DOCTORAL (PhD) THESIS

GULSAULE KAIRAT

MENTORING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF KAZAKHSTAN

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Eötvös Loránd University
Faculty of Education and Psychology

DOCTORAL (PhD) THESIS

Mentoring in higher education:
The case of Kazakhstan

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to

the memory of my Grandfather, Tolegen Zadakhanuly.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

In fact, when entering professional path frequently a new entrant is not familiar with the diapason of the specialization in the given profession. The more complete and deep knowledge about the occupation occurs during the early steps into the profession.

To understand the experiences of novice teachers, learning their perspectives, thoughts, and actions is crucial. The research indicates that work in higher education is mostly challenging and stressful for newly hired academics.

To assist and help a new faculty member, it is necessary to provide emotional support, informational support and instrumental support in his/her induction period and mentoring carries out these functions. Mentoring as a means for professional growth and socialization enhances sense of community and cooperation as well as engagement among faculty members.

The focus of this research is one particular context, Kazakhstani higher education institution, and the purpose is to explore how mentoring works, what the current problem issues and trends are – in the light of the latest literature. The primary focus of mentoring in present research is investigating mentorship relationships as a support mechanism for professional socialization and professional growth for new university teachers through personal interactions and relationship building

For data collection semi-structured individual (15 junior teachers and 10 senior teachers) and group interview methods (one with junior teachers and one with senior teachers) were used.

The findings evidenced that mentoring is existing among Kazakhstani university teachers in the form of providing help and assistance, advice and support, reflection, attending in class observations, personal care and encouragement and in doing so it contributes to form and develop a culture of teacher professional development. The results indicate, both senior and junior teachers benefited from mentoring by co-constructing knowledge and skills, thus, learning and developing personally and professionally. In doing so mentoring found to foster beginning teachers' critical thinking and motivated them to enrich their professional experiences and skills linked to prior knowledge.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the problem

Nowadays mentoring is considered an initiative which from the world of business progressively penetrates into the field of education (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Israel, Kamman, McCray, & Sindelar, 2014). Higher education institutions function as a platform for innovations, a source for forming future project teams, for searching for effective, highly skilled, and qualified employees. Mentoring actively contributes to all of these processes, being an additional tool of education and professional socialization in higher education institutions. It serves as a means for "professional networking, counseling, guiding, instructing, modeling, sponsoring as well as a developmental mechanism, and an opportunity for identity transformation" (Tillman, 2001, p.296).

1.2 Problem Statement

Taking the first steps into an academic path or making a move to a new academic job can be extremely complex and demanding (Staniforth & Harland, 2006), including both professional and personality development concerns. The requirements for research and teaching staff in the higher education sector are to be in possession of high professional knowledge and skills, mastering of modern pedagogical methods and techniques, as well as acknowledged personal responsibility for the quality of education, development of creative and erudite professionals responsible for well-being of students and society in general.

To understand the experiences of beginning teachers, learning their perspectives, thoughts, and actions is crucial (Dinkelman, Margolis, & Sikkenga, 2006). The research indicates that work in higher education is mostly challenging and stressful for newly hired academics (Boyd, Harris, & Murray, 2011; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002). Most of the examinations and observations on teacher education have considerably neglected the questions of what a new university teacher needs to know and how he/she learns it (Dinkelman et al., 2006).

To assist and help a new faculty member, it is necessary to provide emotional support, informational support and instrumental support in his/her induction period (Cawyer et al., 2002) and mentoring carries out these functions.

We considered important to study mentoring in the field of higher education in Kazakhstan because as indicated in the State Programme for Education Development for 2011-2020 in Kazakhstan (www.planipolis.iiep.unesco.org), there are no specific programmes or special conditions for attracting young specialists in higher education which results in ageing of the staff, and the statistics indicate descending of the number of university teachers working in higher education institutions (www.stat.gov.kz). Moreover, not all faculty junior teachers perceive mentoring in the same way because there is no formal faculty mentoring programs in Kazakhstani higher education institutions. Implementing and practicing a combined mentoring system would help to develop reflective culture of university teachers and communicative interaction as an essential means for professional and personal development as well as job satisfaction and teacher retention.

Mentoring as a means for professional growth and socialization enhances sense of community and cooperation as well as engagement among faculty members (Lumpkin, 2011). Moreover, mentoring is regarded as one of the essential parts in faculty development and retention, and academic environment, specifically mentors can help their mentees, for example, in conducting research, writing publications, to pass the transition period easily and with less stress (Knippelmeyer & Torraco, 2007; Zeind et al., 2005).

1.3 Research strategy

1.3.1 Purpose of the research

In this research, the author seeks to examine the role of faculty mentoring as a form of professional socialization where a more experienced faculty member stands as a guide to a less experienced member with the aim to develop and elaborate their skills and abilities, knowledge and cultural understanding of a particular organization or institution (Sorcinelli & Yun, 2007). The focus is one particular context, one Kazakhstani higher education institution, and the purpose is to explore how mentoring

works, what the current problem issues and trends are – in the light of the latest literature.

1.3.2 Research questions

For the purpose of the research, three primary research questions were developed with two or three sub-questions each respectively:

1.   How does informal faculty mentoring work in Kazakhstani higher education institution?

>   a) How do academics conceptualize mentoring?

>   b) What kind of mentoring model(s) and forms occur at the university?

2.   What are professional responsibilities and competences of a mentor/ mentee?

>   a) What key competences should mentor possess in ensuring successful mentorship outcomes?

>   b) What attributes are regarded as important in ensuring effective mentoring relationships?

