

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP, TRUST AND PEER MENTORING: AN
EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE PEER MENTORING PROGRAMME
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE**

By

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DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that the thesis **“The Relationship between Transformational Leadership, Trust and Peer Mentoring: An Exploratory Study of the Peer Mentoring Programme at the University of the Western Cape”** is her own work, and that all sources have been referred to, and quoted have indicated and acknowledged with complete references.

Niamat Salasa



DEDICATION

To my mommy my only wish is that I be half the woman you have turned out to be. Thank you for giving me hope and courage and just believing in me. I do not think that without your support through all these years, I would have gotten this far. I am truly blessed.



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Firstly I would like to thank my Creator for aiding me with guidance and inspiration and ensuring the completion of this research project.

To my daddy who remained my greatest supporter and benchmark for exceptional expertise. To my family, brothers and my sisters that kept me together through this and were willing to help me whenever and however, I thank you.

To my friends and secret helpers, Mineshree, Rufqah and Zahrah, I am truly blessed.

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To the Centre for Student Support Services (CSSS), Director Birgit and Manager Laetitia thank you for allowing me the opportunity to conduct my research. To my colleagues and friends, thanks for always listening.

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ABSTRACT

Transformational leadership has received considerable attention within the organizational sphere in the last decade. Leadership in higher education institutions has also received attention as there is a concern about the retention rates of students. Academic leaders have identified unclear educational goals, dissatisfaction with academic programmes, and unclear career objectives as reasons for student attrition. Therefore, skills training and development programmes became the priority of academic institutions for the purpose of retaining students to sustain a competent and efficient workforce generation in all spheres. The University of the Western Cape's Peer Mentoring Programme offers a strategy to increase retention of students because it addresses several causes of student drop out such as, inadequate academic preparation for tertiary institutions, lack of knowledge about social or academic resources and adapting to new surroundings for first year students.

Based on a review of empirical findings, this research elucidated the theoretical terrain of mentoring, transformational leadership and trust. The exploration of the literature highlighted the similarities and differences between transformational leaders and mentors are discussed.

An adapted version of the Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and the workplace trust survey (WTS) was administered to a sample of 54 mentors in a university's peer mentoring programme within the Western Cape South Africa. The University of the Western Cape's peer mentoring programme (PMP) was utilised as a case study and a convenience sampling approach was employed.

The results emanating from this research indicate that there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and trust. Biographical variables namely gender, age and

previous experience within the mentoring programme as a follower (mentor) were examined amongst the sample of PMP to determine if any of the variables contributed towards the differences in perceptions of transformational leadership and trust in the leader (head mentor). These biographical variables demonstrated no significant difference in transformational and trust levels.

Notwithstanding the limited generalizability of this study, implications for research and practice are suggested and recommendations are made to facilitate improved functioning of the PMP.

KEY WORDS

Transformational Leadership, Peer Mentoring, Trust, Follower Characteristics, UWC Mentors, Mentoring Relationships, Correlation Analysis, Mentees, Quantitative



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

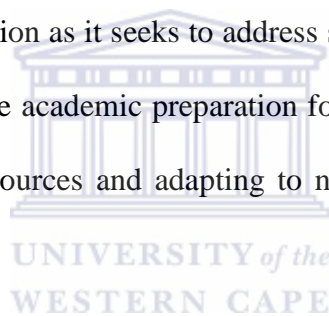
It has become evident that despite the research invested into understanding the complexity of leadership “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it” (Stogdill, cited in Yukl, 2002). Much of what leadership is thought to embrace has been dissected into smaller researchable components for scholarly and academic purposes. As a result, much of the work published on leadership has inevitably been categorised into leadership schools of thought that do not adequately reflect the richness and complexity of the leadership construct. As society and technology continues to advance, so too do the underlying concepts of leadership continue to evolve.

Transformational leadership has received considerable attention within the organizational sphere in the last decade alone. According to Burke, Sims, Lazzara and Salas (2007), this may be attributed to the increasing recognition of the contribution of trust for optimal organizational efficacy. The authors further postulate that trust is not only a precursor to team related valued performance outcomes, but also develops as a result of collaborative interaction between leaders and subordinates. While examination across many spheres of leadership has been conducted in terms of its relationship with trust, none proves more so intertwined as that of transformational leadership and trust (Burke et al., 2007; Mackenzie, Podsakoff & Rich, 2001; Ngodo, 2008; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990).

Research (Jinabhai, 2005; Pillai, Williams, Lowe & Jung, 2003) indicates that transformational leaders are needed to drive change interventions and effect change

successfully in order to survive and excel globally. One of the greatest challenges faced by South Africa is the shortage of skilled labour and specialised skills (De Kock & Slabbert, 2003). Therefore, the development of skills, training and enrichment programmes can no longer be considered as the domain of organizations and government initiatives separate from that of tertiary institutions, but requires a collaborative intervention on a national scale (UWC: Institutional Operating Plan, 2010-2014). Programmes to increase student retention became the priority of academic institutions to develop competent and efficient graduates able to compete globally in all spheres.

The University of the Western Cape Peer Mentoring Programme (UWC PMP) offers a strategy to increase student retention as it seeks to address several causes of student drop out. These sources include: inadequate academic preparation for tertiary institutions, difficulty in accessing social or academic resources and adapting to new surroundings for international students.



1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The poor development of skills training in South Africa underpins the lack of competitiveness in the global village (Jinabhai, 2005). According to the World Economic Forum (2005), South Africa was ranked last out of 48 countries with regards to availability of skilled labour (48th) and the adequacy of educational system (47th). Comparatively, another report conducted by the World Bank and International Finance Corporation highlighted that the ease of employing workers from South Africa was rated 102nd out of a total of 183 countries.

The national response to the problem was the Skills Development Act (Act, No.97 of 1998) which sought to ensure that employee development programmes and skills training were implemented by organisations as a requirement of legislation. Current and potential employees were now guaranteed to be kept abreast of technological and social changes in their scope of work, but this placed more stringent requirements on applying applicants to have the necessary tertiary qualifications.

Academic leaders at tertiary institutions have become increasingly concerned about the retention rates of students and have identified unclear educational goals, dissatisfaction with academic programmes, and unclear career objectives as reasons for student attrition (Dorsey & Baker, 2004). As the Rector of the University of the Western Cape (UWC) recently related, this situation proves particularly alarming as a significant number of these students are the first to enter into university from their family and/or communities within rural areas (personal communication, January 16th, 2012). One of the interventions that UWC has implemented to address the problem of student attrition was the development of the Peer Mentoring Programme (PMP). Whereas, transformational leaders occasionally adopt mentoring and coaching techniques to develop their followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), PMP adopts one on one mentoring sessions facilitated by head mentors to support the personal development of their mentees. As transformational leaders need to establish trust in order to inspire followers towards their vision, so too does mentoring require the basis of trust to be evident for mentees to optimally benefit.

Therefore, by considering transformational leadership and trust in the peer mentoring relationship, this research intends to explore the relationship between these constructs. This research also attempts to understand if certain biographical characteristics of the follower

contribute to the differences in levels of transformational leadership and trust exhibited by heads. Specifically gender, age and previous mentee experience of the followers will be examined alongside transformational leadership and trust.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research seeks to answer two main questions: Is there an association between transformational leadership and trust within the peer mentoring relationship at a tertiary institution? Are there differences in respondents' demographics on perceived transformational leadership and trust within the context of peer mentoring relationship?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Based on the background of the research problem, the objective of this research is to provide insight on the following views:



- To identify if certain biographical variable trends of trust and transformational leadership can be identified. This will provide input into future mentoring interventions
- To determine mentees' extent of trust in their mentor
- To determine mentees' perception of transformational leadership of their mentor

1.5 HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses for the Study:

H1: There is a significant relationship between the Transformational Leadership of head mentors and the followers' level of trust


H2: There is a significant difference in gender between mentee's perception of Transformational Leadership

H3: There is a significant difference in gender between mentee's perception of Trust

H4: Followers that are older will perceive lower levels of Transformational Leadership of head mentors

H5: Followers that entered the program as mentees will perceive higher levels of trust in their head mentors

1.6 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS



Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interest of their followers, generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group and encourage followers to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Components of Transformational Leadership include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

Mentoring relationship: Is a nurturing reciprocal relationship between mentor and mentee/s focusing on longer term achievement with the mentor possessing greater experience within the required system. Functions include psychological, social, academic, career and personal development (Forsyth, 1980, cited in Fernando, Dharmage & Almedia, 2007).

Trust: One party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the belief that the

latter party is a) competent, b) open, c) concerned and d) reliable person (Mishra, 1996).

Head Mentor: Is responsible for mentoring the mentors in the UWC Peer Mentoring Programme. They represent the leaders of the Programme and are recruited internally from the mentoring pool of candidates. Head Mentors assume a critical role for the programme as they are tasked with monitoring and tracking the development of mentors as well as their mentees within PMP. Head mentors are required to guide mentors (who in turn guide their mentees) using role modelling, personal experience and insight to successfully navigate the university environment (Schreiber, 1999).

Mentee: Described as the first year student who is allocated a mentor after signing up for the programme. The PMP is a resource made available to first year students at the official UWC Orientation Programme held prior to lectures commencing. Mentees are also introduced to the programme internally from other units and offices within Centre for Student Support Services (CSSS).

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is restricted to one specific peer mentoring programme within a centre within a specific university, therefore, excludes the perceptions of other followers in other university mentoring programmes. Consequently, results may not adequately represent the perception of all followers, but only of a particular group of followers. More limitations will follow in Chapter 5 of the detailed research.

1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Following the introductory chapter, Chapter Two provides a detailed review of the literature on transformational leadership and trust. This is contextualised within a peer mentoring programme. The relationship between the two constructs would be explored by investigating the variables associated with each construct. Definitions of transformational leadership, its components and peer mentoring are provided, as well as the significance of trust and its determinants will be discussed.

Chapter Three provides an overview of the research methodology employed in this study. This includes the research design, participants, sampling methods, data collection and data analysis strategies, administration of the questionnaire, statistical techniques used and composition of the sample used as well as ethical considerations.

Chapter Four highlights the statistical results of the research study arising from the empirical analysis of the data obtained. The data is in tabular and graphical format to facilitate ease in understanding the data.

In Chapter Five, the most significant information gained from both the literature survey and the empirical study will be addressed. Conclusions are drawn based on the obtained results and integrated with existing literature. Furthermore, practical implications of the research are highlighted and recommendations for future research are outlined.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an outline/layout of the structure and hypothesis guiding the research. In the chapters that follow, each component of the research process is discussed in greater

detail. The literature survey will be introduced in the next chapter with the focus on transformational leadership. The focus will then be shifted towards mentoring to provide insight into the nature and evolution of Peer Mentoring and the elements needed for an optimal mentoring relationship to exist.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

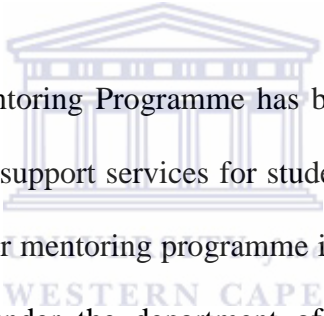
The purpose of this chapter is to discuss ‘Transformational Leadership’ and its relationship with ‘Trust’ within the context of the Peer Mentoring relationship. In order to critically discuss this topic, it is important to define and detail the key concepts of transformational leadership, trust and the peer mentoring relationship. First, the context of the UWC Peer Mentoring Programme will be discussed along with an attempt to synthesize the various mentoring theoretical views presented. Transformational leadership and its recent popularity will then be explored along with characteristics of transformational leadership. The definition, function and role of trust will also be examined in relation to transformational leadership and the mentoring relationship. This will then be linked to an investigation as to whether the practice of transformational leadership lends itself to the enhancement of the mentoring relationship. Also, this chapter will examine whether transformational leadership can lend itself to facilitating a better and more valuable mentoring experience.

2.2 PEER MENTORING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

According to Kagee, Naidoo and Mahatey (1997) the peer mentoring programme of UWC was established in 1992 as a Student Development Programme under the auspices of the Academic Development Centre. The programme is managed under the Centre for Student Support Services (CSSS) and the Residential and Catering Services (RCS). The Office of Academic Support (OAS) is primarily responsible for the running of the programme as the day to day function of the programme is run solely by students. The UWC’s Peer Mentoring Programme (PMP) (formerly known as the UWC Student Mentoring Programme (SMP)), was designed as a tool for improving the adjustment of first year students to the university

environment of UWC (Schreiber, 1999). The PMP programme sought to address inadequate pre university preparation and limit the extent of insecurity, anxiety and alienation which first year students were more likely to feel (Kagee, Naidoo & Mahatey, 1997).

PMP was therefore established with the need to assist students to develop ‘deep level’ cognitive skills, learn skills required for academic study, develop cooperative learning groups, have positive role-models and have an environment which promotes their personal wellbeing (Naidoo, 1994). Hence, the holistic aim of PMP is an attempt to maximise student development academically, socially and personally (L. Permall, personal communication, July 8th, 2011).

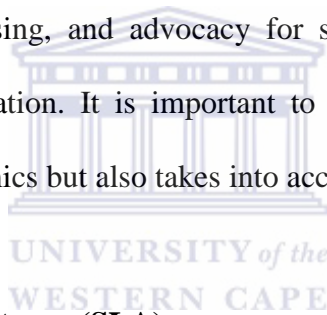


From 2008 to date, the Peer Mentoring Programme has been located within the Office for Academic Support, as one of the support services for students within the Centre for Student Support Services. The current peer mentoring programme is an integration of two previously separate programmes operated under the department of Residence and the CSSS. It is important to note that the PMP programme only serves the needs of first year students. It is comprised of two units which are; the CSSS office located on campus for commuter students and the Cassinga office for residence students. The organogram of PMP (UWC) comprises of managerial staff and student staff. On the student staff arm of the organogram are the mentors, head mentors and senior student coordinators, whilst the managerial staff comprise of two interns, two program facilitators and a manager. The programme has been in existence for 18 years and it has survived a chain of changes as the years continued in terms of managerial structure.

Relative to this study, and in context of the University of the Western Cape Peer Mentoring Programme (UWC PMP); the educational system dominate models of mentoring which are: Emerging Scholars Program (ESP) and Structured Learning Assistance (SLA) (Milne, Keating & Gabb, 2007), are most aligned to the Peer Mentoring Programme offered at the University of the Western Cape.

2.2.1 Emerging Scholars Program (ESP)

The Emerging Scholars Program, was developed in the early 1980s at the University of California, Berkeley and it targets specific students who appear to be at risk (Treisman, 1992). Milne *et al.* (2007) stipulates that this model is aimed at providing peer support, strong orientation help, academic advising, and advocacy for students, monitoring of academic progress and institutional integration. It is important to note that this model is not only centralized at the mentees academics but also takes into account their psychosocial wellbeing.



2.2.2 Structured Learning Assistance (SLA)

Structured Learning Assistance was established in 1994 targeting all registered students. Academic programs were conducted through workshops which were compulsory for the mentee until certain academic results were achieved as seen at Ferris State University in 2007. Milne *et al.* (2007), further stipulate that this model emphasizes the development of contextual learning skills.

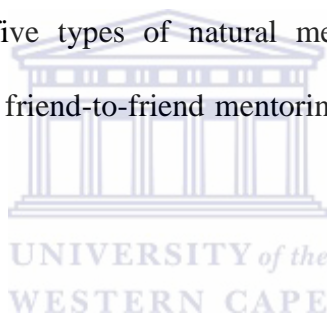
2.3 STRUCTURE OF UWC PMP PROGRAMME

According to Dorsey & Baker, (2004) the structure of mentoring programs refers to the form or arrangement that mentoring takes. Dorsey and Baker identified formal and informal

mentoring as the two main forms or types of mentoring, which can also be termed planned / structured and natural / spontaneous mentoring, respectively.

2.3.1 Informal Mentoring

Informal or natural mentoring, also termed spontaneous mentoring, is characterized by a relaxed environment in which the mentoring relationship develops spontaneously (Jano, 2008). The mentoring relationship is based on the need and interpersonal attraction and continues as long as needs are being met (Dorsey & Baker, 2004). Megginson and Clutterbuck (1997) also termed this type of mentoring ‘organically grown’ as it develops naturally and is not monitored. In an investigation on natural mentoring relationships, Philip and Hendry (2000) identified five types of natural mentoring and these are: classical mentoring, individual mentoring, friend-to-friend mentoring, peer group mentoring and long term mentoring.



