Tel: 021 948 2251 • Fax: 021 940 0585  
**• Tygerberg Campus**  
Tel: 021 941 2200 • Fax: 021 941 2970

**• Winelands Campus**  
Tel: 021 891 2107 • Fax: 021 882 3923



**Addendum F: Informed consent form**

UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY  
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

**STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY  
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH**

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*Mentoring and the development of vocationally aligned educators in the South African FET sector*

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by *Andre van der Bijl (M.Ed)*, a PhD student in the *Curriculum Studies Department of the Faculty of Education* at Stellenbosch University *as part of the completion of a PhD dissertation*. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are *a practicing FET college business studies lecturer who was employed at a college before completing a professional educator qualification*.

**1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

*The aim of this study is to assess or establish how you used mentoring to develop your competency and identity as a lecturer.*

**2. PROCEDURES**

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

*Answer six general questions about what made you choose work at a college, as well as what influenced you while you developed your lecturing competencies. At the end of the session I will provide a summary of your profile, answer any questions that you have. If you require more information after the interview I will make every effort to supply it.*

*The interview will be conducted in a venue accepted by you and the college, and at a convenient time.*

**3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS**

*There is no identifiable risk to doing this interview. There are no correct or incorrect answers. It is also not the intention to identify any negative college practices.*

*If, at any time during or after the interview, you feel uncomfortable with a question, the direction questions are going or any other aspect of the interview, you are free to indicate your discomfort, refuse to answer the question or indicate that you want the interview to end.*

**4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY**

*From this interview I will be able to determine a number of FET college lecturer mentoring profiles. From the interview you will be able to determine your own profile which will contribute towards your own understanding of college lecturer development.*

*The findings of this research will contribute towards understanding the dimensions of mentoring takes. It will also contribute towards understanding FET college lecturer competency development*



*profiles, which will contribute towards our understanding of the dynamics of teaching and learning in FET colleges.*

## **5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION**

*No payment will be given for the interview.*

## **6. CONFIDENTIALITY**

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. *Confidentiality will be maintained by means of allocating a number to each colleges (e.g. college 1, 2, 3, etc.) and by doing the same to each interviewee (e.g. Interviewee one of college 1, etc.). No raw data will be published, information will be published only after it has been analysed and as part of an overall study.*

*Content of interviews or any other biographical data will not be published, nor will it be given to any third party for any other form of research without the express permission of the colleges and interviewees concerned.*

*All interviews will be audiotaped. The audiotaped data will be transcribed and destroyed once the university quality assurance requirements have been met.*

The results of this study will be published in a PhD dissertation. An article submission will be made to at least one DoE accredited journal and at least one conference paper will be produced. Copies of the articles can be made available if requested.

## **7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL**

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

## **8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS**

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, *please feel free to contact Andre van der Bijl (primary researcher) by email at [vanderbijla@cput.ac.za](mailto:vanderbijla@cput.ac.za) or telephone at 083 677 6601 or Dr Liezel Frick (primary supervisor) at [BLF@sum.ac.za](mailto:BLF@sum.ac.za) or telephone at 012 808 9111 during office hours.*

## **9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS**

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [[mfouche@sun.ac.za](mailto:mfouche@sun.ac.za); 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

**SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE**

The information above was described to *me* by *Andre Van der Bijl* in *English* and *I am* in command of this language. *I* was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *my* satisfaction.

*I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study.* I have been given a copy of this form.

---

**Name of Subject/Participant**

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**Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative**  
**Date****SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR**

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to \_\_\_\_\_.  
[~~He~~/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in *English* and *no translator was used*.

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**Signature of Investigator**

---

**Date**

**Addendum G: Analysis sheets based on Fairclough 1989/2001****FAIRCLOUGH, 1989/2001, DESCRIPTION OF TEXT – INTERVIEWEE .....**

<b>ELEMENT</b>	<b>POINTERS</b>	<b>EVIDENCE</b>
<b>VOCABULARY</b>		
1. Experiential value of words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Classification system</li> <li>• Are words ideologically contested</li> <li>• Is there rewording or overwording</li> <li>• Ideological significance/meaning of words</li> </ul>	
2. Relational value of words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Euphemistic expressions</li> <li>• Formal or informal wording</li> </ul>	
3. Expressive value of words		
4. Metaphors used		
<b>GRAMMAR</b>		
5. Experiential value of grammatical features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What processes and participant dominates</li> <li>• Is agency unclear</li> <li>• Are processes what they seem</li> <li>• Are nominalizations used</li> <li>• Are sentences active or passive</li> <li>• Are sentences positive or negative</li> </ul>	
6. Relational value of grammatical features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Modes used (declarative, grammatical question, imperative)</li> </ul>	
7. Expressive value of grammatical features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there important features of expressive modality</li> </ul>	
8. Linking of simple sentences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Logical connectors used</li> <li>• Complex sentences – coordination or subordination</li> <li>• Means for referring inside &amp; outside of text</li> </ul>	
<b>TEXTUAL STRUCTURE</b>		
9. Interactional conventions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are there ways in which one participant controls the turns of others</li> </ul>	
10. Large scale structures		

**FAIRCLOUGH, 1989/2001**

**INTERPRETATION** - Identifies background assumptions

**DESCRIPTION** - Identifies the relationship between discourse and struggles & power

**INTERPRETATION** - interpreter uses **MR** (members resource, 1989:141), which is *background knowledge*

ELEMENTS OF INTERPRETATION	INTERPRETATIVE PROCEDURES	INTERPRETATION	INTERPRETATION OF EVIDENCE	EXPLANATION OF EVIDENCE
STRUCTURAL CONTEXT	Social orders	1..Situational context <i>External cues indicating context</i>		
INTERTEXTUAL CONTEXT	Interactional history	2. Intertextual context <i>What other discourses are linked</i>		
SPEECH ACTS	Phonology, grammar, vocabulary	3. Surface of utterance <i>Interpretation of sounds and marks</i>		
	Semantics, pragmatics	4, Meaning of utterance <i>Addition of meaning to 3</i>		
	Cohesion, pragmatics	5. Local cohesion Local context of 3.		
TOPIC & POINT	Schemata	6. Text structure and 'point' <i>how does the text 'hang together'</i>		