3.   What are the challenges and risks in mentoring relationships?

>   a) What challenges do young academics face during their early career period?

>   b) What potential pitfalls may occur between the parties of the mentorship relationships which would hinder its development?

>   c) How does the context impact on the development of mentoring relationships?

1.4 Definition of key terms

An applicable list of terms and definitions presented below is arranged to facilitate the understandings of the terminology used in the current research:

Beginning teacher	In the context of this research, beginning teacher refers to any university teacher in their first five years in the profession.
	In this research, beginning teacher is variously used as a newly hired member, junior teacher, newcomer, new entrant, young teacher.
Senior teacher	Any university teacher who has more than five years of experience in the field of higher education.
Mentor	A senior teacher who helps, assists and supports a new faculty member during his/her induction period.
Mentee	A new faculty member who is given support and advice about his/her new job
Formal mentoring	A mentoring relationship which is structured with specified written objectives and goals. The duration of the relationship is fixed and controlled.
	Usually, a mentor is assigned by the head of the department in order to measure the outcomes and monitor results.
Informal mentoring	A mentoring relationship which is voluntary-based, unstructured, and aims and expected outcomes are rarely planned.
	The duration of this relationship is usually not fixed. The involved parties can have long-lasting friendly relationship.
Naturally occurring mentoring	A natural mentor is a teacher who a new teacher identifies as a mentor rather than someone he/she is formally or informally matched. The selection is based on self-selection.
	In this research a new faculty member regards any colleagues as his/her mentor who helps and supports his/her in the induction period.
	The term is derived from Allen & Eby (2007)

Source: Author

1.5 Significance of the study

The literature emphasizes the importance of mentoring in faculty by stating that it increases job satisfaction, expands newly recruited faculty member's constellation of developmental relationships, providing them not only with career guidance but also psychosocial and emotional support with less work conflicts (Illes, Glover, Wexler, Leung, & Glazer, 2000; Janasz & Sullivan, 2001). This research contributes significantly to the research-based literature on faculty mentoring in the context of Kazakhstan since, as far as we know, there are no other studies conducted in Kazakhstan on this issue.

In the dissertation, the author analyzes how mentoring can facilitate young academics' professional development and collaboration in higher education as an additional tool of education and a form of professional socialization (Cawyer et al., 2002; Zambrana et al., 2015) in higher education institutions, focusing specifically on the individual level. It also delineates the importance of implementing a combined mentoring system among faculty members. Findings from this research may help department leaders in the universities to understand the importance of mentoring for newcomers, its benefits for the university and the relative advantages and applications of different types and forms of mentoring relationships. Additionally, findings can be used in improvement of faculty development tools, in particular, it provides insights on mentoring as a collaborative endeavor between senior and junior teachers.

1.6 Structure of the dissertation

The dissertation consists of five chapters beginning with the literature review in Chapter Two. The introductory part justifies the problem statement for the research including the research aims, key terms used in the current research and significance of it.

Chapter two, the *literature review* is presented in three main sections. Firstly, mentoring is investigated within the academic induction of new entrants, struggles they face, and the mechanisms that support professional socialization in the field of higher education. Since mentoring is considered as a means for professional socialization and mechanism for supporting newly appointed teacher's academic practice, professional development of junior teachers are examined in the second section of this chapter. The third section

of the literature overview covers the problems on definitions of mentoring, its main characteristics, benefits for the involved parties, and mentoring models. This section also investigates policy profile in education of Kazakhstan and a brief history of the development of mentoring mechanism in Kazakhstan.

Following the review of literature, *chapter three* discusses the research design and methodological issues inherent in conducting the research. Given the philosophical assumptions of the researcher, theoretical as well as knowledge frameworks are established in this chapter which guide the researcher throughout the research journey. The rationale for the research methods, the sampling units and sample size, and the data collection and data analysis are described. Ethical considerations and research limitations are also outlined in this chapter.

The research disposes the usage of inquiry method through interviews, with a pre-set semi-structured procedure. As human interaction and negotiation is regarded as the foundation for forming and understanding of social life in the interpretivist approach (Edwards & Holland, 2013), the usage of qualitative interviews allows to understand, interpret and answer the research questions which were set in this study. The involvement of university teachers, professors and academics in the qualitative interviewing allow to get a thorough and elaborated picture of how informal mentoring enhances their professional development, how it works in general in higher education in Kazakhstan.

Chapter four summarizes the findings derived from the collected data. The findings are described in three segments, respective to each research question, which are: (1) the concept of mentoring and its types and forms, (2) mentoring as an essential element of teacher's professional development, (3) mentor roles and competencies, (4) key factors for building effective mentoring, and (4) challenges in mentoring relationships.

Chapter five presents discussion of the findings related to the research questions and in relation to the literature review concerning faculty mentoring in the higher education setting.

Lastly, *conclusion* consists of concluding remarks, potential implications for the Kazakhstani context, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In Kazakhstan, mentoring as a factor of young workers' adaptation to a new workplace was dynamically investigated in the period between 70s and 80s of the XX century (Batyshev, 1977; Rogachevskaya, 1982; Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015). However, these research studies mainly focused on the analysis of mentoring within the existence of formal relationships. Transition to the marketplace, changes in professional priorities and values put out mentoring away as a means for professional socialization of newly hired specialists and, thus, there were no more studies on mentoring for a while. The primary results of disappearance of the mechanisms of continuum in the professional sphere, including mentoring, were 'value gaps' of generations, ageing of the professional staff, strictness in hiring new specialists, and decline of the psychological states of experienced workers who have no opportunities to achieve their potential (Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015).