2.3.2 Formal Mentoring

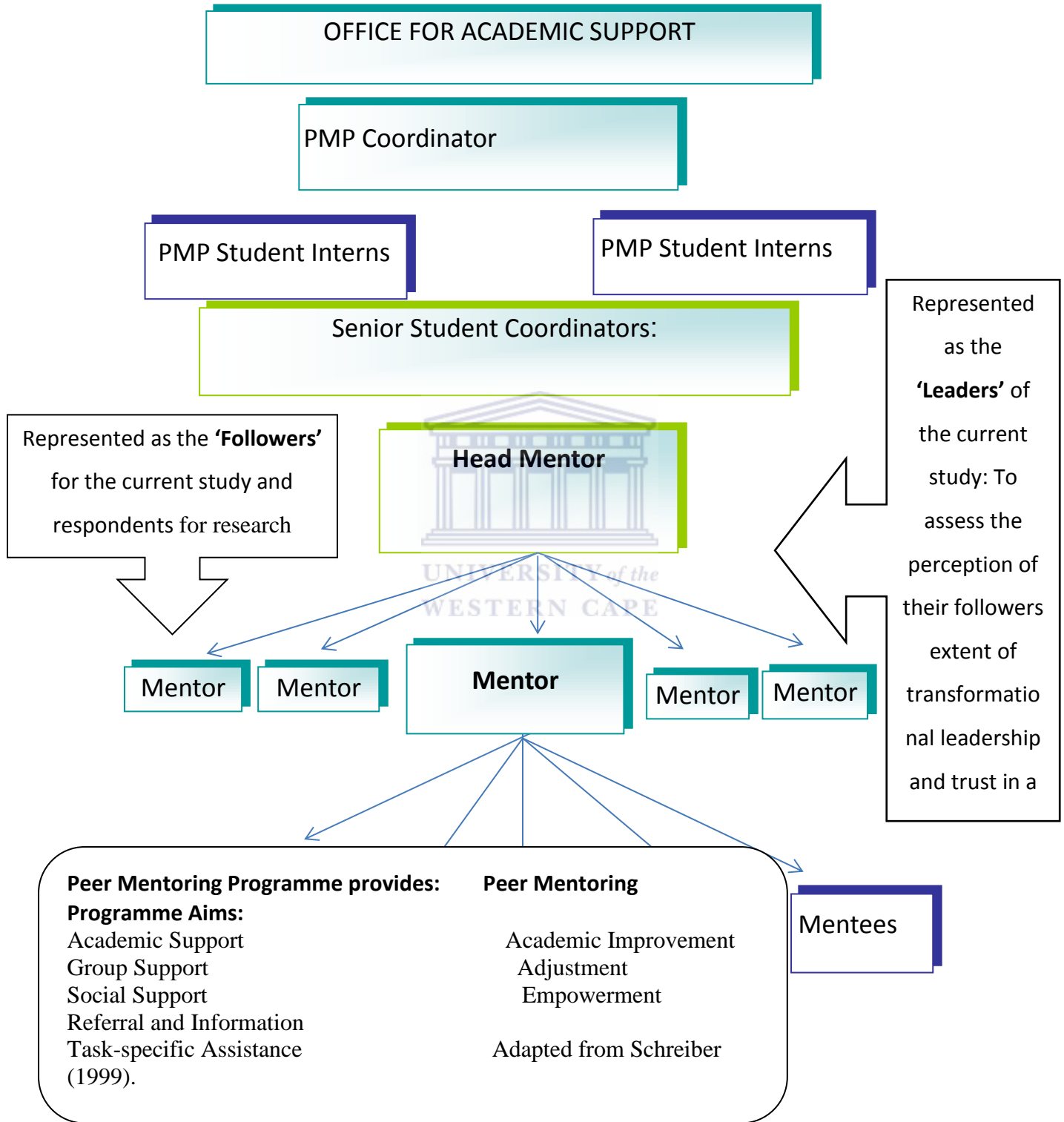
Formal mentoring (planned / structured) occurs through structured programmes in which the mentors and the participants are selected and matched through a formal process (Jano, 2008). Dorsey and Baker, (2004) further asserted that formal mentoring is designed to accomplish specific goals, with a coordinator to oversee operations (monitoring), evaluating the progress and has a time duration.

The UWC Peer Mentoring Programme represents an appropriate example of formal mentoring as mentors, head mentors and SSC's undergo precise competency based selection criterion, and are selected based on their academic excellence, community involvement and leadership ability (Naidoo, 1994). According to the programme's recruitment mandate as

reflected in the UWC's PMP protocol document 2012, mentors undergo a formal application process to qualify as eligible mentors. Applicants are required to complete an application form and present with their latest academic results. Successful applicants then proceed to an individual competency based interview and group interview. Within the group interviews, the mentors are assessed based on eight interpersonal skills which include communication skills, stress tolerance, leadership, negotiation, team work, initiative, planning and organisation. Final acceptance is confirmed based on the final academic results received in December. This confirms the literature of Terrion and Leonard (2007), who avers academic achievement as an appreciated characteristic of an ideal mentor.

Head Mentors' recruitment is a largely internal recruitment process with applicants comprising of mentors who possess at least one year's worth of experience in the programme, and who have exhibited leadership potential and capabilities and maintained their academic success. Senior Student Coordinators (SSC) is selected from a pool of head mentors that have displayed sufficient competency development to be groomed further into the role of the SSC. The role of the SSC requires strong administration and organizational skills as they are required to collate and track the development of all first year mentees within the program for reporting purposes. They serve as points of reference for head mentors on matters of escalation and assist interns in the PMP programme with payment claims, special projects and adhoc office duties. Figure 1 depicts a conceptual illustration of the Peer Mentoring Programme.

FIGURE 1: UWC PEER MENTORING PROGRAMME 2012



Although the role of the SSC is considered more senior in the structure of the programme, the role of the head mentor is more directly integral to the development of his/her followers (mentors) and therefore, more influential to the programmes overall success (L. Permall, personal communication, November 12, 2012). Head Mentors are divided per faculty as mentors are linked to mentees (as best as possible) by identical registered academic streams and faculties. Each head mentor is allocated six mentors on average and is responsible for ensuring that the mentees of his/her mentors receive the required support, mentoring sessions and overall benefit of the training provided by the Office for Academic Support. The mentor assists the mentee with process related issues, task specific problems or refers the mentee to a better equipped person or to a service centre (Schreiber, 1999). Mentors are monitored by head mentors who are responsible for ensuring that the mentors fulfil their roles by meeting the developmental needs of their mentees. Mentees are comprised of first year students that sign up as an indication of their interest in the programme (PMP Protocol document, 2012). This sign up process is facilitated during the orientation period and is time based as mentees may opt not to enrol into the program in the second semester. Although awareness drives are aimed predominantly during the university's orientation period, mid academic year 'walk in' mentee applications and referrals are also accepted. The programme is evaluated each year by both the mentors and the mentees, with findings and feedback presented to OAS, CSSS and RCS, respectively.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

2.4.1 Mentoring

The concept of mentoring is not a new one as Kram (1985) argued. Mentoring traces back to 1200 BC and was acquired from Homer's Odyssey of ancient Greek Mythology. According

to the tale, Odysseus entrusted his son's development to his wise friend –Mentor, who was to provide guidance and counsel on all aspects needed for Telemachus advancement (Hamilton, 1942 cited in Hofmeister, Cigularov, Sampson, Rosecrance & Chen 2011).

In keeping with its original conception, traditional mentoring denotes a reciprocal relationship between a more experienced individual and a less experienced one. Thus, according to Terrion and Leonard (2007), traditional mentoring consists of hierarchical relationships in which the mentor is considerably older and more experienced than the mentee/ protégé.

2.4.2 Mentee

A mentee is described as an achiever “groomed” for advancement by being provided opportunities to excel beyond the limits of his or her position (Amos & Pearse, 2002). Among the expected characteristics of mentees for a functional mentoring relationship, they must be eager to learn, patient, risk-takers, convey positive attitudes and be able to work as team players (Evans, 2000).

2.4.3 Mentor

Today the term mentor is understood to describe a wise and trusted advisor, counsellor or teacher, who has something to offer or is able to meet the needs of the other person (Dorsey & Baker, 2004). According to Amos and Pearse (2002), a mentor is an experienced manager who provides guidance and direction to a junior or mentee to facilitate the mentee's personal and career development. Evans (2000) also describes a mentor as one who often acts as a partner, providing mentees with the tools, support and structure to achieve more than they might be able to do by themselves. Focusing on these two particular definitions, the

researcher highlighted concepts such as the provision of guidance, direction, support and structure from the mentor to the mentee/ protégé.

2.4.4 Characteristics of an Ideal Mentor

There are certain aspects or characteristics expected in an ideal mentor and a variety of scholars have explored these features. With reference to particular characteristics of an ideal mentor, the following are evident:

a) Experience

This refers to the mentor's experience in a particular field or area of operation. With particular reference to tertiary educational institutions, it is important that student peer mentors have certain knowledge of the university environment which is something acquired through successful completion of at least a portion of their university studies (Terrion & Leonard, 2007). More importantly, McLean (2004) discovered that student mentees look for senior mentors in whom they confide because they feel that senior students are better able to provide valuable advice and to consult regarding even more serious concerns.

b) Academic Achievement

Research suggests that it is reasonable to assume that student peer mentors should have achieved a level of academic success that gives them credibility in the eyes of the students they mentor (Terrion & Leonard, 2007). Academic orientation and the need for achievement have also been identified as characteristics of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

c) Trustworthiness

According to Beebe, Beebe, Redmond and Geerinck (2004), in order for a stable relationship to develop, mentors must be perceived as trustworthy, which is a measure of degree to which interpersonal partners perceive that it is safe to disclose personal information. Thus, Beebe *et al.* (2004) accentuate the importance of trust within mentor-mentee relationships as it leads to functional mentoring relationships. According to studies conducted (Conger, Kanungo & Menon, 2000; Gillespie & Mann, 2004), leaders who demonstrated respect and concern by understanding their followers individual areas of strength and weaknesses were described as trustworthy. The perception of trustworthiness held by the follower of his/her leader is equally as imperative in the transformational leadership relationship. Studies (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) indicated a direct relationship between transformational leadership and trust, as transformational leaders are required to first earn the trust as this is integral in mobilizing followers commitment towards the leaders' vision. Another study conducted by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) reflected that trust, considered as faith and loyalty to the leader, was significant to transformational leadership.

d) Empathy

The characteristic of empathy is defined as an intellectual identification with or vicarious experience of the feelings, thoughts or attitudes of another (Lahey, Trant, Verderber & Verderber, 2005). Research conducted by Enrich, Hansford and Tennent (2004) has illustrated supportiveness as one of the most important components of an effective mentoring relationship. Findings (Noe, 1998; Pitney & Ethlers, 2004), postulate that the most commonly cited positive outcomes for mentees was the support they received from the mentoring relationships (42.1%). This support can be conveyed to mentees in the form of words of

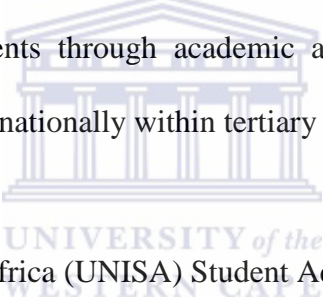
encouragement and demonstrating an eagerness to help. Allen (2003) postulates that highly empathetic individuals may be better able to foster the intimacy and trust that are central to the psychosocial dimension of mentoring.

e) Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is described in terms of the mentor's high energy level correlating with the increased perseverance in the face of struggles in the mentoring relationship (Tindall, 1995). Thus, mentors need to be perceived as having the energy to continue being supportive even when things are not going well in a relationship (Terrion & Leonard, 2007). Enrich *et al.* (2004) state that mentees are adversely affected when their mentor fails to show interest.

2.4.5 South African Universities Mentoring Initiatives

The recent introduction of mentoring initiatives to South African universities has led to the development of new types of mentoring which include peer mentoring, co-mentoring, developmental alliances, situational or spot mentoring (which is short term and goal specific), group mentoring and e-mentoring (Angelique, Kyle & Taylor, 2002). With specific reference to peer mentoring, Kram and Isabella (1985) considered peer mentoring to be based on the traditional mentoring model in which an older, more experienced person serves one of the two functions: a task-related/career related function or a psychosocial function. Therefore, mentoring has been in existence for decades within communities, professional organizations and has also been introduced to educational institutions. According to Schreiber (1999), the last two decades have seen a surge in the influx of formalised mentoring programs in international universities and as of the last decade, adopted by national universities as a measure to:

- a) Achieve employment equity and create development opportunities in the higher education workplace by providing the necessary support and sponsorship for junior academics (Frantz, Rhoda, Rowe, Phillips, Karachi, Menzana, Steyl & Struthers, 2010; Webster & Metcalfe, 2008).
- b) Contribute to uplifting communities through the use of outreach projects and community engagement. An example of this would be UWC's Diversion Into Music Programme and University of Port Elizabeth's Training for a national mentoring programme.
- c) Creating a centrally coordinated and institution wide mentoring programme initiative dedicated to advancing students through academic and psychosocial support. A few examples of these were found nationally within tertiary institutions are as follows:
- 
- The University of South Africa (UNISA) Student Advice Bureau: Cape Town
 - Rhodes University School of Pharmaceutical Science has implemented a mentoring programme
 - The University of Stellenbosch initiated an inter university Mentor Day exchange with UWC to share best practices and identify areas of future collaboration (CSSS: Office for Academic Support, 2011)
 - University of the Western Cape: The Goldfields Resource Centre situated on campus has implemented a Peer Supported Science Programme as well as the Faculty of Dentistry to increase the rate of graduation (Schreiber, 1999).

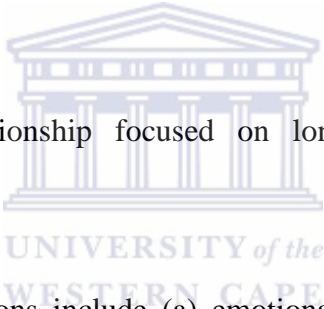
The conceptualisation and implementation of Growing our own Timber (GooT) programme launched at the University of Witwatersrand was the first of its kind to be implemented in a

South African university (Metcalf, 2008). This initiative received donor sponsorship and led to the creation of 30 contracts for three year associate/junior lecturer tenures purposed for black postgraduates who were interested in becoming professional academics. Mentees were paired with mentors who had acquired seniority and expertise within their academic field. The programme was specifically developed to doubly redress the unequal distribution of academic positions within the university. It was also aimed at attracting, recruiting and retaining black postgraduate students by providing them with the financial means needed for the completion of their studies as well as career related, developmental and psychosocial support (Metcalf, 2008).

2.4.6 Peer Mentoring Relationships

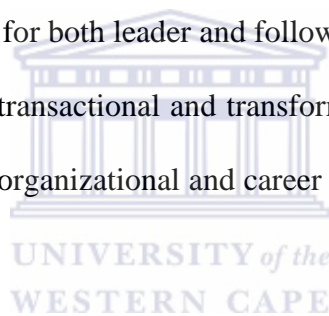
Considerable models of mentoring have been developed within the existence of peer mentoring and ambiguities exist when attempting to concisely define terms such as peer and their scope within mentoring. With particular reference to models of mentoring in tertiary education institutions, research (Arendale, 2005) indicates that dominant models of peer mentoring had been developed in North America as at 1960 and since then newer models have emerged, some sharing a common history and seeking to improve past practices and others being developed independently. Topping and Ely (1998) depict this point illustrating that peers are generally viewed as sharing a social group, yet some peer mentoring programmes like that of a study conducted at a Victoria University in Australia, include mentor-mentee relationships which cross year cohorts and age groups. There is a wide range of literature (Terrion & Leonard, 2007) defining peer mentoring with an overlap in key terms, creating some sense of vagueness on identifying an appropriate definition.

On the functions of peer mentoring, there has also been rife debate on the activities encompassing peer mentoring as some institutions distinguish ‘peer tutoring’ from ‘peer mentoring’ with the latter being more academic (Falchikov, 2001; Topping & Eyly, 1998). Yet other studies conducted such as the research conducted at Victoria University’s peer mentoring programme, uses ‘peer mentoring’ as a blanket term (Milne *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, this research positions itself to rest upon Wilde and Schau’s (1992) assertion that although extensive work is written in both professional and popular literature about peer mentoring, one concise, accepted definition of peer mentoring is yet to be developed. However, this research takes into account one author’s (Jacobi, 1991 cited in Schreiber, 1999 p.12) attempt to summarize the most central components of mentoring and these are as follows:

- 
- a) A nurturing relationship focused on longer term and broadly defined achievements;
 - b) The central functions include (a) emotional and psychological support, (b) direct assistance with career/professional development, (c) role modeling;
 - c) Reciprocity is characteristic of the relationship especially in terms of benefits derived for both mentor and mentee;
 - d) The relationship is primarily personal; and
 - e) The mentor has greater experience and knowledge with the particular system / context.