During the changes in society and reforms in the system of professional training as well as education, it is important to find relevant and influential system mechanisms for professional training which provide the smooth transition and support of new appointed academics into their profession. Mentoring serves as one of such means.

The theoretical part of the dissertation presents an in-depth investigation into the significance and influence of faculty mentoring as a mechanism for professional socialization and supporting junior faculty members' academic practice in higher education context (*Figure* 1).

Figure 1. The area of investigation on mentoring
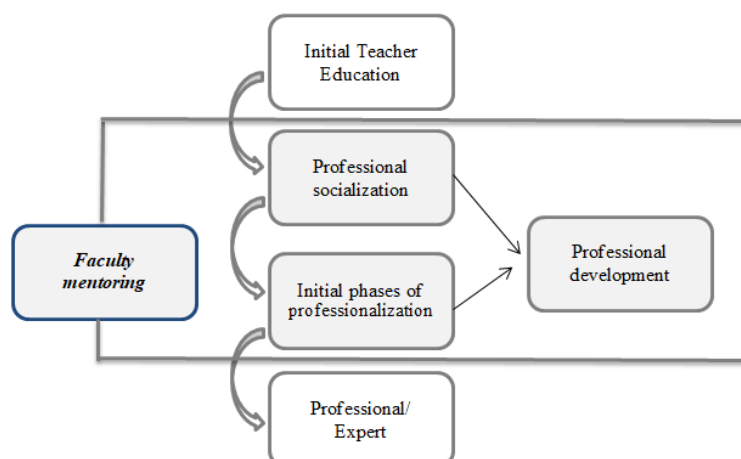
As seen from *Figure 1,* the findings from the literature review are divided into sections on academic induction (professional and organizational socialization), professional development, and academic mentoring in higher education:

o *Academic induction of university teachers*

In fact, when entering professional path frequently a new entrant is not familiar with the diapason of the specialization in the given profession. The more complete and deep knowledge about the occupation occurs during the early steps into the profession. The notion 'young academic' is not an age feature; it is an indicator of work experience of an individual professional. This part of the literature review examines the academic induction of new entrants, struggles they face, and the mechanisms that support professional and organizational socialization in the higher education realm.

o *Professional development in higher education*

Since mentoring is considered as a means for professional socialization and mechanism for supporting newly appointed teacher's academic practice in this research (*Figure 1*), in this part of the literature review, the author provides an insight into what is professional development in higher education. The main approaches and forms of professional development in the field of higher education are reviewed.

o *Faculty mentoring*

This part of the literature review starts by presenting the problems on definitions of mentoring, its main characteristics, and benefits for the involved parties (mentors, mentees, and the department). Following this, the exploration is focused on faculty mentoring among junior and senior tertiary teachers. The review then focuses on effective mentoring models. This chapter also includes educational policy initiatives in Kazakhstan and a brief history of development of the mentoring system in Kazakhstan, guiding the reader briefly through some events where mentoring was implemented and practiced.

2.1 Academic induction of university teachers

2.1.1 A brief overview on academic induction

The EU sees higher education institutions as key elements in achieving its strategic goals. In order to become competitive globally with highly qualified and highly skilled manpower in the dynamic knowledge-based economy, universities need to be 'healthy and flourishing' (EC, 2003, p.2). Therefore, higher education has become a competitive enterprise (Carmel & Paul, 2015; UNESCO, 2009). It is getting more difficult for students to compete for deficient places in universities. Universities compete for status and ranking. "While competition has always been a force in academe and can help produce excellence, it can also contribute to a decline in a sense of academic community, mission and traditional values" (UNESCO, 2009, p.ii).

The quality of teaching and learning as well as reforms and modernisation in higher educational institutions directly depends on the quality and competence of teachers working there (EC, 2003). Teachers, be at schools or universities, are the main elements in getting success of any system of education.

"The academic profession is under stress as never before," reported the UNESCO (2009, p.xiii) in the World Conference on Higher Education in 2009. The professoriate in higher education institutions faces a seemingly never-ending barrage of challenges, including massive revolutions in knowledge, information technology, and public demand for better teaching and learning quality (Chen et al., 2014).

We live in a promptly changing world which logic of changes, in many respects, it is defined by the development of information and communication technologies. It is characterized by the existence of an essential contradiction between generation of teachers and generation of students. The senior generation needs to retrain and adapt constantly to cardinally changing working conditions and life in general. Tendencies of the development in society say that in the present world successful person is a person who is able to quickly find relevant information and effectively apply it to the solution of different tasks (McFarlane & Sakellariou, 2002; Oliver, 2002; Sein & Harindranath, 2004).

These changes require forming a teacher of a new type who not only performs educational and pedagogical functions, but also is able to react appropriately to changes happening in the labour market, to react to the requirements of the changing society (Jones & Shao, 2011). Nowadays, the extension of the role repertoire of teacher is observed. Along with traditional roles (teacher-organizer of educational activity, teacher-educator and teacher-mentor), a teacher needs to be a tutor, a moderator, and a facilitator as well. Transformation of teacher roles (Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011) is caused by the influence of external and internal factors, innovations in professional spheres where problems of formal, non-formal and informal education, individual educational trajectories of teachers are becoming relevant.

Besides, profound alterations in social, economic, political, cultural and educational conditions assume a higher education teacher to have the ability to make decisions in uncontemplated and irregular situations with a lack of relevant information and time to react pliably to the changes and innovations (Clegg, 2008). With the changes taking place in universities, academics face a number of requirements which affect their roles such as institutional research and development, enterprise and community partnership, 'hard' managerialism (Knight & Trowler, 2000) and, certainly, teaching and learning, thus, leading to the emergence of multiple identities which are sometimes conflicting (Lamont & Nordberg, 2014).

Professional socialization and professional development is an interlaced, interpenetrating, continuously complicated social and educational system constructing social and educational links (Izadinia, 2014). This system assumes as a leading feature including educational cooperation, teacher's orientation to achieve initial goal and controlling of its outcomes, accurately planning and development using selected or specifically expanded approaches, forms and methods (Izadinia, 2014).

Currently, problems in academic induction are getting more essential and researched by specialists from different spheres. This term is studied from various aspects and approaches, hence fundamentally varied views can be examined in solving its separate questions. The great importance is given to school teachers, how the induction programs work and function (Blömeke et al., 2015; Kidd, Brown, & Fitzallen, 2015; Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986; K. M. Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985), but there are only a few studies devoted to the induction period of young academics in higher education

institutions (Billot, 2010; Fitzmaurice, 2013; Trede, Macklin, & Bridges, 2012). Billot (2010) highlights that the effectiveness of academic induction in the field of higher education is under-monitored and argues that higher education institutions should give much prominence to professional socialization through adequate and supportive scaffolding of the numerous tasks and duties that beginning young academics need to take on. Trede, Macklin and Bridges (2012) carried out a systematic review on professional identity formation in the university setting and the authors also concluded that "there is a dearth of journal articles that comprehensively explore the development of professional identity through higher education" (p.368).

2.1.2 Problems and pitfalls of the professional socialization

There are two types of socialization of an individual: *professional socialization* and *organizational socialization* (Crow & Glascock, 1995). The former contemplates with the skills, knowledge and dispositions to be a part of the profession, whereas the latter designates a process where a new faculty member assumes a position in a specific organization.

Professional socialization is a lifelong process (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999) as well as an ongoing information exchange process (Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998) through which a newly appointed faculty member becomes a participating member of a group of professionals and assimilates their norms and culture.

In general, induction, as defined by Trethowan and Smith (1984, p.1 as cited in Katz & Coleman, 2001) is a process "which enables a newcomer to become a fully effective member of an organization as quickly and as easily as possible" with the aim to socialize, achieve competence and exposure to an institutional culture. In a broader sense, academic induction or professional socialization in higher education is a dynamic process of completely acclimating the given profession and mastering pedagogical skills based on the previously gained and continuously enriched and updated knowledge, skills and competencies as a result of which modification is taken place with the aim of effectively and professionally functioning (Cornelissen & Van Wyk, 2007). Also, during the professional socialization, a new teacher learns to appreciate values and norms, expected behaviors, and 'social knowledge for assuming a role in the

organization and for participating as an organizational member' (Albrecht & Bach, 1997, p.196).

To understand the experiences of beginning teachers, learning their perspectives, thoughts, and actions is crucial (Dinkelman et al., 2006). The research indicates that work in higher education is mostly challenging and stressful for newly hired academics (Boyd et al., 2011; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer et al., 2002). Most of the examinations and observations on teacher education have considerably neglected the questions of what a new university teacher needs to know and how he/she learns it (Dinkelman et al., 2006).

The struggles, which new entrants face, are seen in uncertainty about the specific nature of new professional roles, difficulty in managing with the pedagogical skills specifically designed for adult learners and concerns about the adequacy of the professional and academic knowledge bases necessary for higher education work. One of the key challenges occurred in tertiary education for newcomers are underpinned by scholarship and research. To support the research development of new university teachers the mission of departments is to provide effective support through mentoring and collaborative projects (Boyd et al., 2011). Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999) emphasized that in many cases universities make stress on research area to prevail over teaching and there is too much pressure for junior university teachers to publish (Carmel & Paul, 2015). Consequently, university teachers who work in a system that emphasizes the importance of research on teaching and other tasks tend to develop an ambivalent attitude toward teaching (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999).

In a study, which set out to examine academic induction in universities, Staniforth and Harland (2006) reported that typical formal activities for new entrants in the academic career should include institution-wide orientation programs, mentoring schemes and departmental handbooks. But apart from these supporting programs for newcomers, as the authors (ibid.) claim, the department itself and the head of it plays the most significant social site for adaptation period. Because heads hold a powerful position in relation to a new staff and act as 'gatekeepers in authorizing certain academic activities' (Staniforth & Harland, 2006, p.186), they are also in control of performance evaluation and tenure decisions. In the same vein, Fulton, Yoon and Lee (2005) in their study contemplated the system of induction as a network embracing supports, people and

processes that are all targeted at assuring that new faculty members become effective in their professional work. Induction process, apart from being just a phase, should represent a network of relationships and support with well-defined roles, activities and outcomes (Fulton et al., 2005).

The effectiveness of the professional socialization process is examined by certain criteria. The most distinguished criteria of successful professional induction is the young specialist's outcomes in his/her professional career: the quality of performed work, competences, his/her actual role and status in the given faculty, professional growth. In addition, satisfaction with the job choice, relation to profession, works on professional development and learning, professional goals of a beginning specialist characterizing his/her steadiness in the field of chosen occupation and faculty members. On making inquiries concerning challenges and tensions, influencing factors and induction period of new arrivals in the tertiary education, Izadinia (2014) divided external challenges and internal tensions faced by beginning university teachers into *real-world challenges* (lack of knowledge in research, teaching management, lack of understanding the university structure, teaching loads, difficulties in making connections with colleagues and students, etc.) and *emotional tensions* (conflicting roles, stress, feeling de-skilled, isolation, etc.). The same ideas that newly hired educators collide with numerous mentioned challenges are investigated by Martinez (2008) who stresses the fact that young university teachers are not provided with appropriate assistance as they struggle with pitfalls around the new institutional expectations. Martinez (2008) adds, referring to Kitchen (2005) and Sinkinson (1997), that early-career academics' autonomy is accompanied by overwhelming workloads. More than that, *isolation* is strongly placed in new young educators' early career path and mostly informal professional assistance is highly valued to escape from that isolation (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer et al., 2002).