2.5 ORIGINS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In 1978 Burns proposed the theory of Transforming Leadership. This theory of leadership was first presented in a qualitative analysis piloted using the biographies of political leaders (Burns, 1978; Pillai *et al.*, 2000). Burns (1978) noted that the majority of leadership modules and practices were based on transactional processes that focused on exchanges between the leader and follower, such as promotion for excellent work or punishment for being late. The published work saw Burns (1978) classifying leadership as transforming/transformational in response to changes in performance and outlook evidenced in both leader and follower as a result of the leadership relationship (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). This leadership relationship process involved one or more persons engaging with others in a way that facilitated higher levels of motivation and morality for both leader and follower. The work of Burns (1978) not only led to the inception of the transactional and transformational leader construct, but was later extended and applied to the organizational and career context through the works of Bass (1985).



Transactional leadership is defined as the exchange which occurs between leader and follower, in which the follower receives valued outcomes when he or she acts in accordance with the desires of the leader (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). Avolio and Bass (2002), stipulates that this exchange is characterized by contingency awards and active management by exception. Management-by-exception refers to the practice of leaders to actively enforce rules in an effort to avoid mistakes and/or limit transgressions (Avolio *et al.*, 1999). Contingent reward behaviours include comprehensible instructions issued from the leader as to inform his/her followers what is required from them in order to obtain desired rewards. Incentives and conditional rewards are used to motivate followers. Management-by-exception style may also take the form of passive leadership which either sees the manager

take a reactive stance and await for problems to occur rather than precipitate it with corrective action, or is *laissez-faire* and avoids taking any action at all (Bass, 1998).

Transformational leadership is defined by the exchange in which leaders affect followers through the process of idealized influence; motivate them by making them more aware of the importance of values and goals; engage followers through innovative problem solving; and provide guidance and support towards individual followers' areas of development (Bass 1985). According to Bass (1985), followers in turn demonstrate respect, admiration and trust for the leader. While transactional leaders seek to gratify followers' immediate self-interests, transformational leaders seek to inspire and elevate followers beyond their own individual self-interests (Bass, 1999).



Transactional and transformational leadership, according to Bass (1985), rests on a shared leadership continuum, thereby leaving the degree of separation between the two constructs not easily defined. Leaders are also open to operate under the guise of a transformational, transactional or *laissez faire* leader, with change in direction and participation namely; directive-participative as the situation requires (Bass, 1999). Therefore, every leader possesses a blend of both transformational and transactional factors (Bass, 1999).

It is important to note that study results have indicated leaders who are more satisfying towards followers' needs, and those who are more effective as leaders, are more transformational and less transactional (Bass & Avolio, 1991). Empirical evidence gathered on transformational leadership has consistently demonstrated that this approach is capable of producing significant outcomes such as meaningful leadership (House & Baetz, 1990; House & Podsakoff, 1996) and higher levels of trust in management (Ferres, Travaglione, &

Connell, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000). Transformational leadership has also been related to a number of positive outcomes, including trust and respect for the leader, procedural justice and organizational performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen & Theron, 2005). However, transformational leadership enhances the efficacy of transactional leadership but does not replace it (Walman, Bass & Yammarino, 1990 cited in Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Bass (1999) reiterated that the best of leadership is both transactional and transformational.

2.6 THE EVOLUTION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The style of transformational and transactional leadership possesses a foundation in strong philosophical and ethical components to which authentic leaders consider it a moral obligation to adhere (Bass, 1999). Burns (1978) conducted a study examining the morality of the transformational leader and found that in order for a leader to be transformational, the leader needed to be morally uplifting. However, Howell and Avolio (1992) opposed this argument and specified that only leaders who were concerned with the greater good could truly be considered transformational. Since the inception of transformational leadership, the construct has received much criticism which can largely be attributed to the exclusive pursuits and individual interests of a select amount of leaders operating under the guise of being transformational (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Bass (1999) explains that this has led researchers to question the ethical regard of the leadership type and the general concept of transformational leadership as a whole. The motivational appeals of the authentic transformational leader are purposed to draw out the best in people with consideration on harmony, good works and charitable efforts. On the other hand, the inspirational appeal of pseudo leaders are used to mislead, deceive and

prevaricate by inciting responses of fear and anger to unreal dangers from their followers (Bass, 1999). Therefore, it is the absence or presence of a moral basis that creates the distinction between authentic transformational and pseudo-transformational leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998). While authentic and pseudo leaders may fail to exhibit one or more of the four transformational leadership characteristics, the component which is likely to be missing in the pseudo transformational leader is individualized consideration (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1992). Based on the teaching of Socrates and Confucius, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999, p. 8) states those transformational leaders: “Takes the interests of others seriously and is forgetful of self alone”.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999, p. 9) likened the teachings of Socrates and Confucius to a ‘mentoring method’ and further postulate that the aim of mentoring is to strive towards being “a superior person or a lover of wisdom”. While authentic transformational leaders are concerned with developing their followers into leaders, pseudo leaders are more orientated towards maintaining the dependency of their followers. Pseudo leaders will welcome and expect the blind obedience of their followers, of whom they secretly hold in contempt and use as a means to attain more power through the use of fantasy and magic in their vision. Authentic transformational leaders however, envision attainable and realistic goals for followers to achieve (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

2.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to Bass and Avolio (1994) the following four components define a transformational leadership model: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. An overlap exists within the research of transformational leadership and that of charismatic leadership. According to researchers

(Conger & Kanungo, 1988 as cited in Bass, 1998; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993), these aforementioned components also encompass charismatic leadership. Bass (1999) purports that a leader who possesses all four elements will constitute an inspiring visionary, be much-admired and a respected role model.

2.7.1 Idealized Influence/Charisma

Bass and Avolio (1990) defined idealized influence as the influential impact in relation to the selfless ideals, for those who have attained the highest level of morality, to which the leaders and followers dedicate themselves. The authors chose to substitute the term ‘charisma’ within training and elsewhere for the term ‘idealized influence’ (Bass & Avolio, 1991). According to Ngodo (2008), idealized influence is a behavioural or personality composite which enables the transformational leader to provide a vision. By doing so, the leader instils a sense of mission, pride and gains the respect and trust of followers. Morden (1997, cited in De Kock & Slabbert, 2003) also asserts that one of the central tasks of a leader is the crafting of vision and furthermore argues that leadership is in essence a visionary concept. Therefore, idealized influence from a leader according to Rowold and Heintz (2007) serves to not only transform followers by creating changes to their values, achievement, orientation and aspirations, but accomplishes this by positioning the leader as a trustworthy and active role model for followers to aspire towards (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio 1994). A distinction between pseudo and authentic transformational leadership rests in the values for which they are idealized for. The authentic transformational leader calls for unity and universal brotherhood, whereas the pseudo transformational leader creates a ‘we versus they’ distinction that hinders optimal collaboration (Bass, 1985).

2.7.2 Inspirational Motivation

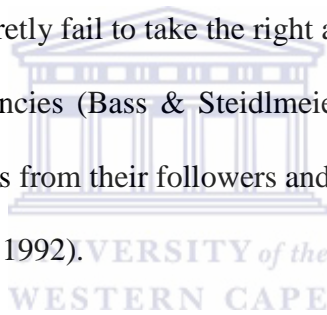
Inspirational motivation is characterized by the transformational leader's ability to communicate high expectations, use symbols to focus efforts and to successfully articulate important purposes in simple ways (Bass & Avolio 1994). The inspiration component provides followers with stimulating challenges and meaning to engage and contribute towards shared goals (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). This behaviour evokes a strong affective reaction in followers by having them identify with their leader. It also seeks to elevate the level of follower maturity. There is also evidence of an increase in the level of concern for the well-being of others, community and overall society (Bass, 1998).

Bass (1999) describes idealized influence and inspirational motivation, when the leader is able to a) envision a desirable future, b) clearly expresses how it can be attained, c) demonstrate through personal example the way forward, d) sets high standards for followers to emulate and, e) shows determination and confidence. Previous research (Bass, 1985) indicated that the dynamics for pseudo and authentic transformational leaders would be identical irrespective of the virtuous or evil aims as those were outputs which would not affect their influence. However, further research conducted by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) reframed this to now indicate that authentic transformational leaders are outwardly as well as inwardly concerned for the greater good. This is as opposed to the pseudo leader who may present as being identically transformative outwardly, but truly only be concerned for the good they are able to garner for themselves.

2.7.3 Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is displayed when a leader promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Intellectual stimulation refers to the

behaviour that endorses followers to solve problems utilizing creative means and considering new perspectives (Carson, 2011). The contribution of followers' ideas towards their goals ensures the presence of follower commitment and interest towards the accumulation of further knowledge. To intellectually stimulate followers, the leader must be sensitive towards follower skills, interest and abilities and have a sound grasp of the extent to which a follower can be challenged. Hence, the transformational leader's practice of endorsing and incorporating their followers in innovative ways will result in flexible and ever developing goals for the followers (Bass, 1985). Authentic leaders openly bring about change in their followers' values by highlighting the relevance and merits of the intended changes. On the other hand, pseudo leaders may create the impression that their means and methods are right and above reproach, they will secretly fail to take the right actions when those actions conflict with their own narcissistic tendencies (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Pseudo leaders are less likely to listen to conflicting views from their followers and are more likely to be intolerant of such opinions (Howell & Avolio, 1992).



2.7.4 Individualized Consideration

Research indicates that leaders with individualized consideration treats each follower as an individual and exhibit great consideration for individual followers needs through acting as a guide and mentor (Avolio *et al*, 1999). There is a belief that each individual follower possesses dignity and moral standing. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) have likened the teachings of Socrates and Confucius to that of the individual consideration component of transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio (1993) affirm that this component of transformational leadership is characterized by the leader providing followers with personal attention and a supportive climate where followers are carefully listened to, this includes:

“Knowing your followers needs and raising them towards more mature levels...using delegation to provide opportunities for each follower to self-actualize and to attain higher standards of moral development” (Bass & Avolio, 1993 as cited in Bass, 1999, p.64).

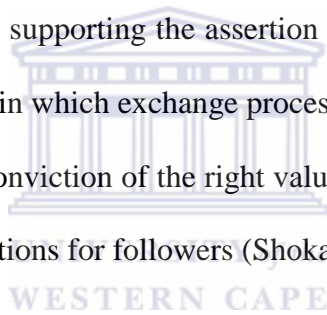
Therefore, for a leader to know his/her followers’ needs, is to ensure that the individual developmental needs of the followers are addressed (Hegstad & Wentling , 2005; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004; Yukl, 2002 as cited in Ngodo, 2008). Leaders who practice the development of their followers by providing them with opportunities to solve complex problems and teaching them to address future problems independently, demonstrate commitment towards the development of their followers. This practice thereby serves to encourage followers expressing deeper levels of trust, hence, perceiving their leaders to be more supportive and caring (Burke *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, transformational leaders may impress a trusted influence on followers through commitment and empowerment. The followers themselves are empowered and reach higher levels of performance through trust, delegation, participation and coaching demonstrated by their leader (Bass, 1995). The trust that is necessary for the authentic relationship is lost by followers when the leaders’ reputation for telling the truth is compromised (Bass, 1998). Therefore, transformational leadership may only be considered to be authentic if it possesses the virtue of trustworthiness. No component of transformational leadership relies as heavily on the virtue of trust as that of individualized consideration (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

2.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF A TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADER

The characteristics below present a summary of the literature on examining transformational leadership. It is beyond the scope of the study to elaborate on all. However, those characteristics with relevance to the current research will be explored in this section.

2.8.1 Moral and Personal Development

According to Kuhnert and Lewis (1987, cited in Bass, 1999) mature moral development is needed for the transformational leader. The literature indicates results which support the theory that moral development instilled from parents and extracurricular activities at school increased the subsequent tendencies for individuals to be more transformational as adults (Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1999). Thus supporting the assertion that transformational leadership is a higher order form of leadership in which exchange processes with followers is characterised by the leaders ability to display conviction of the right values, beliefs and shared purpose that lead to long term positive implications for followers (Shokane, Stanz & Slabbert, 2004).



2.8.2 Need for Achievement

Bass (1985) indicated that transformational leaders are high in need for achievement. It has been suggested that in order to set challenging goals necessary to achieve their vision, leaders must possess and identify with an achievement orientation. Additionally, to stimulate followers and influence them to achieve beyond expectation, such leaders must be perceived as confident, competent and possessing a need for achievement themselves (Pillai *et al.*, 2003).

2.8.3 Emotional Empathy

Bass (1998) has suggested that empathy, a core component of Emotional Intelligence is linked to transformational leadership. According to Rehnshon (1998, cited in Pillai *et al.*, 2003, p. 219), empathic atonement is the “capacity to understand another by entering into an appreciation of the other’s experiences, expectations, and perspectives”. It is this connection that facilitates transformational leaders to successfully impact their vision on followers. By the transformational leaders’ ability to intuitively appraise how followers feel and emotionally influence them, they increase followers’ receptivity towards the goals needed for the greater good. Empathetic leaders are considered as having a greater likelihood towards effectively mentoring and developing their followers, a core requirement towards individualized consideration and therefore transformational leadership as a whole (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

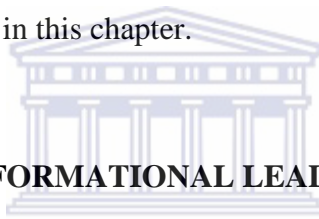


2.8.4 Diversity

Del Castillo (n.d. cited in Bass, 1999) considered cultural competency as a skill for maintaining a process of ethical balance between the rights of individual followers and responsibilities of the leader. Del Castillo further put forward four hallmarks of cultural competency which involves: a) understanding how individuals and groups perceive the world and develop conceptual schemas; b) understanding one’s own conceptual scheme; c) integrating other views into one’s own conceptual schemes; and d) valuing the diversity of all conceptual schemas. Bass (1999) indicates that Del Castillo considered transformational leaders to be more effective in valuing and adapting to diversity amongst their followers. This is because the intellectual stimulation component aids the leader in using new methods to deal with follower diversity and to be empathetic towards their followers’ different needs as individually considerate leaders.

2.8.5 Trust

While various spheres of leadership and its relation to trust have been tested, the most prevalent in the last decade was reported to have been transformational leadership (Burke *et al.*; 2007). In a related study, Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) reported that trust was the single most important variable moderating the effects of transformational leadership on the performance, attitudes, and job satisfaction of the followers. According to Zhang and Epley (2009) followers who have gone beyond their required scope to assist the leader in attaining goals, may expect a favour in return which is comparable to the cost, effort and inconvenience of the act. Failure to receive reciprocal measures can lead to resentment and distrust developing for the leader when the truth is stretched (Bass, 1998). A more detailed expository on the construct of trust is explored later in this chapter.



2.9 FOLLOWERS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Although a great deal of research exists documenting the effects on followers, Bass (1995) indicated that few studies were directed at understanding the psychological processes that occur in the dynamic process influenced by transformational leaders and their followers. Hence little attention has been paid to follower characteristics and behaviours (Bono & Judge, 2000) to explain the link towards transformational development.

Deserving emphasis are the processes which intervene between the leader's expression of values and followers' identification with it. In the interface between leaders and followers lie processes of persuasion and negotiation, and it is here where the leader's legitimacy as a representative of the group, organisation or society is crucial for success (Eagly, 2005). Eagly (2005) further asserts that negotiation between leaders and followers requires that followers accord their leader the right to convey and promote consensual values. However, the gender

of the leader may impact on the extent of followers personal and social identification with the (female) leader. Followers, according to Bass (1995), must develop an absolute emotional and cognitive identification with the leader. In addition, Burns (1978) considered transformational change as a dynamic, reciprocal engagement between leaders and followers, each inspiring the other to learn, adapt and change to ultimately arrive at innovative solutions which can in turn be transformative for both (Burns, 1978).

Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002) determined that there is a varying degree to which followers respond towards transformational leadership. These authors noted that people with a high need for flexibility, autonomy and creativity, intellectually respond to leadership with a higher degree than those who do not possess those characteristics. Research conducted by Shamir *et al.* (1993) has also indicated that transformational leaders positively increase followers' level of self-confidence by setting goals and expressing confidence in the followers' abilities to reach it. Trust, as a key process, which links transformational leadership and followers has also been empirically evident (Bono & Judge, 2000; Podaskoff *et al.*, 1990).