One of the primary features of adaptation process is its mechanisms and factors. Mechanisms of the induction process, as well as factors which drive this mechanism into action, are considered to be a key strength of the adaptation process, defining its rapidity and effectiveness of its progress. Not to be aware of the source of the given process means not to have an opportunity to manage it consciously, purposefully and efficiently (King, Roed, & Wilson, 2018).

2.1.3 Mechanisms and support types of professional socialization

Crow and Glascock (1995) differentiate three *constituent parts of mechanisms* in the process of socialization to a new role: *exploration, giving up the previous role, and adjusting self and new role to each other*. In doing so, newly appointed faculty members go through the process of delving into different features of the academic role. The second mechanism refers to new member's assimilating his or her new role as a university lecturer or researcher, while the third mechanism envisages the fact that based on the new arrival's characteristics and perceptions of the new role, they will establish new relationships with the faculty members in work to ease their adjustment (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999). Graphically, this mechanism is illustrated in Huberman's (1989) thematic model for professional cycle of teachers:

Table 1. Professional cycle of teachers

Years of experience	Career phases/ Themes
1-3	Beginnings, feeling one's way ↓
4-6	Stabilization, consolidation of a pedagogical repertoire ↓←←↔→→↓
7-25	Diversification, activism → Reassessment ↓ ← ↓
26-33	Serenity, affective distance Conservatism ↓ ↓
34-40	Disengagement (serene or bitter)

Source: Adapted from Huberman (1989)

To support and guide new entrants, Cawyer, Simonds and Davis (2002) suggest to provide three kinds of support during the probationary period: emotional support, informational support and instrumental support. By lending emotional support, new faculty members will know that they are cared for and leave the feeling of detachment. Informational support provides them with facts and advice, norms and regulations of the organization or department. Lastly, instrumental support offers physical assistance to deal with stress.

Socialization is a process; a process is a sequential change of a number of stations of definite live situations and thoughts that leads to quality alterations and transition to different occurrences. The precise adaptation refers not only to progression or changes,

but also to development that is characterized by quality, directedness, irreversibility. The vital source of development is contradictions, being the main driving force of the socialization process it is the core of the induction period of a newly hired.

These contradictions may be:

- well trained in theory and inefficiency in using this theoretical knowledge in practice;
- the content and level of preparedness to implement in teaching activities, the content and diversity of requirements to fulfill it;
- gained knowledge necessary to accomplish teaching goals;
- professional expectations and actual professional reality;
- social expectations and challenges and actual role in the structure of interpersonal relationships with faculty staff members;
- personal interests and needs to opportunities and requirements of the professional occupation (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Martinez, 2008; Mullins, 2005).

In general, as Mullins (2005) highlighted, "induction should include attention to rules and regulations, familiarization with the culture and methods of operation of the organization, and personal training and development needs" (p.816).

In the basis of professional contradictions lies discrepancy between the systems of requirements specified for young specialist's professional work in higher education and the fulfillment of these requirements in the professional work in particular work conditions. In the professional work this discrepancy is noticed as shortages, failures and drawbacks. Hereby, resolving of hardships and pitfalls as well as identifying and coping with failures faced by young academics represent the core mechanism of their transition period (Martinez, 2008).

Overall, the studies on the induction period of new university teachers highlight the need for implementing formal mentoring schemes or programs as mentoring is commonly associated with inducing as well as professional development tool for the faculty (Katz & Coleman, 2001). Mentoring also serves as a facilitation point in new academic's professional socialization because mentoring relationships empower newly

hired members to establish interpersonal bonds, get support and advice from their colleagues and peers (Cawyer et al., 2002).

2.1.4 Organizational socialization

As was stated in the previous sub-chapters, socialization is a mutual adjustment of a new worker and the organization based on gradual entry of this employee into new professional, social and organizational-economic working conditions (Güneş & Uysal, 2019).

At heart, organizational socialization, apart from the professional socialization examined above, is based on the new staff member's understanding and acceptance of his or her organizational status, organizational structure and existing governance arrangements in order to participate successfully as an organizational member (Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003). Organizational socialization is not only about learning and adapting to the organization or institution, it is also a "process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member" (Louis, 1980, p.229).

Haueter, Macan and Winter (2003) differentiate two types of research of the organizational socialization literature: organizational socialization as a *pure process* consisting of definite stages or phases, and as a *multidimensional process* focused on the information-acquisition and feedback-seeking behaviors of new entrants.

As a multidimensional process organizational adaptation has its particular dimensions (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994) and within these dimensions a newcomer crosses three boundaries when entering a new work environment which is functional, hierarchical, and inclusionary (Schein, 1971).

The specific dimensions of the organizational socialization consist of the following six parameters:

- *Performance proficiency* (how the newcomer learns to perform the required work task),

- *People* (how the newcomer makes contacts with his/her new colleagues from whom he/she can learn about the organization, departments and work group),

- *Politics* (how the newcomer learns about working within the group's culture and deal with political behavior). Here organization's culture "teaches people how to behave, what to hope for, and what it means to succeed or fail" (Tierney, 1997, p.4).

- *Language* (how the newcomer, entering a new work environment, learns about profession's technical language and slangs and jargons which is uniquely used in this particular organization),

- *Organizational goals and values* (how the newcomer understands the rules, principles and norms that maintain the integrity of the organization as well as learning unwritten, informal and tacit goals and values),

- *History* (the newcomer's cultural knowledge about the organization's traditions and customs) (Chao et al., 1994; Feldman, 1976; Fisher, 1986; Haueter et al., 2003).

Admittedly, as seen, adaptation is not just a simple process. It is a multifaceted and learning process (Cheng, Wang, Moormann, Olaniran, & Chen, 2012; Tierney, 1997) "through which the individual acquires the knowledge and skills, the values and attitudes, and the habits and modes of thought of the society to which he belongs" (Bragg, 1976, p.3). Also, it is a joint process (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1996) involving the organization to influence and shape its new coming workers and a newcomer who needs to define an acceptable role for him/herself within this new organization or institution.

Research has confirmed the importance of learning (Bauer et al., 1996; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Fisher, 1986) during the adaptation because learning is "the core of organizational socialization" (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006, p.497) As a learning and change process, organizational socialization consists of main five types of learning, according to Fisher (1986):

1) Preliminary learning (how a newcomer learns what and from whom he/she needs to learn),

2) Learning about the organization itself,

3) Learning to function in teams, with colleagues,

4) Learning to do the new job,

5) Personal learning (how a newcomer learns more about him/herself).

All these types of learning occur during three distinct phases within the socialization process (Bauer et al., 1996):

1) *Anticipatory socialization* when a newcomer prepares him/herself for the entry into the new workplace,

2) *Stage of initial confrontation* where 2nd, 3rd and 4th types of learning happens which are indicated above,

3) *Stage of role management or mutual acceptance* where a newcomer acts as a full member of the organization.

As been noted, socialization as a multifaceted process has its parameters, learning phases as well as process phases of adaptation. Hence, all these are heavily influenced by organizational structures and activities (Bauer et al., 1996). All well-developed steps and activities provided by the organization and attempts done from a newcomer, however, don't mean that it leads to a smooth and quick adaptation, and without evolutionary difficulty (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977).

Thus, socialization, professional and organizational, occurs through social interactions between newly hired faculty members and organizational 'insiders' (N. Li, Harris, Boswell, & Xie, 2011) in roles of peer colleagues and supervisors. These insiders, as the research indicates, are crucial in adaptation (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006) as they provide information, feedback, role models as well as social relationships and support. That's why organizational insiders are 'useful sources of information' (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006, p.495).

The outcomes of "successful socialization" is fully influenced by newcomers, organizations, and cultures (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998). This is mostly individualized factors such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, reduced stress and anxiety, and a lower intention of leaving the job (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

Taking into account the parameters of adaptation within any organization (learning domains), its indicators for success and learning sources for newcomers, Cooper-

Thomas and Anderson (2006) developed a multi-level learning-focused model of organizational socialization (*Figure 2*):

Figure 2. A multi-level learning-focused model of organizational socialization
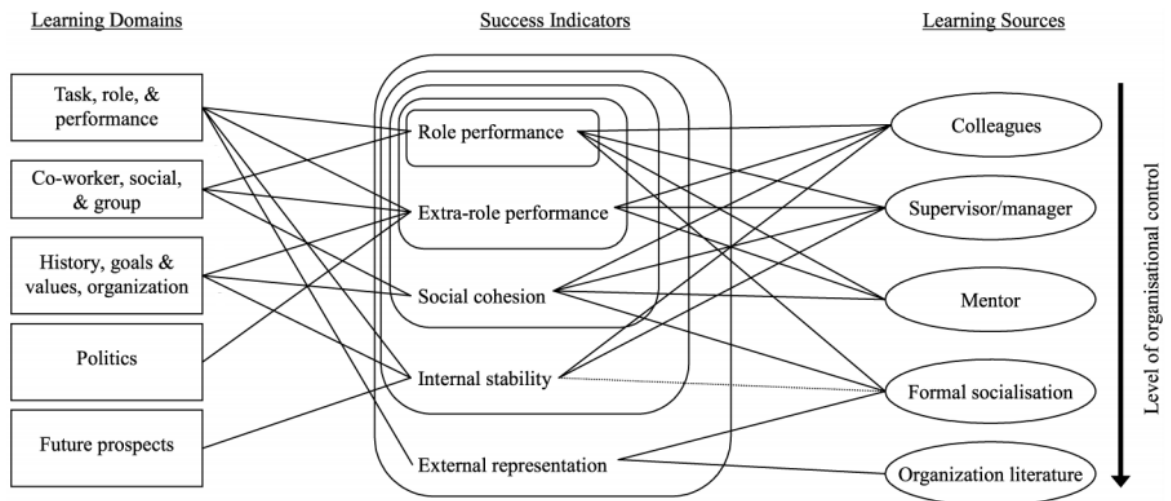
Source: Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006, p.499)

Learning domains given in *Figure 2* are specific dimensions of the organizational socialization described at the beginning of this sub-chapter. The essence of the model is success indicators at five levels which increase gradually: from a newcomer's role performance to external representing.

Role performance involves such activities as task mastery, promotion and salary growth, building relationships with new colleagues and establishing social relations and networks. Extra-role performance helps to enhance a newcomer's behaviors that facilitate organizational productivity. In the level of social cohesion a newcomer builds bridges through organizational levels, and this level is focused on building shared attitudes, values and norms, and behaviors that support collegial relations and promote a common understanding of organizational goals. Internal stability is about to minimizing the negative effects on a newcomer's turnover and not leaving the job. Finally, external representation refers to how fully members of the organization portray their organization to external organizations.