There has been speculation regarding the three types of individuals who would respond to or resist appeals of transformational leadership (Bono & Judge, 2000). The development of these three types were initially considered in the work of Bass (1985) where he indicated that cynical and distrusting individuals would be less likely to respond to the effects of emotional engagement. Bass (1985) additionally considered individuals that are highly intelligent, educated and independent would also be less likely to 'succumb to the bandishment... of the leader who emphasises emotional inspiration" (Bass, 1985, p.164). Furthermore the level of confidence and self esteem of the followers would also play a role in determining whether

followers would significantly respond to transformational leadership. Previous empirical research has indicated that followers with low self esteem would be more easily drawn to transformational leadership (Conger, 1999). A study conducted by Bono and Judge (2000), to test whether these above mentioned follower personality and ability components affected responses to transformational leadership, found little evidence to support the three type theory posited by (Bass, 1985; Bono & Judge, 2000).

Bono and Judge (2000), considered the lack of evidence to be attributed to the extensive range of studies conducted by Bass (1997; 1998; 1999) to support the ‘universality’ of transformational leadership and transcendence to not only organisations, but intercultural boundaries as well (Bass, 1997; Ferres *et al.*, 2002).

2.9.1 Transformational Leadership and Age

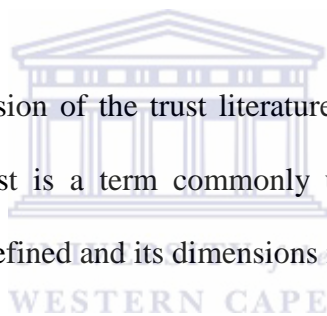
Compared to other dimensions of diversity (example race and gender), a number of scholars have noted that age has been less explored in the human resource management and organizational behaviour literature (Kaifi & Mujtaba, 2010). In a study by Kearney (2008) which tested whether age differences between leader and follower would act as a moderator between transformational leadership and team performance, found that it made a difference whether transformational leadership was provided by a leader who was older than or about the same age of the follower. Only in the former case was a positive relationship found. In a comparative study conducted by Kaifi and Mujtaba (2010), the prediction was made that Afghan and American respondents 25 years and under would have similar transformational leadership scores. The results of the study could not support this hypotheses as younger Afghan people had significantly higher transformational leadership scores than their American counterparts ($t=7.99$; $p < 0.001$) (Kaifi & Mujtaba, 2010).

2.9.2 Transformational Leadership and Gender

According to Bass (1999) women tend to be more transformational than their male counterparts, thus accompanied by greater satisfaction and effectiveness according to their male and female subordinates. However, these results may be inconclusive considering that the majority of studies were conducted in organisations which were predominantly male orientated (Bass, 1999). Studies which have used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to examine gender difference in transformational leadership levels, have reported conflicting findings (Avolio *et al.*, 1995; Bass, 1985). Studies which report differences between male and female leaders, effect sizes are small and therefore argued to be of no significance.

2.10 TRUST

Before proceeding with a discussion of the trust literature, it would be useful to provide a working definition of trust. Trust is a term commonly used within formal and informal discussions, but it is not clearly defined and its dimensions not fully integrated.



The definition developed by Lewicki, Mcallister and Bies (1998) provides a definition for the construct of trust as “confident positive expectations regarding another’s conduct” (Lewicki *et al.*, 1998, p. 439). This definition provides a concise view of trust based on the expectations of another individual’s conduct and the impact of influence on a dyadic level.

The most widely accepted definition of trust involves:

“the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995, p.729).

In the present study, the intentions or behaviours of the other party being considered are those of the transformational leader. Researchers on leadership view the component of trust to be essential to leadership (Bono & Judge, 2000, Ferrer *et al.*, 2002; Ngodo, 2008). Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002), have suggested that effective leaders are those whom earn the trust of their followers.

2.10.1 Types of Trust

Recent literature has outlined three types of trust (Bews, 2000, cited in Schlechter, 2005; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). These are calculus based trust, knowledge based trust and identification based trust. In calculus-based trust, decisions are principally based on the rationally derived costs and benefits (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Knowledge based trust is grounded in the other party's predictability or knowing the other party sufficiently well so that the other's behaviour is anticipated (Schlechter, 2005). Finally identification based trust symbolizes a significant degree of attachment to another individual or his/her group representatives (Schlechter, 2005).

In an attempt to integrate some of the research literature regarding the process by which trust forms and the nature of the construct itself, the proposal was made by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) that trust be viewed as two qualitatively different theoretical perspectives: relationship based perspective and character based perspective.

2.10.2 Relationship Based Perspective

The relationship based perspective focuses on the nature of the leader follower relationship and more specifically how the follower understands the nature of the relationship (Mayer *et*

al., 1995). Due to the principal/agent relationship between the follower and leader being tacit and informal rather than specified in a formal contractual agreement (as a follower may have with a lawyer, agent or any other consultant) this principal/agent relationship flourishes or withers based on the presence or lack of trust (Solomon, 1996). Transformational leadership supports the principles of the relationship based leadership and has also been identified to be one of the strongest predictors of trust in a leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Pillai *et al.*, 2003; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). These findings suggest that by acting as role models who are consistently perceived to equate morality, authenticity and act in the absence of personal agendas, transformational leaders inevitably gain the trust and respect of followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

A leader very often functions as an agent of followers interests (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998). It was suggested that trust is a vital antecedent of satisfaction with the leader because both originate from affective states (such as admiration of the leader) and cognitive states (example being, the leader is held in high esteem because of the capabilities and attributes) (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad & Abu Samah, 2008).

2.10.1.2 Character Based Perspective

The character based trust perspective in contrast, focuses on the perception of the leaders' character and how it impacts follower vulnerability in a hierarchical relationship (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). According to Mayer *et al.* (1995), trust is based on the notion that the trusting party is vulnerable to and relies on another party. Thus trust is the willingness to take risk and the outcome is risk taking in the relationship. According to Cook and Wall (1980), trust is defined as the extent to which a person is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of others. Mishra (1996) also defines trust as one

party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the belief that the latter party is a) competent, b) open, c) concerned and d) reliable. These definitions of trust signify an exchange relationship where the trustor is willing to engage in trust behaviours, risking vulnerability based on the belief that he / she will most likely not be exploited (Cook & Wall, 1980; Mishra, 1996). Schlinder and Thomas (1993) identified five key characteristics that determine trustworthiness in a leader which leads followers to the perception of trust within the leader. These factors are as follows:

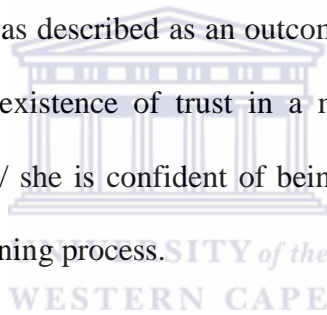
- a) Integrity – which is the perception of honesty and truthfulness that is crucial in trusting another person. Butler and Cantrell (1984) supported this factor further stipulating that without a perception of another person's moral character and basic honesty then the other dimensions of trust are meaningless.
- b) Competence – encompasses an individual's technical and interpersonal knowledge and skills.
- c) Consistency – relates to an individual's reliability, predictability and good judgment in handling situations.
- d) Loyalty – is the willingness to protect and save face for another person or to depend on someone else not to act opportunistically.
- e) Openness – refers to the extent to which one is able to rely on another person to tell the truth.

With reference to the trust literature proposed by Cook and Wall (1980) and Mishra (1996) it is important to note that for the purpose of this current study, the PMP respondent is perceived as the trustor and according to his / her own readiness, accredits the need for a positive expectation in their leader /head mentor.

2.12 PEER MENTORING AND TRUST

Previous sections have discussed the concepts of peer mentoring and trust, attributes of trust, determinants of trust and the effects of a trustworthy peer mentoring relationships. Referring to the second definition by Mishra (1996) it is also important to take into account the attributes of trust in a mentor as detailed within the literature, namely competence, openness, concern and reliability. Thus, a mentor is expected to prove these characteristics for the mentees to be willing to ascribe their trust in the peer mentoring relationship between them.

With reference to Mayer *et al.*'s (1995) definition of trust, its direct effect in a trustworthy relationship is risk taking. This was described as an outcome of trust. Kram (1985) supports this outcome, alluding that the existence of trust in a mentoring relationship allows the protégé to take risks because he / she is confident of being accepted by the mentor even if mistakes are made during the learning process.



2.13 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND TRUST

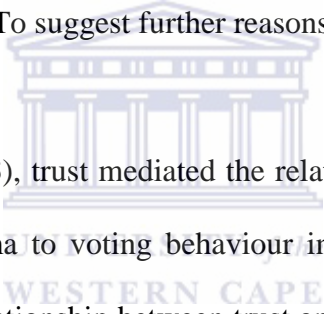
While examination across many spheres of leadership has been conducted with regards to the relation with trust, the most prevalent in the last decade has been that of transformational leadership and trust (Burke *et al.*; 2007). Transformational leadership has been found to be one of the strongest predictors of trust in a leader in several different studies (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Pillai *et al.*, 2003; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). These numerous findings suggest that by acting as role models who are consistently perceived as acting morally and authentically without personal agendas, transformational leaders inevitably gain the trust and respect of followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998).

Therefore, essentially leading towards followers expressing deeper levels of trust as they consider their leaders to be more supportive and caring (Bass, 1990; Burke et al., 2007). Therefore transformational leaders impresses a trusted influence on followers through commitment and empowerment. Empowerment is achieved by helping followers reach higher levels of performance through trust, delegation, participation and coaching (Boyle, 2003).

While variations do exist in relation to the specific behaviours required for transformational leadership, most theories posit trust as a central feature of the relationship (Ferres *et al.*, 2002; Pillai *et al.*, 2003). Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggested a direct relationship between transformational leadership and trust, as transformational leaders are required to first earn the trust, as this is integral towards mobilizing followers commitment towards the leaders vision (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985). The study of Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) reflected that trust, considered as faith and loyalty to the leader was significant to transformational leadership. Based on the work of Lewicki and Bunker (1996), trust was considered to result from a sense of identification with another's desires and intentions. Further, the activities that would strengthen identification based trust would develop through the emergence of a collective identity, joint ventures and commitment towards commonly shared aims and values. Findings also suggest that certain transformational leadership behaviours such as the provision of a competent role model, individualized support and fostering acceptance of collective goals, are consistently positively associated with trust in the leader (Mackenzie *et al.*, 2001; Ngodo, 2008; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990).

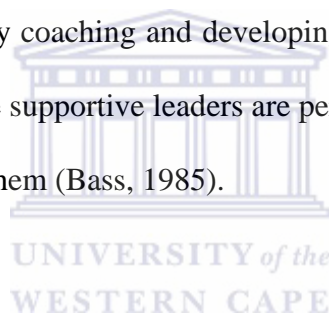
Findings on the exact relationship between transformational leadership and trust shows mixed and inconsistent findings. The empirical study of Ferres *et al.* (2001), which considered trust as a precursor to the mediating effect of transformational leadership, found evidence that the

hypothesis was not supported. A direct relationship between transformational leadership and trust was not found in the South African study conducted by Engelbrecht and Chamberlain (2005). A South African study conducted by Schlechter (2005), who sought to examine the roles of transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, trust, meaning and intention to quit on organizational citizenship behaviour across multiple organizations, found that a positive relationship existed between transformational leadership and trust ($t > 1.96$ at $t = 14.3487$) (Schlechter, 2005). Substantial correlations were also found between transformational leadership and trust in the leader ($r = 0.786$, $p < 0.01$) (Schlechter, 2005). According to Schlechter (2005), these inconsistent findings can be attributed to the differences in the samples that were used in these studies, as well as the different measures utilized to measure the variables. To suggest further reasons would be purely speculative.



In the study of Pillai *et al.* (2003), trust mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and attributed charisma to voting behaviour in the 2000 American presidential election. A positive and direct relationship between trust and transformational leadership was found in the study of Asgari, Silong, Ahmad and Abu Samah, (2008). Asgari *et al.* (2008) also purported that transformational leadership builds genuine trust between leaders and followers and therefore, trust is a good mediator between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour. The study conducted by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) which sought to examine the direct and indirect effects of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviour, discovered an indirect relationship that was mediated by followers trust in their leaders. The results indicated that transformational leadership influenced followers trust and trust in turn, influenced organizational behaviour.

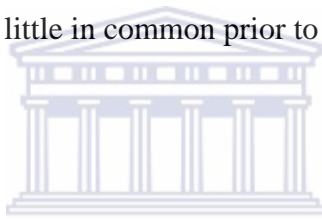
Bass (1999), proposed more work to be undertaken to examine mediating linkages of transformational leadership and confirmed trust as a potential mediator of transformational leadership effects. This calls for future research to be focused on the trust process as a way of extending and deepening understanding of the transformational process (Ngodo, 2008). There is also a need to study the various conditions that inhibit or promote the trust building relationship between the transformational leader and follower. Due to the distinct levels and conditions of trust and the various forms in which they manifest at differing levels and stages, Ngodo (2008), recommended that a longitudinal study of trust development and the role of transformational leadership in the process of trust be investigated. As Bass (1985) noted, leaders who encourage, teach and demonstrate to their followers how to approach complex or novel situations, are essentially coaching and developing them, which in turn leads to the building of trust. Hence, the more supportive leaders are perceived to be, the deeper and more enduring their followers trust in them (Bass, 1985).



2.14 FACTORS WHICH AFFECT MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Mentoring relationships can be described as a rapport which is developed between mentors and mentees bonded by trust, respect and belief in each other's ability and competence (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1997). In the university context, relationships seek to yield enhanced student learning outcomes, foster academic progression, improve learning and social support for new students, thereby promoting retention (Milne *et al.*, 2007). However, Daloz (1983, cited in Kram, 1983) described these relationships as one of the most complex and yet developmentally important relationships a person can have. In relation to transformational leadership, the mentee / protégé will be the follower.

Literature has stipulated a number of factors which affect mentoring relationships and these range from the mentor's characteristics to the structure of a mentoring programme. Other influencing factors include the mentor's academic abilities, competence and personal insight. With reference to the structure of a mentoring programme, Thomas, Willis and Davis (2007) asserted that the selection process for potential mentees may act as a potential barrier to a functional mentoring relationship due to ethical concerns. Despite the numerous factors influencing mentoring relationships which literature has shown, the researcher paid more attention to a specific number of factors undertaken by Smith (2006). These factors were role modelling, internal power dynamics, race and cultural differences and trust. These factors were considered based on their relevancy to the case study. Mentors within the case study represent a diversified group with little in common prior to university life.



2.14.1 Role-modelling

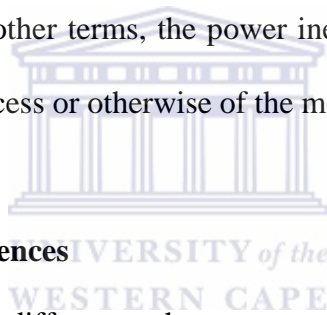
Smith (2006) describes role-modelling as an example set by a mentor and the mentee or protégé identifying with it. Kram (1985) further asserts that mentor's attitudes, values and behaviour provides a model for the mentee to emulate and he/she finds in the mentor a particular image of who he/she can become. Hence if the mentee can identify with the mentor and the mentor is able to view themselves in the mentee, one can agree that the functional mentoring relationship is likely to blossom.

Therefore, a head mentor practices the development of followers (mentors) as per the requirements of the role, however the role modelling is influenced by the extent of trust within the relationship and leader. As a head mentor encourages his/her follower through innovative problem solving and provides opportunities for engagement and learning, the

follower learns to address future problems independently and demonstrate the same level of commitment towards the development of their (mentees) followers.

2.14.2 Internal Power Dynamics

Power dynamics reflect the power imbalances between the two individuals in the mentoring relationship (Smith, 2006). In a mentoring relationship, the power holder who is the mentor has an opportunity to present knowledge and skills exposing the less powerful individual to influence (Barting, Fullagar & Blum, 1986, cited in Smith 2006). Therefore, the extent of individual power or influence of the mentor over the mentee has a direct effect on the success of the mentee (Smith, 2006). In other terms, the power inequalities between the mentor and the mentee can determine the success or otherwise of the mentoring relationship.