As seen from the learning sources of this model (*Figure 2*) one of the key sources for newcomers are mentors. All key members indicated in the column of the learning

sources help newcomers to learn better about the organization and become an effective member of the organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

To conclude, organizational socialization is "a mechanism by which newly entering employees learn about organizational politics and power dynamics" (Bauer et al., 1996, p.151). Moreover, organizational socialization is a contingent and contextual process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) and it is "embedded deeply within a larger and continually changing environment" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, p.5).

2.2 Professional development in higher education

2.2.1 Defining professional development

The system of professional development (PD) of teachers in the field of higher education should consider all changes happening in education: intensification of the educational process, advanced content and forms to organize them, socio-cultural retargeting in education, new strategies in management and financing of educational institutions.

Due to rapid changes in education, professional characteristics of teacher educators in higher education are more enumerated to be possessed of a combination of personal and professional characteristics, practical knowledge of self-governance which will determine the level of their personal as well as professional growth.

Mentoring is considered as a 'reform' type of professional development (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001). In comparison with traditional activities of professional development reform types can have more influence on how teachers learn and therefore affect changing teaching practice (Garet et al., 2001).

As a means for professional growth the system of mentorship is centered around empowering prospective teachers to speculate on expanded ways of engaging in teaching and learning since teacher learning is an integral part of mentoring (Campbell & Brummett, 2007; Huling & Resta, 2001; Lee & Feng, 2007; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Thorndyke, Gusic, George, Quillen, & Milner, 2006; VanDerLinden, 2005). Once engaged in effective mentoring relationships, there will be opportunities to grow and develop professionally for both, mentor and mentee (Hudson, 2013). In addition,

'mentoring can lead towards career planning and potential leadership roles for mentors as it can enhance communication skills, develop leadership skills, and increase professional status' (Hudson, 2013, p.773).

Professional development is a multidimensional concept (Inamorato, Gausas, Mackeviciute, Jotautyte, & Maitinaitis, 2019) and for this reason Kelchtermans (2004) defined it as a 'container concept' (p.9). The research puts on display the diverseness of the definitions and explanations given to professional development by different authors regarding the varied roles and settings in which university teachers work. Therefore, the concept and allocation of it is highly complex and multifaceted (G. Nicholls, 2014).

In describing professional development four primary aspects are addressed in the literature which consists of *"Who? How? and What?"* questions and authors define themselves which aspects to include when defining professional development:

- *Who* is the main subject of the PD?
- *How* does it happen (PD as the process)?
- *What* skills are targeted during the PD (PD as the content)?
- *What* are the (expected) results of PD? (Inamorato, Gausas, Mackeviciute, Jotautyte, & Maitinaitis, 2019, p.9).

Some authors use professional development in a wider sense and interpret professional development including informal and unintentional practices of learning (Craft, 2002; Ferris & Samuel, 2020; Ganser, 2000). For instance, Nicholls (2014) envisaged the term professional development in a broader sense, stating that it is "one aspect of learning and a way in which practitioners can understand the need to change, and that this involves continual learning, whether formally and informally" (p.10). In the similar idea is Ganser (2000) who reckons professional development as a combination of formal as well as informal experiences which may encourage teachers in their professional role.

Professional development, as indicated Day (1999), is

> "the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives" (p.4).

Thus, he sees professional development as a process that proceeds throughout one's life. In addition to its knowledge and skills components, Day (1999) assigned emotional intelligence and commitment as essential parts of professional development.

Professional development in higher education is interchangeably used with the terms 'continuous professional development' (CPD) (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Little, 2004; Sugrue, 2004) or teacher development (Avalos, 2004).

In the higher educational setting professional development is exclusively discussed as the organized on-the-job, structured and intentional practices of learning (Darling-Hammond, Hyler, & Gardner, 2017; Dysart & Weckerle, 2015; Inamorato et al., 2019), "resulting from the meaningful interaction between the teacher and their professional context" (Kelchtermans, 2004, p.9) that leads to "changes [in] teacher knowledge and practices, and improvements in student learning outcomes" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017, p.2). That's why professional development in this part of the literature review is examined in a narrow way and professional development is considered as an organized and in-service PD since the author compares and contrasts it to mentoring which is also work-based and provided by the institution.

Professional development is an integral part of the lifelong learning of teachers (Grundy & Robison, 2004). Primary functions of professional development is centered around three basic parts as *extension, growth and renewal* which means "extension through educational innovation, growth through the development of greater levels of expertise and renewal through transformation and change of knowledge and practice" (Grundy & Robison, 2004, p.149).

Also, professional development is a long-term process which encompasses regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically (Day & Sachs, 2004) in order to improve personally and professionally, development in the profession. The research on PD emphasizes the significance of workplace context (Kelchtermans, 2004) which in turn prompted to the use and theorizing of *informal learning* (Kyndt, Gijbels, Grosemans, & Donche, 2016; Lohman, 2006; Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2011), *life learning* (Grundy & Robison, 2004) and *workplace learning* (Eraut & Hirsh, 2010; Gamrat, Zimmerman, Dudek, & Peck, 2014; Rainbird, Fuller, & Munro, 2004; Virolainen, 2007) in teachers' professional development. Thus, it can be

considered that university teachers' personal education, context where they work, and culture itself may have a huge impact on teacher's learning experiences.