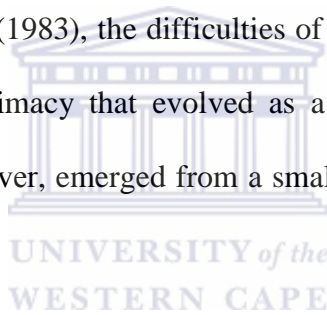


2.14.3 Race and Cultural Differences

On this topic of race and cultural difference, the concepts of mixed or diversified mentoring and homogenous mentoring arises. With particular reference to the South African context, issues of race and culture are sensitive, taking into account the effects of the apartheid regime (Smith, 2006). Smith (2006) stipulates that black and white people have distinct histories resulting in significant differences between the enjoyments' of many privileges. Therefore, in cases of diversified mentoring where the mentors and the mentees differ in group membership for example, race, ethnicity, gender, class and disability, this can severely impact the mentoring relationship. Comparatively, in cases of homogenous relationships, Ragins (1997) noted that individuals who are members of similar race and cultural groups are more likely to identify with each other because of shared experiences and resulting social identities thereby leading to more likely functional relationships.

2.14.4 Gender Differences in Mentoring

Bowen (1985) asserts that given the role of modelling within the mentoring relationship, cross gender mentoring is less than ideal as outside speculation may far outweigh any potential benefits of the relationship. Jacobi (1991) states that higher education literature is divided regarding the benefits of same sex mentoring. Many higher education programmes adhere to same gender mentoring as a result of this (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). The Peer Mentoring programme pairs mentors to mentees based on common academic aspirations and not on the basis of gender (Schreiber, 1999). Bowen (1985) found that female mentees identified as much with their male mentors as they did with females mentors. In the study conducted by Kram (1983), the difficulties of mixed gender centred around role modelling and the increased intimacy that evolved as a direct result of the relationship. Kram's (1983) conclusions however, emerged from a small sample of mentor/mentee paired in an organisational setting.



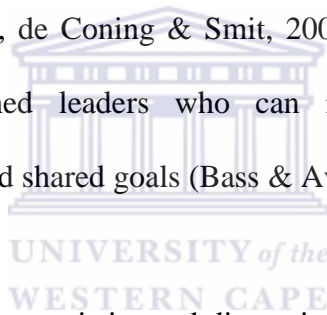
2.14.5 Trust

With reference to Mayer *et al.*'s (1995) definition of trust, its direct effect in a trustworthy relationship is risk taking which was mentioned as an outcome of trust. Kram (1985) supports this outcome, alluding that the existence of trust in a mentoring relationship allows the protégé to take risks because he / she is confident of being accepted by the mentor even if mistakes are made during the learning process. Protégés / mentees have reported that they are most likely to seek advice and information from the mentors at critical moments such as career or life transitions. Thus, according to Dymock (1999) the degree of trust in a mentoring relationship influences the amount of organizational learning by protégés.

2.15 CONCLUSION

The characteristics purported for an ideal mentor namely; experience, academic achievement, supportiveness, trustworthiness, empathy and enthusiasm appears to overlap with the characteristics and traits of a transformational leader (Tichy & Devanna, 1986 cited in Denton & Vloeberghs, 2002).

Transformational and transactional leadership have been defined specifically through their leader characteristic components (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Charisma, attention to individualized development, and the ability and willingness to provide intellectual stimulation are critical aspects for leaders to practice in environments that call for a need of development and change (Visser, de Coning & Smit, 2005). Problems, rapid changes, and uncertainties call for determined leaders who can inspire followers to participate enthusiastically in team efforts and shared goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994).



Taking all the various authors characteristics and dimensions into account, it is evident that a transformational leader is a person who can effectively support followers through change.

The concept of peer mentoring for UWC's PMP extends beyond the mere transmission of subject matter, providing assistance with university resources or the provision of support. Peer mentoring is a valuing and transforming relationship in which the head mentor and overall programme is actively invested in the development of mentors and mentees at all levels. As such it must be viewed as a nurturing process in which the head mentor (leader) serves as a role model, tutor, confider and friend to the mentor (follower) with the end goal of promoting the growth of both mentor (follower) and their respective mentees. This relationship cannot develop optimally without the head mentor being perceived as trustworthy and possessing integrity. Leaders who demonstrate respect and concern for their

followers, by understanding individual areas of strength and weaknesses, are viewed as trustworthy according to the empirical research conducted by Conger et al, (2000) and Gillespie and Mann, 2004).The mentors are required to be open to trust in order to avail themselves of the full coaching experience provided from their head mentors. Once trust is established in a mentoring relationship, the involved individuals will be able to look past issues such as race, historical differences, ethnicity and socio-political backgrounds, (Smith, 2006). The next chapter will discuss the research methodology for the present study.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter provides an outline of the research design and the investigative procedures used in this study. The sample is described with reference to the selection procedure adopted and the characteristics of the sample. The measuring instruments used are introduced and their aims, nature and composition are briefly discussed. Finally, the objectives of the study are stated briefly and the data analysis techniques are presented.

3.2 SAMPLING DESIGN

3.2.1 Population

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a population can be defined as a specified aggregation of a study of elements. Hence, a population refers to the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate.

The population used in this study are the Head Mentors and mentors who are presently in the Peer Mentoring Programme of the University of the Western Cape. The mentors will be required to provide feedback on their head mentor and assess his/her leadership competency. For the purpose of this study they (mentors) will be described as mentee's as they are mentored by the head mentors.

3.2.2 Sample

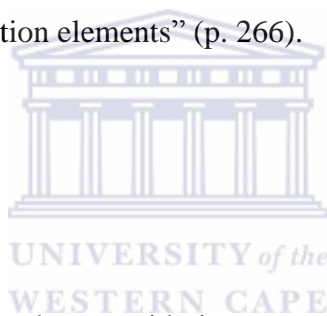
Sekaran (2001), purports a sample to be a subset of a population, and comprises of some members selected from a population. Therefore, some but in most cases not all elements of a population are included in the sample. Hence, studying a sample rather than an entire

population has its benefits, since it leads to outcomes which are more reliable. This is because there will be fewer errors in data collection than if the entire population were tested.

Where 15 people are chosen from a population of 200, then the selected 15 would be considered as the sample. By studying the sample, the researcher is able to draw conclusions generalizable to the population of interest.

Sekaran (2003, p. 266), maintains that sampling is:

“The process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for one to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements” (p. 266).



3.2.2.1 Intended Sample Size

The sample size is a critical factor when considering a sample. Sekaran (2001) asserts that the sample size has to be adequate for the desired level of precision and confidence. Therefore the sampling decision should consider the sampling design and the sample size.

Sekaran (2001) suggests the following guidelines with regards to sample size:

- a) Sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research;
- b) Where samples are to be broken into subsamples (male/females, juniors/seniors, etc.), a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is necessary;
- c) In multivariate research (including multiple regression analyses), the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 times or more) as large as the number of variables in the study;

- d) For simple experimental research with tight experimental controls. Successful research is possible with samples as small as 10 to 20 in size.

The research population used for this study consisted of a mentoring programme within the University of the Western Cape. At the start of the academic year within 2012, 180 mentoring positions were successfully filled. This amount consisted of 150 mentors and 30 Senior/Head mentors respectively.

The population of the stated research however experienced a decline post June 2012 to 150 overall as a natural result of internship requirements, realignment of classes that created time clashes or academic purposes. Data was therefore collected post August 2012 which allowed head mentors to fully establish and build relationships with their first time mentors. The population of the stated research consisted of 150 mentors which represented the followers of Head Mentors for the current research. Due to the small population, all members of the population was selected to be part of the sample.

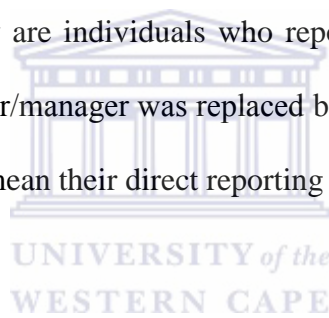
All respondents were students enrolled in their second academic year (at least) at the University at the Western Cape as per the requirements of the PMP programme. Given a population of 150 mentors in a mentoring programme, Sekaran (2003) suggests that a sample of 80 would constitute an acceptable sample size. This, moreover, ensures the researcher is confident of the findings as a large sample is argued to counteract the assumption that a convenience or non-probability sample was used (Sekaran, 2003). The researcher collected 84 answered surveys however, due to 30 questionnaires missing data, 30 responses were eliminated and only 54 responses were used. The biographical information of these 54 respondents was used. This presents a 56% response rate with 36% usable responses.

3.2.3. Sampling Technique

Information can be gathered from various sources and as Sekaran (2003) indicated; interviewing, questionnaires and direct observation are three of the more popular methods used in terms of obtaining information for research. The research instrument used in this study was a questionnaire. The questionnaire that was used consists of an adapted version of the Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to assess Transformational Leadership and Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) to determine trust in the Head mentor. These instruments are discussed in 3.7 and 3.8 of this chapter.

3.3 SAMPLE METHODS USED:

The sample in the current study are individuals who report into head mentors. Within the questionnaires the term supervisor/manager was replaced by the umbrella term of ‘head’, this was explained to participants to mean their direct reporting relationship with their mentor.



3.3.1 Convenience Sampling

Convenience sampling involves collecting information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it. Advantages of nonprobability convenience sampling are that it is quick, convenient and less expensive than other forms of data collection. A primary disadvantage associated with nonprobability convenience sampling is its non-generalizability (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Even though the design is not generalizable, it can still be used to obtain some quick information to attain more of an understanding for the variables of interest. In this study the variables refer to the relationship between transformational leadership and trust within a mentoring context.

3.3.2 Individual as the Unit of Analysis

“The unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of the data collected during the subsequent data analysis stage” (Sekaran, 2001, p. 135). The critical aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and trust within a peer mentoring context in order to determine the relevance and importance of the effects of such on the mentoring relationship. Data was individually collected from peer mentors within the mentoring programme, hence, the unit of analysis was the individual mentors.

3.4. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The data collection method used for this study was a questionnaire. A questionnaire is an instrument that a researcher uses to conceptualise and operationalise variables as questions (Sekaran, 2003). Respondents read the questions themselves and present their answers on a questionnaire. The online analytical based tool utilised was Survey Monkey which allowed for both online and direct input methods of data entry to be collated and results to be generated in various formats such as tables, graphs and pie charts.

3.5 PROCEDURE

A cross sectional research method was utilised. Current mentors of the Peer Mentoring Programme comprising of 150 members were targeted. These consist of two sections, namely head mentors and mentors assigned to the CSSS office and Cassinga residential PMP office.

The questionnaire that was used consists of an adapted questionnaire to determine transformational leadership and trust based on the comprehensive literature review.

Respondents for this research comprised of all mentors currently involved within UWC's Office for Academic Support in house Peer Mentoring Programme. The researcher approached the Director of the Centre for Student Support Services to obtain permission for the intended research. Initially an electronic version of the questionnaire was first distributed along with an email from the manager of Academic Support to encourage participation and interest. Respondents were requested to click on the link accompanying the email to complete the questionnaire. The link directed the user to an online version of the questionnaire that opened to a cover letter providing a brief summary of the research and addressed anonymity, confidentiality and voluntary participation. Participants were made aware of their important role and the requirement of honesty when responding to help ensure accuracy of the results.

Respondents that consented to the research by selecting 'yes' moved on to the biographical component of the questionnaire whereas responses of a selected 'no' immediately ended the survey.

Although mentors appeared keen and open to the research, the amount of online responses was low. The Academic Support manager then related that feedback she had received indicated that a paper based questionnaire would be more convenient for the group and allowed for easier distribution within their mentoring circles. Printed copies of the questionnaire were subsequently distributed to the mentors to increase response rates.

3.6 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

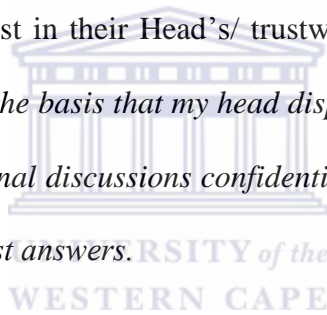
A biographical questionnaire soliciting information, including respondent's gender, race, age, nationality, academic average, year of study, community involvement, and previous mentee status was compiled. The data with respect to these biographical questions will be graphically presented and discussed to provide an indication of the most salient findings with respect to these variables.

3.7 MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire used was an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Schlechter, 2005). This questionnaire is based on the original model of leadership proposed by Bass (1985) which was later revised (Avolio *et al.*, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Thus the sub-scales that were used for this research included; attributed charisma (AC), inspirational motivation (IM), idealized influence (II) and individualized consideration (IC). This model has been most widely utilized in identifying transformational leadership (Bass, 1999, Pillai *et al.*, 1999). The scale uses a four item leadership subscale that has proved empirically distinct based on the confirmatory factor analysis procedures (CFA) conducted by (Avolio *et al.*, 1999). A five point response scale was utilized ranging from 1= “not at all” to 5=“frequently”. The MLQ was completed by the followers (that is) mentors/head mentors rating their perception of the Head / Senior Student Coordinators’ transformational leadership abilities. The rationale for the use of this questionnaire is that no other questionnaire suited the exact need of this research. A number of questionnaires were considered but its adaptability to this particular study was limited. However, not all questions from the (MLQ) were suitable and required term shifts from that of ‘manager’ to that of ‘head’ for this particular programme. An example of these questions asked includes: *My head seeks differing perspectives when solving problems* (IS); *My head speaks enthusiastically about the future* (IM); *My head spends time teaching and coaching those he/she leads* (IC) and *My head instils pride in me by being associated with me* (AC) (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

3.8 WORKPLACE TRUST INVENTORY: TRUST IN THE LEADER

Trust was measured using the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) developed by Ferres and Travaglione, (2003). This questionnaire was developed to assess trust at three levels; 1) Trust in the leader, 2) Trust in the organization and 3) Trust in co-workers. For the purpose of the current research, only the level of Trust in the leader was assessed by the followers. Twelve items were selected from the instrument which considered trust in the leader. A slight alteration in the term “manager” to that of “head” in the questionnaire was made. This survey was constructed through the means of qualitative research undertaken by Ferres *et al*, (2002) and Ferres and Travaglione (2003). A seven point response scale was utilized ranging from 1= “Strongly Disagree” to 7=“Strongly Agree”. The WTS was completed by the followers/mentors rating their extent of trust in their Head’s/ trustworthiness as leaders. Examples of these questions include; *I act on the basis that my head displays integrity in his/her actions; I believe that my head keeps personal discussions confidential, and; mentors generally believe that heads & SSC’s provide honest answers.*



3.9 RATIONALE FOR THE UTILIZATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

3.9.1 Psychometric Properties of the Measuring Instruments

An extensive range of studies conducted by Bass (1997) supports the reliability and validity of MLQ in its entirety. A large scale study conducted by Avolio *et al*. (1999) demonstrated an equally good fit for a multi-dimensional model and a single factor of transformational leadership model.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), Anastasi and Ubrina (1997), the coefficient alpha refers to the utilization of a single administration of a single form that is used to test the

extent of reliability in the findings. Previous research shows results ranging acceptably from $\alpha = .72$ to a high $\alpha = .93$ for coefficient alphas of the MLQ, hence showing that the questionnaire is reliable (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Kraft, 2004; Nunnally, 1978).

Table 3.1: Summary of the Reliability for the MLQ found in Studies Abroad

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient	Idealized Influence	Inspiration Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualised Consideration
Den Hartog <i>et al.</i> , 1997	.93	.72	.81	.75
Nunnally, 1978	.80	.83	*	.85

South African research studies conducted (Kraft *et al.*, 2004; Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Schlechter, 2005), utilised exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedures conducted on transformational leadership. These results are depicted below:

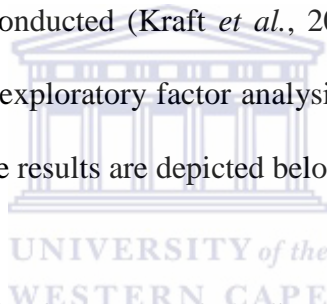


Table 3.2: Summary of Reliability for the MLQ in South African Research Studies

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient	Idealized Influence	Inspiration Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualised Consideration
Engelbrecht and Chamberlain, 2005	.94	.92	.92	.92
Kraft <i>et al.</i> , 2004	.84	.80	.72	.77

In a more recent South African study by Schlechter (2005), which aimed to test the latent underlying variable structure of Transformational Leadership, found instead an emergence of only one factor which he termed 'transformational leadership'.

Internal reliability of the one combined factor presented with Cronbach's coefficient alpha of 0.96 for the instrument in Schlechter's research (2005). Support however, for the multi-dimensional structure of transformational leadership was questionable (Schlechter, 2005). A

large scale study conducted by Avolio *et al.* (1999) demonstrated an equally good fit for a multi-dimensional model (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation) and a single factor of transformational leadership model. An extensive range of studies conducted by Bass (1997) supports the reliability and validity of the questionnaire.

For the Workplace Trust Survey, support for the internal reliability, construct validity, partially known instrument validity and divergent/convergent validity of the three emergent WTS factors was obtained (Ferres & Travaglione, 2003).

The qualitative study comprised of four focus groups where narratives and content analysis were conducted through the emergence of 'trust themes'. The obtained themes were transcribed and translated into items which then underwent a procedure for content validity screening through the use of an expert panel (Ferres & Travaglione, 2003). Support for the internal reliability and construct validity of the three Workplace Trust Survey factors were also successfully obtained (Ferres & Travaglione, 2003). In addition, through recent research of the WTS in South Africa and Australia (Ferres *et al.*, 2002), the reliability coefficient alpha for WTS showed scores ranging from 0.90 to 0.97. Trust in supervisor was $\alpha = 0.90$ and thus satisfactory (Schlechter, 2005).

3.10 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Analysis involves reducing data to a form in which it can be interpreted (Kerlinger, 1986) hence, the aim of a descriptive study is to summarise long lists of data so that an overall impression of the distribution involved can be formed more easily, that is, presenting data in a meaningful form (Kerlinger, 1986).

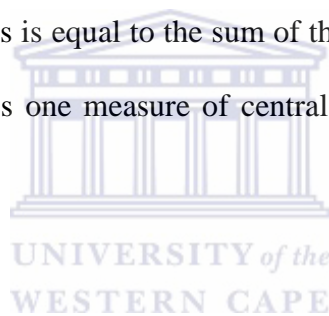
In this study, the quantitative data in terms of frequencies depict the descriptive statistics utilised.

3.10.1 Frequencies

A frequency distribution is a table displaying various possible measurement categories, as well as the number of cases falling into them (Huysamen, 1987). Thus the number of cases falling in a particular category is known as the frequency of that category.

3.10.2 Mean

The mean of a collection of scores is equal to the sum of the scores divided by the number of scores (Huysamen, 1987). This is one measure of central tendency that provides a general idea of the entire data set.



3.10.3 Mode

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the mode is a way of presenting data in the form of summary averages or measures of central tendency. It is also seen as the most frequent attribute either grouped or ungrouped.

3.10.4 Standard Deviation

In addition to a measure of central tendency, it is also desirable to have a measure of dispersion of data. The standard deviation is a measure amongst scores (Sekaran, 2001). It measures the amount by which the values in the data distribution differ from the mean (Moodley, 1998).

3.11 INFERENCE STATISTICS

This type of statistics allows the researcher to draw inferences from the sample of the population under investigation. Here the emphasis is on the relationship between two variables, differences in a variable amongst different sub-groups, and how several independent variables might explain the different dependent variables. According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics are employed when generalizations from a sample to population are made. The statistical methods used in this research include the Pearson Product Correlation Method, t-test and Anova.

3.11.1 Pearson's Correlation

For the purpose of establishing whether a statistically significant relationship exists between Transformational leadership and trust, the Pearson correlation method was used. This method provides an index of the strength, magnitude and direction of the relationship between variables (Sekaran, 2003). This was interpreted through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Thus, this method was suitable as this study attempted to describe the relationship between the two variables.

3.11.2 t- Test:

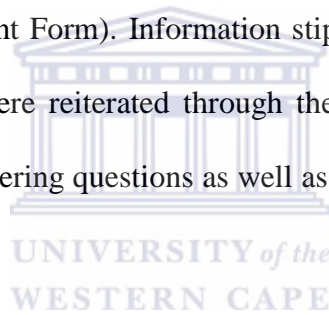
A t-Test is any statistical hypothesis test in which the test statistic follows a t-distribution if the null hypothesis is true (Sekaran, 2003). The T-test was used to measure what constitutes to the differences between the biographical variables of the respondents and transformational leadership and trust respectively.

3.11.3 Analysis of Variance:

Babbie and Mouton (2001) describes the Analysis of Variance as a test of the statistical significance of the differences among the mean scores of two or more groups on one or more variables. In this study, the analysis of variance was used to determine whether significant differences regarding perception of transformational leadership existed in the followers based on the mentioned variables.

3.12 ETHICAL ISSUES TO CONSIDER

The purpose of the research was communicated to all participants and they were informed that all participation was voluntary and that results would be treated confidentially (see Appendix II for Informed Consent Form). Information stipulating the nature of the research and the rights of respondents were reiterated through the email of the Academic Support Manager. The choice of not answering questions as well as to not participate in the study was also respected.

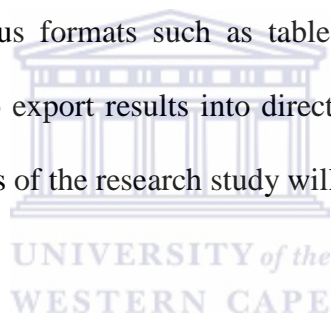


Several ethical issues should be addressed while collecting data. These pertain to those who sponsor the research, those who collect the data, and those who offer their input. The sponsors should request that the study be done with a view to better the purpose of the organization, and not for any other self-serving reason. The confidentiality of the data obtained by the researcher should be respected, and no requests for disclosures of individual or group responses should be made, nor requests to see the questionnaires. Once the report is submitted, the results and recommendations proffered by the researchers should be entertained with open-mindedness (Sekaran 2001).

There should be absolutely no misinterpretations or distortion in reporting the data collected during the study (Sekaran, 2001). All these ethical requirements were strictly adhered to by the researcher.

3.13 CONCLUSION

The research methodology depicted the objectives of the study, the sampling technique utilised and the description of the population. The data collection method used was a consolidated questionnaire. Data was collected initially online using a web based analytical tool and then through manual input of paper based versions from the researcher. The tool utilised was Survey Monkey which allowed for both methods of data entry to be collated and results to be generated in various formats such as tables, graphs and pie charts. Survey Monkey also allowed the user to export results into directly into SPSS. In the next chapter analysis of the most salient results of the research study will be presented and discussed.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the results obtained based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses. The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections to follow. The second part of the chapter focuses on the inferential statistics, which includes the use of correlation, t-tests as well as ANOVA. The descriptive and inferential statistics generated for the relationships are presented and discussed.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

All respondents were students enrolled in their second academic year (at least) at the University at the Western Cape as per the requirements of the PMP programme. The researcher collected 84 answered surveys however, due to missing data, 30 responses were eliminated and only 54 responses were used. The biographical information of 54 usable responses was used.

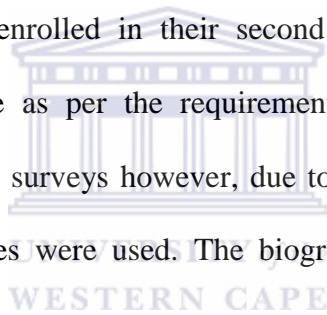
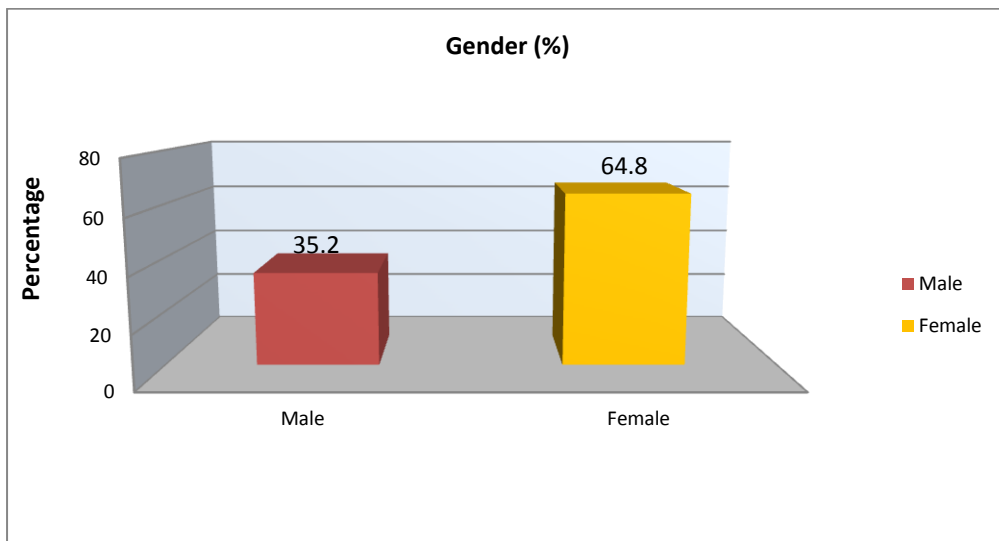
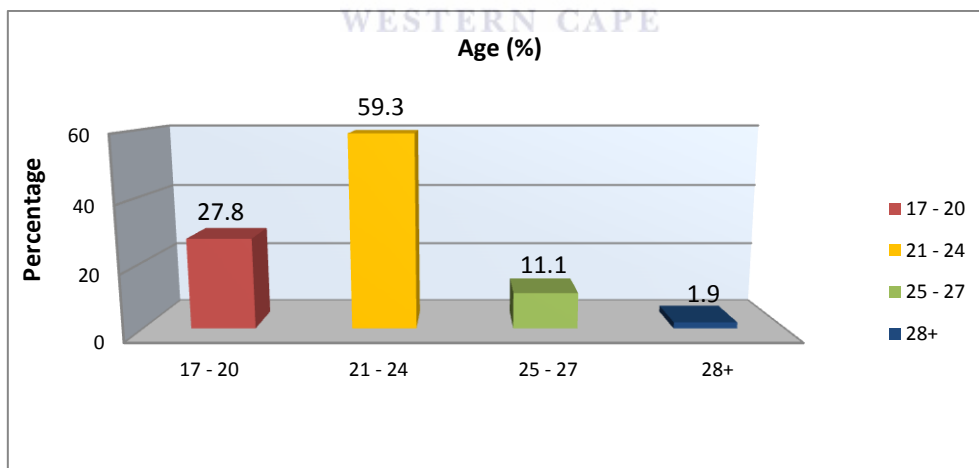


Figure 4.1: The Gender of the Respondents



In terms of Figure 4.1, it may be seen that the majority of the respondents were female (n=35, that is 64.8%) while the remaining were male (n =19, that is 35.2%).

Figure 4.2: Age Distribution of the Respondents



Based on Figure 4.2, the majority of respondents (n= 32, 59.3%) were within the age bracket of 21-24 years and 27.8% within the age bracket of 17-20 years. Six respondents (11.1%) fell within the 25-27 age groups, while the remnant one respondent (1.9%) falls within the age category of 28+.

Figure 4.3: Ethnicity of Respondents

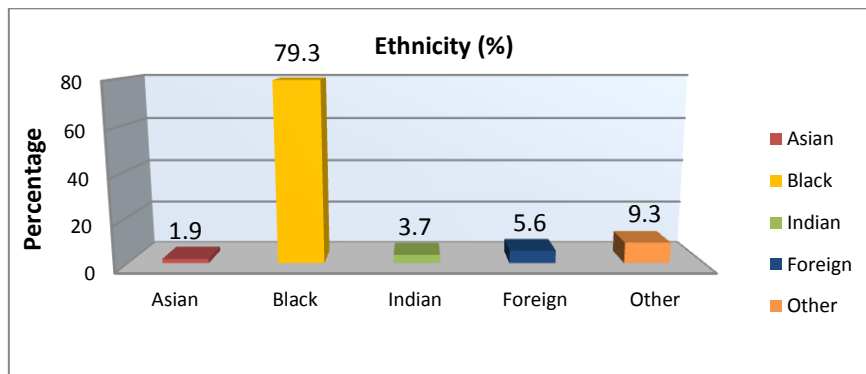


Figure 4.3 illustrates that majority of the respondents, (n=43) were Black, while a further 9.3% (n=5) reported to consist of other ethnic groupings. Foreign respondents were (n=3) or 5.6%, 3.7% (n=2) respondents were Indian and the remaining respondent (1.9%) was Asian.

Figure 4.4: Registered Faculty

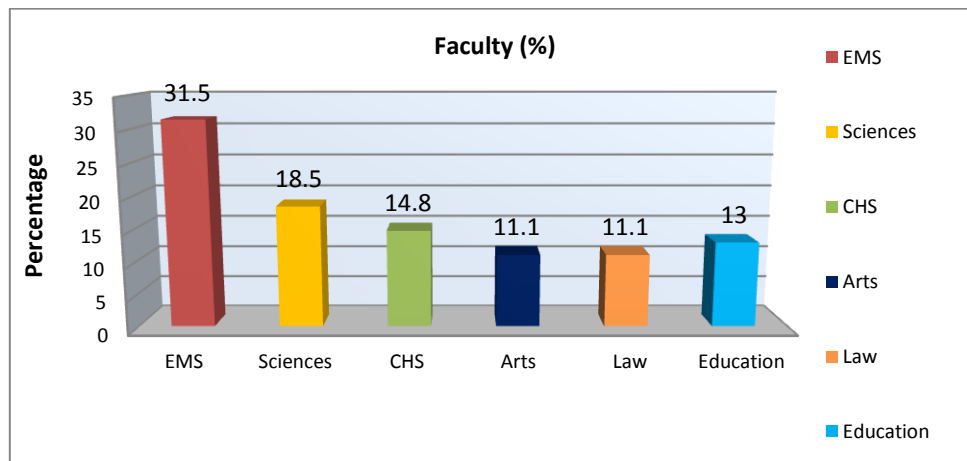
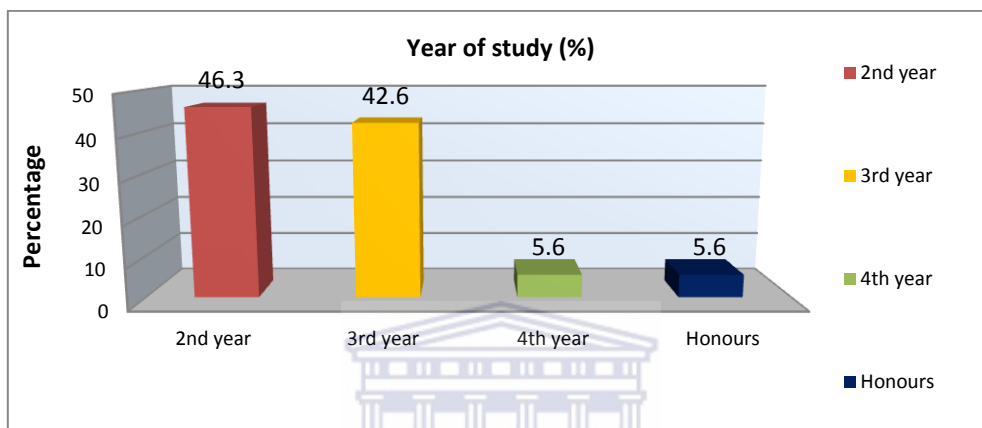


Figure 4.4 illustrates that majority of the respondents, consisting of (n=17, 31.5%), were registered within the Economic and Management Sciences (EMS) Faculty, 18.5% (n=10) were registered with the Science Faculty, 14.8 % (n=8) were registered in the Community

and Health Sciences (CHS) Faculty, while 13% (n=7) were registered with the Education Faculty. Respondents registered within the Arts Faculty and the Law Faculty accounted for 11.1% (n=6), each.

Figure 4.5: Year of Study



Most of the respondents, 46.3% (n=25), were completing their second year of study. The amount of respondents within their third year of study was 42.6% (n=23), 5.6% (n=3) were completing their fourth year, while a further 5.6% (n=3) were completing their Honours.

Figure 4.6: University Residential Status

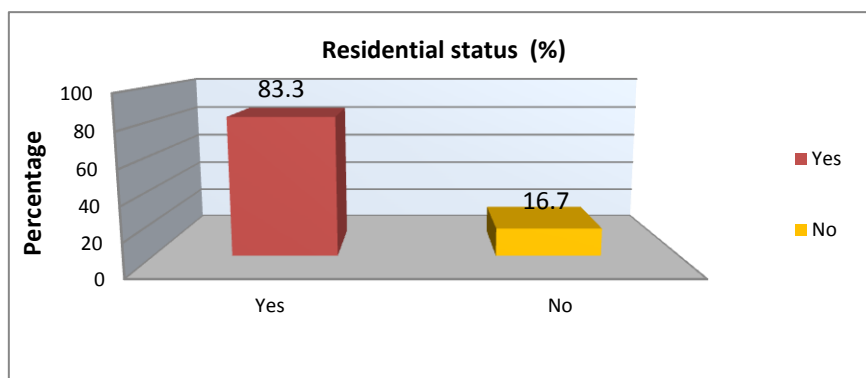


Figure 4.6 illustrates that the majority of the students responded “Yes” to the question of whether they stay in a residence on campus 83.3% (n=45) of the respondents comprised of residential students. The remaining 16.7% (n=9) were not based in University residences.

Figure 4.7: South African Origin

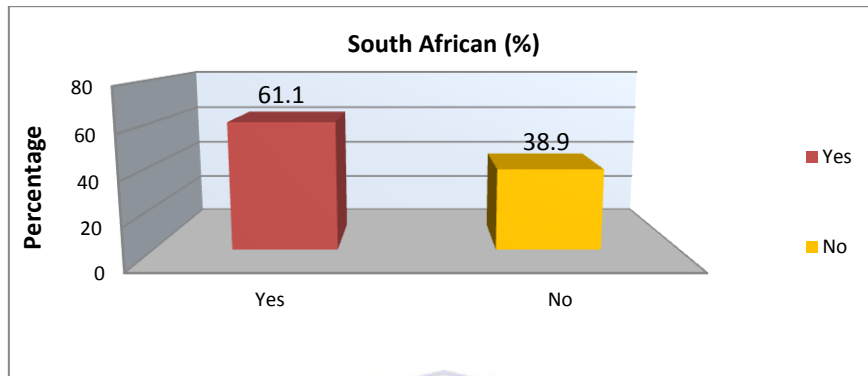


Figure 4.7 indicates that the majority of the respondents, 61.1% (n=33), were of South African origin and 38.9% (n=21) were not South African citizens.

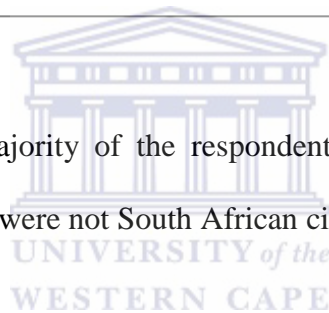
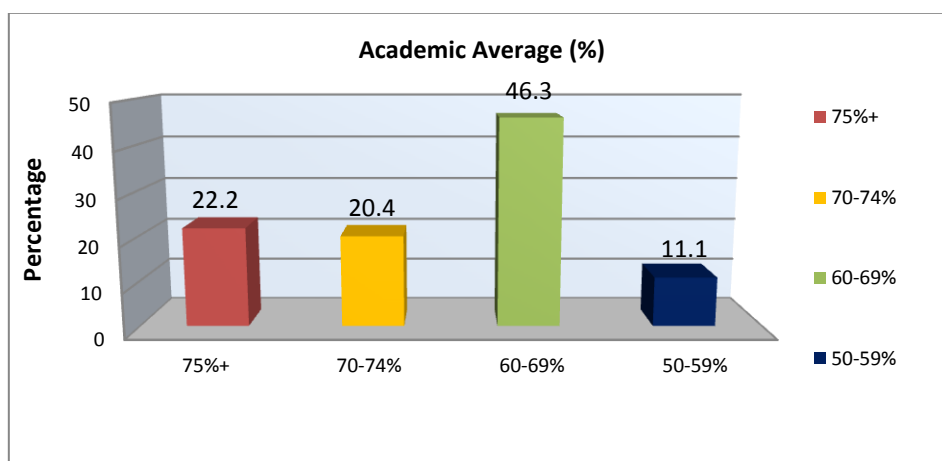


Figure 4.8: Current Academic Average



According to Figure 4.8, majority of the respondents had a self-reported academic average of 60-69% (n=25). Respondents who averaged above 75% was 22.2% (n= 12) of the overall respondents. Respondents with an average of 70-74% totalled 20.4% of the overall respondents. The remaining 11.1% (n=6) had an average between 50-59%.

Figure 4.9: Current Community Involvement

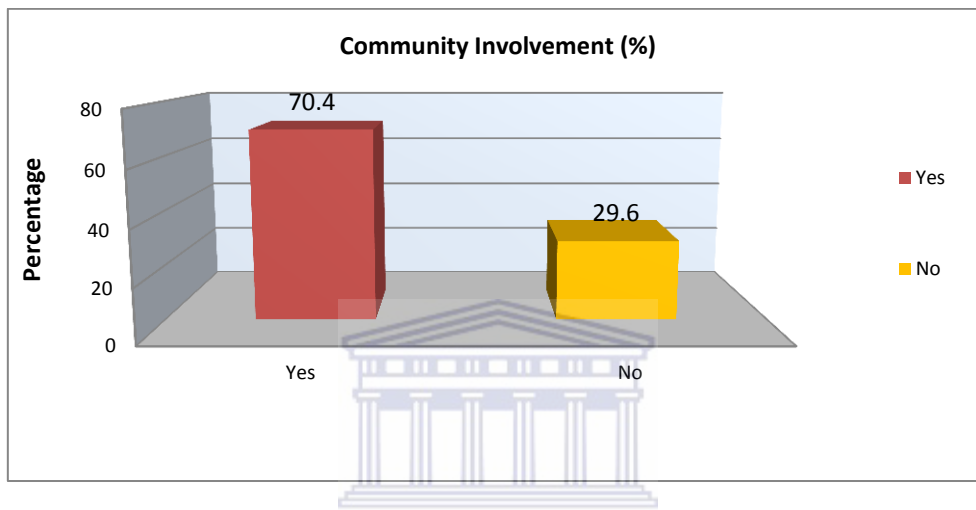


Figure 4.9 illustrates that the majority of respondents (n=38 or 70.4%) were involved in community extramural projects and/or societies while 29.6% (n=16) are not presently engaged in such activities.

Figure 4.10: Previous Mentee Status

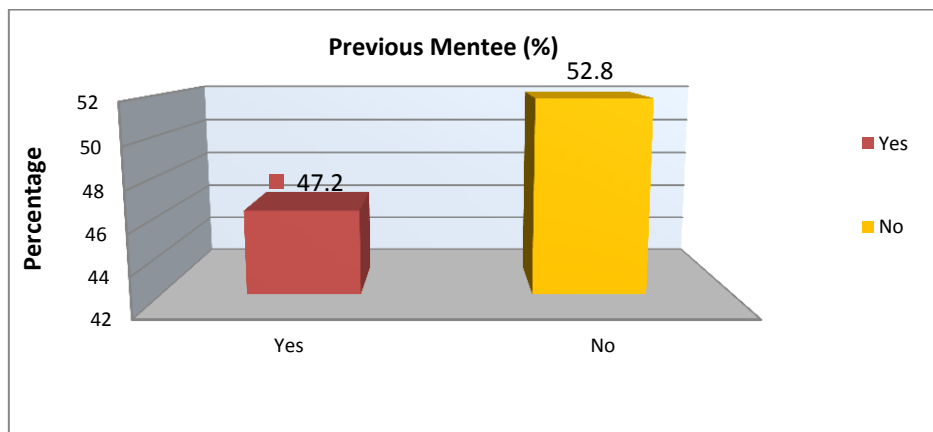


Figure 4.10 indicates that the distribution of respondents who entered the Mentoring Programme as mentees constituted 46.3% (n=25) of the respondents. In addition, 51.9% of the respondents were not previously within the mentor programme (n=28), and 1 respondent (1.8%) did not indicate previous participation in the mentor programme.

4.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

4.3.1 Correlations between Transformational Leadership and Trust

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between the Transformational Leadership of head mentors and the followers' level of trust

Table 4.1 Correlation Matrix of Transformational Leadership and Trust

		TL_Total	T_Total
TL Total	Pearson Correlation	1	.647**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
T Total	Pearson Correlation	.647**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

**p < 0.01

As noted in Table 4.1 above there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and trust ($r = 0.647$, $p < 0.01$).

Therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership as measured by the Multi Factor Leadership questionnaire and trust as measured by the Work Place Trust Survey for the Peer Mentoring Programme for the higher education institution of the University of the Western Cape. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected in this case.

4.3.2 T test for Transformational Leadership and Trust amongst Males and Females

Hypotheses 2: There is a significant difference in gender between mentee's perceptions of Transformational Leadership

Hypotheses 3: There is a significant difference in gender between mentee's perceptions of Trust

Table 4.2 : Independent Samples t-test: Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
TL_Total	Equal variances assumed	0.561	0.457	-0.868	52
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.816	31.193
T_Total	Equal variances assumed	1.167	0.285	-0.841	52
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.778	29.727

Table 4.2 indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of transformational leadership based on gender ($t = -.816, p > 0.05$). Similarly, there is no statistically significant difference in trust based on gender ($t = -.778, p > 0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis is accepted in this case.

4.3.3 ANOVA for Respondents and Transformational Leadership

Hypotheses 4: Followers that are older will perceive lower levels of Transformational Leadership of head mentors

Table 4.3 ANOVA: Age and Transformational Leadership

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	19.926	38	0.524	1.888	0.093
	Within Groups	4.167	15	0.278		
	Total	24.093	53			

Table 4.3 indicates the difference in respondents' age and the impact it has on their response to Transformational Leadership style of their head mentor. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in whether followers/mentees considered their heads to be more or less transformational based on age ($F = 1.888, p > 0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis is **accepted** in this case.

4.3.4 ANOVA: Age and Trust

H5: Followers that entered the program as mentees will perceive higher levels of trust in their head mentors

Table 4.4: ANOVA: Age and Trust

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	8.408	28	0.300	1.501	0.158
	Within Groups	4.800	24	0.200		
	Total	13.200	52			

Table 4.4 indicates the differences in mentees with respect to their level of trust. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in followers/mentees and their level of trust in their head mentors ($F = .158, p > 0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis is **accepted** in this case.

4.4 RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to consistency, stability and freedom from error (Sekaran, 2003). One of the methods to establish reliability of a questionnaire is to calculate the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha.

Table 4.5: Reliability Scores for the MLQ and WTS

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
MLQ Questionnaire (TL)	0.88	36
WTS Questionnaire (T)	0.893	12

In the social sciences, a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of 0.7 and higher reflects the internal consistency of the instrument (Sekaran, 2003). The result for the Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire (used to measure Transformational Leadership,) was 0.880, while that of the Workplace Trust Survey used to measure Trust in the leader was 0.893. As these both exceed 0.7, both questionnaires can be regarded as sufficiently reliable for the sample in question.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualizes the research findings based on previous research on transformational leadership and trust using mentoring as a context.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the salient findings emanating from the research. In order to contextualize the research, comparisons are drawn with available literature on transformational leadership and trust. The discussion includes the statistically significant relationship found between transformational leadership and trust, the non-significant differences found between gender and perceptions of transformational leadership and trust. The non-significant differences found in the perceptions of followers based on their age and previous experience as a first year mentee are also discussed in relation to transformational leadership and trust respectively. Factors that affect transformational leadership and the peer mentoring relationship namely biographical dependents of the followers are discussed. The chapter provides conclusions that can be drawn from the research and offers suggestions for future research into transformational leadership and trust that can happen amongst peer mentors within a university setting.

5.2 DISCUSSION

5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

The sample consisted of 54 peer mentors. As viewed in Figure 4.1 the majority of respondents were female [(N=35) (64.8%)]. The majority of the respondents as observed in Figure 4.2 were in the age group 21-24 years [(N=32) (59%)]. Furthermore, the largest group of respondents as seen in Figure 4.3 reported as having black ethnicity [(N= 43) (79%)]. In terms of Figure 4.4, the majority of respondents were enrolled within the Economic and

Management Science faculty (EMS) [(N= 17) (31%)]. As viewed in Figure 4.5 most of the respondents are currently completing their second year of study [(N=25) (46%)].

Figure 4.6 illustrates that the majority of respondents comprised of residential students [(N=45) (83%)]. Most of the respondents as seen in Figure 4.7 are of South African origin [(N=33) (61%)]. The academic average of the majority indicated in Figure 4.8 fell between 60-69% [(N=25) (46%)]. The majority of respondents are also currently involved in community engagements initiatives [(N=38) (70%)] as indicated in Figure 4.9. Finally, the majority of respondents did not enter the programme as first year mentees [(N=28) (52%)] as Figure 4.10 indicates.

5.2.2 Correlations and the Interpretation of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Trust



As mentioned in Chapter 4, the relationship between Transformational Leadership and trust was interpreted in terms of the actual size of Pearson's r . The Guilford convention (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002) proposes the following values for interpretation of correlation coefficients:

Less than .20	Slight, almost negligible relationship;
.20 - .40	Low correlation: definite but small relationship;
.40 - .70	Moderate correlation: substantial relationship
.70 - .90	High correlation: marked relationship
.90 – 1.0	Very high correlation: very dependable behaviour

5.2.3 Correlations between Transformational Leadership and Trust

The results of the current research indicate that there is a moderately statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.647$, $p < 0.01$) between transformational leadership exhibited by head mentors and the followers level of trust within UWC's peer mentoring programme.

In the meta analysis study by Dirks and Ferrin (2002), empirical support for the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and trust in leadership ($r = 0.72$, $p < 0.01$) was found. Pillai *et al.* (1999) also found moderate correlations between transformational leadership and trust ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.01$) indicating the direct relationship between these constructs. Support for the notion that transformational leadership is related to trust has been found in more recent studies as well (Burke *et al.*, 2007; Pillai *et al.*, 2003; Jung & Avolio, 2000). Bennis and Nanus (1985), Gillespie and Mann (2004), and Pillai *et al.* (1999), also demonstrated that a direct relationship existed between transformational leadership and trust. A study conducted by Ferres *et al.* (2002) ($n=275$) found moderate correlations between transformational leadership and trust ($r = 0.69$, $p < 0.01$).

In another study conducted by Schlechter (2005) whereby trust was tested to exert a mediating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational behaviour, evidence was found to support a significant relationship between trust and transformational leadership ($t > 1.96$ at $t = 14.3487$). Furthermore a high correlation between transformational leadership and trust in the leader was also found ($r = 0.786$, $p < 0.01$) which accounted for 61.78% of the shared variance between the two discussed constructs (Schlechter, 2005).

Trust, which is conceptualised as faith in and loyalty to the leader (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990), is critical in the functions of transformational leadership. According to Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002, cited in Engelbrecht *et al.*, 2005) transformational leaders are expected to adhere to high ethical standards and behave in ways that are congruent with these standards.

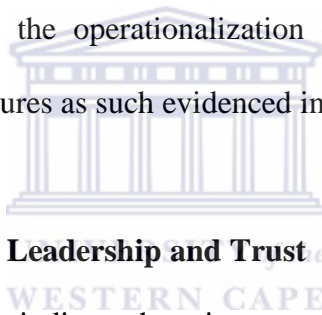
5.2.4 Discussion

The factors that emerged from the data collected are believed to reflect the underlying processes that have created the correlations among the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, cited in Schlechter, 2005). Therefore the differences found in the present study between transformational leadership and trust could possibly be ascribed to other differences not tested that are believed to exist in relation to the respondents. According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), differences in gender, education, social and cultural backgrounds or anything else that introduces correlation between variables, can create or produce factors.

One of the more important factors not taken into account by the researcher was language differences which relates to the English language proficiency of respondents. Although the majority of respondents were South African, the predominant ethnicity reported for the respondents were black. This leads to speculation that English may likely not have been a first or even second language for them. It is also important to note that the sample was also made up of foreign students that may have English as a third language in instances where they (for example) originate from French speaking African countries as is observed in the case of PMP. Based on this information, one could question the average respondent's command of the English language and this may well have influenced the way in which scale items and the specific words used in them were understood and interpreted. Unfortunately, home language

was not included as one of the biographical variables in this survey. Therefore no definitive information can be gained.

There are other aspects of culture that may contribute to the differences between transformational leadership and the perceptions of followers' extent of trust in them. These include customs, rituals, values, norms and worldviews. Culture is especially significant for transformational leadership as leaders would not be able to understand the true needs of the followers if they are not able to grasp the values, norms and beliefs to which followers prescribe. While many leadership characteristics are universally endorsed, many others remain culture bound (Krishnan, 2009). Krishnan (2009) therefore postulated that there would be unique dimensions in the operationalization of transformational leadership in programmes that have unique cultures as such evidenced in PMP.



5.2.5 Gender, Transformational Leadership and Trust

The results of the current research indicate there is no statistical difference in perceptions of transformational leadership based on gender ($t = -.816, p > 0.05$). The results further indicate there is no statistical difference in perceptions of trust based on gender ($t = -.778, p > 0.05$).

There is no consistency in the literature on the impact of gender on leadership behaviours. Some studies show differences in leadership behaviours based on gender (Carless, 1998; Druskat, 1994; Helgeson, 1990), and others show no differences (Bass, 1999; Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Researchers have examined gender and transformational leadership from a variety of perspectives (Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx, 2007). In a study conducted by Carless (1998), superiors rated female managers as more transformational than their male counterparts. These female managers also self-reported as being more transformational than

male managers did. However, the subordinates evaluated the transformational behaviours of male and female managers equally (Carless, 1998). In an organizational study conducted by Bass and Avolio (1992), subordinates rated female managers as being more transformational and preferring the use of transformational leadership more so than male managers.

A study which examined the gender, age and educational levels of student followers as predictors of perceptions of transformational leadership exhibited by instructors, Ojode, Walumbwa and Kuchinke (1999) found that both male and female students rated instructors high in transformational leadership behaviours. Male students however, were more likely than female students to view instructors as utilising transactional leadership behaviours. A study by Barbuto *et al.* (2007) where effects of gender, education and age upon leaders behaviours were tested in a variety of industries, government agencies and educational institutions (N=234), found that gender had no significant effect on followers' ratings of transactional and or transformational leadership behaviours of the leader. Results from this study also found gender-influenced differences at the lowest level of education (high school) levels of respondents (Barbuto *et al.*, 2007).

Research on follower gender differences to evaluate transformational leadership of leaders has frequently produced mixed results. There are indications that transformational leadership and perceptions of it may be impacted by the gender of respondents (Barbuto *et al.*, 2007). According to the theory of Carless (1998), inconsistency is inevitable because leadership and behaviour are situation specific, thus the researcher purports that leadership is not decided by gender but instead the situation in which someone is placed. Thus either males or females can be perceived as transformational leaders. Leaders who displayed both high masculine and high feminine leadership characteristics scored higher on transformational factors, which

indicate that transformational leadership behaviours require a gender balance (Hackman, Furniss, Hills & Paterson, 1992, cited in Barbuto *et al.*, 2007).

5.2.6 Transformational Leadership and Age

The results of the current research indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in whether followers/mentees considered their heads to be more or less transformational based on age ($F = 1.888, p > 0.05$).

The current study assessed a sample that fell predominantly within the 21-24 age classification bracket (59%) with the youngest respondents (17-20) age bracket totalling 27% of the overall response and one respondent reporting an age of 28+ years.

In the study of Barbuto *et al.* (2007), effects of the leader's age on followers' ratings of transactional and/or transformational leadership style was significant as clear differences emerged based on the age group of the leader (22-35; 36-45; 46+). Overall the 46+ age group was rated highest for transformational leadership and lowest ratings were accorded to the (36-45) age groups. However, the age categories of the leaders in Barbuto *et al.* (2007) study far outspans the average age of leaders comprised in this current university setting.

Burke (1984) asserts with respect to mentoring that the smaller the age gap between the mentor/mentee, the more psychosocial functions is performed. Naidoo (1994) found psychosocial benefits for the mentoring relationship in the development of mentees conducted on UWC's PMP (previously known as SMP). These findings were also confirmed by Schreiber (1999) which saw SMP mentors being experienced by their mentees as "helpful, supportive, encouraging and resourceful" (Schreiber, 1999, p. 58). Mentees further related

feeling highly valued when their fears, problems and insecurities were heard and understood by their mentors. These benefits reduced anxiety specifically around academic and personal stress (Schreiber, 1999). Kram (1985) emphasised that such benefits are central in motivating followers in the development and achievement set for the mentoring relationship.

In PMP the age gap between mentor and mentee is, on average, between two to three years. Thus as the researcher indicates, given the minor age difference between the mentor and mentee (head mentor and mentor), social support should be investigated as a variable to assess whether it could contribute to the variance in the current study. To date little research has been focused on variables in visionary leadership, inclusive of transformational leadership, and follower identification with the leader (Riesenmy, 2008). Edwards (2005) defined followers' identification with the leader to occur when an individual's beliefs about his/her leader become self-referential or self-defining. When a follower is not able to connect or identify with their respective leader or vision, transformational leadership will be inhibited (Riesenmy, 2008). A leader as such will not be trusted enough to be afforded the opportunity to exert real change nor get the needed commitment from followers for the leader's vision (Ngodo, 2008).

Thus, if the age of the followers poses no significant differences to the perceptions of transformational leadership in their leader, Bass's (1997) assertion is supported that the positive impact of such leadership is applicable in a wide range of settings transcending organizational, cultural, age and gender boundaries.

5.2.7 Trust and Mentoring (Previous Mentee Experiences)

The results of the current research indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in trust levels for followers with previous experience as a first year mentee in comparison to followers without experience ($F = .158, p > 0.05$).

Although mentoring can be an effective strategy for student retention within academic settings, the mentoring is only as good as the relationship that develops out of the process between mentors and mentees (Clutterbuck, 2005). The review of the literature highlighted in Chapter 2 presented findings related to the importance of trust for the mentoring relationship to be successful (Beebe *et al.*, 2004; Dymock, 1999; Mishra, 1996).

Findings from the current study may delineate the importance of the actual mentoring behaviours that head mentors engage in within their individual mentoring relationships. These behaviours should support followers' developmental growth, for example provision of guidance, direction, structure, role modelling, feedback, knowledge transfer and/or overall support (Evans, 2000; Goodlad, 1998; Kram, 1985; Schreiber, 1999). Conversely, such findings may point to the significance of a head mentor's personal characteristics such as experience, academic orientation and achievement, trustworthiness, empathy and enthusiasm (Allen, 2003; Beebe *et al.*, 2004; Enrich *et al.*, 2004; Mclean, 2004; Terrion & Leonard, 2007). These mentioned variables were not tested in this current study and only speculation can be made on each for its potential impact.

Further, the current practices PMP sought only to pair mentors and mentees based on academic stream with no other selection criteria utilised. Whether followers entered as previous first year mentees or not, did not lead to significant differences in their perception of

trust in their leader (head mentor). The assertion can be made that each individual pairing depended on the actual mentoring relationship formed between head mentor and follower.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The data gathered for this study was done through an online survey tool (Survey Monkey). However, this method yielded a low response rate. One can tentatively make the assumption that the response rate has been impacted by the approaching exam period, the ending of the programme for PMP 2012, as well as lack of internet accessibility for students who do not stay on campus residences.

The length of the questionnaire could have led to some respondents missing questions as a large component of data needed to be excluded in the study due to incomplete answers. It is possible that respondents may have felt under pressure to answer favourably in the questionnaire so as to seem loyal to the head mentors. Furthermore, the study did not take into account whether respondents had time to read through and answer questions adequately.

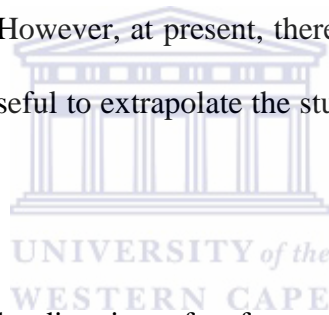
A primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-probability research design. The author purports this to be used when the results derived from the research cannot be confidently extrapolated to the population of mentors/followers, as circumstances in other environments may differ from the sample selected. Another limitation is that the sample was not randomly selected as the sampling technique was based on an accidental/ convenience sample. This is evidenced in the large amount of female respondents in the study.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Mentoring and transformational leadership appear to be two individual constructs at first glance, however a review of the relevant literature discussed in Chapter 2 reveals a surface

resemblance that requires further exploration. The differences based on followers' gender were found to be non-significant for trust as well as transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was not found to be dependent on the age of the follower nor was previous mentee experience found to increase the extent of trust in their head leader. The tentative assertion can therefore be made that mentoring and transformational leadership extends beyond individual differences and experiences.

A larger group of respondents could have been used for this research study. Qualitative interviews could also be utilised in order to gain more substantive information. It is also recommended that more university mentoring programmes (inter and intra) should be examined in the Western Cape. However, at present, there are no similar programmes to be studied. It might therefore be useful to extrapolate the study on a national and international basis.

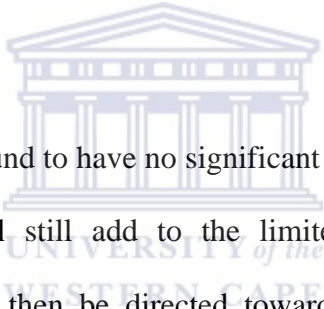


There are a number of possible directions for future research that would help better understand and explain which variables lead to the differences seen between transformational leadership and trust. One of the factors to consider might be to study potential influences of regional differences in order to determine to what degree ethnicity influences perceptions of transformational leadership and trust.

Future research also needs to be directed towards empirically exploring the link between transformational leadership and mentoring with trust as a mediating variable. A good hypothesis to test would be whether (head mentors/mentors) who are more transformational, facilitate more effective mentoring. It is important to note that in organizations, managers tend to model their own leadership style after their immediate supervisors. Thus if more

senior level employees are transformational, then more lower-level employees will emulate transformational behaviour and will be likely to act as transformational leaders as they rise in the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

This pattern of thinking has recently been adopted in PMP. Training within PMP has already made the shift towards considering the impact of transformational change for the benefit of mentees. Training was provided to mentors in August 2011 to increase their ability to be more transformational. The PMP training entitled “*Transformation through change*” provided mentors with the necessary training to equip them with the skills and competence needed to undertake the responsibilities assumed for shaping the knowledge, perceptions and behaviours of their respective mentees.



However, if Peer Mentoring is found to have no significant relationship with transformational leadership, this information will still add to the limited body of knowledge on peer mentoring. Future research may then be directed towards exploring peer mentoring and alternative leadership schools of thought. According to Basset (1994), small close knit work groups much like the SSC’s, head mentors and mentors of UWC’s PMP; exhibit greater satisfaction with socially sensitive non authoritarian leaders. In comparison, larger groups whose leaders are socially distant from workers are more satisfied with formal task orientated leadership styles. It is noteworthy to mention that study results have indicated leaders who are more satisfying towards followers’ needs, and those who are more effective as leaders, are more transformational and less transactional (Bass & Avolio, 1991). Followers, in turn, will develop : a) higher relevancy of the collective identity in their self-concept; b) a greater sense of alignment between follower individual self-concept, their actions on behalf of the leader and the collective; c) increased levels of self-esteem and a greater sense of self-worth;

d) similarity between their perception of self and their perception of their leader; e) collective efficacy; and f) a sense of meaningfulness to their positions and contributions of their lives (Bass, 1999; House & Shamir, 1993; Shamir *et al.*, 1993).

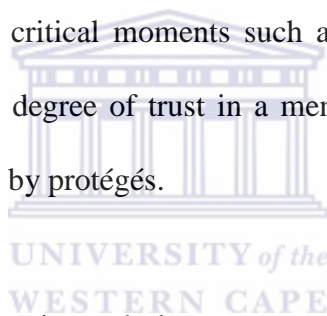
The incorporation of transformational leadership into mentoring may also prove to be beneficial as an added measure to enhance student retention in tertiary institutions. Transformational leadership may also reduce job related stress through its impact on mentoring functions. Research conducted by Sosik and Goldshalk (2000), found Transformational leadership to be positively related to mentoring received and negatively related to job related stress. On the premise of such findings, Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway and Mckee (2007) predicted that transformational leadership will be positively associated with psychological well-being. The study found that transformational leadership of supervisors exerted a positive influence on the psychological well-being of followers (Arnold *et al.*, 2007). These findings are important to the university sphere as a means to increase student retention by supporting the psychological well-being of students through the use of transformational mentoring

5.5 CONCLUSION

The aim of this research was primarily to determine the relationship between transformational leadership and trust amongst peer mentors within a university environment. The results emanating from this research indicate that there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and trust. Biographical variables namely gender, age and previous experience within the programme as a mentee were examined amongst the sample of PMP to determine if any of the variables contributed towards the differences in perceptions

of transformational leadership and trust respectively. These biographical variables were found to have no significant difference on transformational and trust.

Internationally, mentoring is a relatively new concept in organizational settings. Much has been written about the positive outcomes of mentoring, in particular for the mentee who can benefit in terms of job satisfaction, career advancement, psychosocial well-being, induction to the organization, and professionalism (Gibb, 1999; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Murray, 2001; Ritchie & Genoni, 2002; Roche, 1979; Zey, 1984). Kram (1985) has also examined several qualitative studies conducted on mentoring relationships, exploring the role of trust in these relationships. Protégés / mentees reported that they are most likely to seek advice and information from the mentors at critical moments such as career or life transitions. Thus, according to Dymock (1999) the degree of trust in a mentoring relationship influences the amount of organizational learning by protégés.



In South African companies, mentoring only became prominent in the mid 1980's (Amos & Pearse, 2002). Companies as well as non-governmental organizations have incorporated mentoring into a number of their programmes in order to address past imbalances by increasing staff diversity and addressing the skills shortages that South Africa currently faces (Metcalf, 2008). This aligns with Chapter 3 of the Employment Equity Act which instructs employers to implement measures which “ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunity and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels of workforce” (EEA, 1998) Section 18. The Employment Equity Act details affirmative action measures, as those which promote diversity, and which seek to identify and eradicate barriers. This is in order to make reasonable accommodation for the employment, development and retention of people from designated groups. The

Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET) (2001) aligned itself accordingly to ensure representation of designated groups for institutes of higher education nationally.

It has been argued that affirmative action measures without professional/social support has limited capacity on its own as a vehicle for workplace/tertiary institute transformation (Mabokela, 2000, as cited in Metcalfe, 2008). Therefore, numerous models of mentoring have since been tailored to meet the individualised needs of the employees and organizations alike.

Transformational leadership has become increasingly more salient because of the personnel for whom future leaders will take responsibility for. According to Bass (1997), the changes in the workforce promoted changes in the mix of transactional and transformational leadership needed with implications for changes in organizational culture, training, development and subordinate satisfaction. In an effort to clarify how transformational leaders operated, Bass (1999) asserted that leaders who are transformational, may utilize other leadership methods such as transactional or laissez faire styles with change in direction and participation namely, directive-participative based on the assessment of what the situation and/or individual requires (Bass, 1999). Therefore, every leader possesses a blend of both transformational and transactional factors (Bass, 1999). Transformational leadership enhances the efficacy of transactional leadership; it is not meant to replace it (Walman, Bass & Yammarino, 1990, cited in Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Research indicates that transformational leadership behaviours exist in all levels of management, institutions and spheres and are therefore not limited to world class leaders (Hater & Bass, 1988). Hope should not be lost for leaders that do not aspire to transformational leadership behaviours innately. Visser *et al.* (2005) asserts that transformational leadership is a behavioural process which can be learned; and it can and should be the subject of future leaders training and development (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

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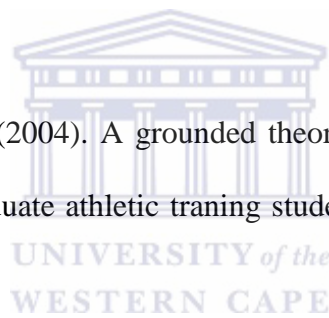
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APPENDIX I

HEAD MENTOR DUTIES

Head Mentors duties are and not limited to the following:

1. Ensuring that the mentors of the programme receive continuous mentoring and coaching for development purposes
 - i. Monitor the performance of their mentors as to make sure that the mentoring sessions are taking place as they should. By attending the mentoring sessions.
 - ii. Liaise between PMP Management, mentors and mentees, by making sure that all communication lines are open in all respects.
 - iii. Head Mentors should evaluate the performance of mentors to make sure that they are meeting the objectives of the programme. This must be done through their group meetings.
 - iv. Promoting the mentoring program in day to day activities
 - v. Acting in a facilitative role for mentors
 - vi. Conduct weekly Head Mentor meetings with mentors
 - vii. Ensure that mentee information (course, contact details) are regularly updated
 - viii. Assisting Senior Student Coordinators and Programme staff with team-building exercises, training and other events

Office work

Administrative duties includes but not limited to the following:

- i. Handling Queries from people that come into the office

- ii. Individual database maintenance and forwarding changes to the Senior Student Coordinators
- iii. Collation of monthly mentor reports
- iv. Do what needs to be done under the direction of the Senior Student Coordinator, Interns or Programme Coordinator

(Peer Mentoring Programme Protocol Document, pg 7, 2012)



APPENDIX II
INFORMED CONSENT FORM



APPENDIX III
QUESTIONNAIRE