According to Eraut and Hirsh (2010), "The entire learning system is dynamic through time and has to respond to the changing needs of organisations, the changing aspirations of individuals, changes in the labour market and in outputs from the education system, and so on" (p.3). The authors claim that learning can be examined from two perspectives, individual and social. From the individual perspective enables us to examine what people know, what people can do, what and how they learn, and variations in how different people and use what they learn. The social perspective gives knowledge on the social nature of different contexts for learning, the social nature of knowledge, and the impact of cultural practices and products that provide knowledge resources for learning (Eraut & Hirsh, 2010). Thus, professional development of university teachers can take various dimensions varying in different settings.

2.2.2 Approaches to study professional development

Professional development encompasses experience along with a systematic approach to learning implying reflection, conceptualization and planning. In a university setting teacher educators should develop various skills significant to the art of teaching. To be self-critical, competent, responsible, actively engaged in continuing development is of fundamental importance. Learning through reflective practice, through dialogue, through feedback and assessment is needed to be included in their professional development programs (Beaty, 1998). Apart from that, university teachers should be ensured with opportunities to learn from students, curriculum and teaching strategies so that student learning is improved (Brancato, 2003).

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2001) define three prominent approaches to professional development:

- ▪ 'knowledge-*for*-practice': the generation of formal knowledge and theory for teachers so that they can use and implement them in practice,
- ▪ 'knowledge-*in*-practice': the usage of the practical knowledge in practice and in teachers' reflections on practice,

- 'knowledge-*of*-practice': 'understanding of knowledge-practice relationships as well as how inquiry produces knowledge, how inquiry relates to practice, and what teachers learn from inquiry within communities' (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001, p.48).

Figure 3. Professional development in mentoring
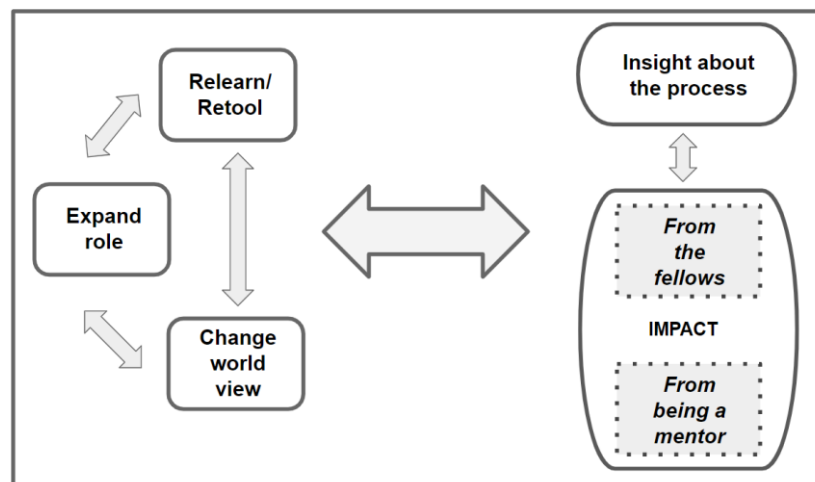
Source: Gilles & Wilson (2004)

The survey in Gilles and Wilson (2004) demonstrates how mentoring enhances and facilitates teachers' professional development. As seen in *Figure 3* the results indicate that professional development through mentoring include new facets of learning or retooling, expansion of mentors' roles, change in one's teaching worldview, insights concerning the mentorship relationships, understanding of the impact of mentoring on teachers. These categories emerged in the survey show how they support and enhance one another (*Figure 3*).

There are factors which enhance professional development. The main two of them, as reported Smith (2017), are university teacher's self-initiation and determination to leave the comfort zone and face new challenges, and collaboration with colleagues. Educators need to experiment with new teaching approaches and techniques, to be self-critical and competent, not to be afraid to ask for help from those who is more experienced and knowledgeable (Beaty, 1998). That's why development is not 'a clean linear movement' (Beaty, 1998, p.100).

Lack of time and work overload also hindrance teachers to participate in professional development (MacPhail et al., 2018).

2.2.3 Types of professional development in the higher education setting

The purposes of professional development are:

- to improve research-theoretical and research-methodological knowledge and professional competences of academics in accordance with the State educational standards as well as educational area,
- to maintain interest in the profession,
- to meet academics' requirements in acquiring modern professional knowledge (subject, pedagogical, cultural, etc.),
- to encourage university teachers in accomplishment of their creative potential;
- to grow personally and professionally,
- to improve quality in education,
- to improve the profession of teacher education (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017; Inamorato et al., 2019; K. C. Li & Wong, 2019; MacPhail et al., 2018; Mundy, Kupczynski, Ellis, & Salgado, 2012).

In the light of the literature review, following forms of professional development were identified in a university setting:

- studying in Master or Doctoral degree programmes;
- internships;
- in-service training activities (workshops, seminars, etc.) (Futrell, 2010; Mundy et al., 2012; Gill Nicholls, 2005)
- Collaboration:
    - Co-teaching (Grangeat & Gray, 2008);
    - Common learning (Dengerink, Lunenberg, & Kools, 2015);
    - Discussion groups (Hadar & Brody, 2013);
    - Joint research (Griffiths, Thompson, & Hryniewicz, 2010; McGregor, Hooker, Wise, & Devlin, 2010);
    - Peer observations (Amrein-Beardsley & Popp, 2012; Lomas & Kinchin, 2006);
- Portfolio (Järvinen & Kohonen, 1995; Klenowski, Askew, & Carnell, 2006);
- Active learning (taking special professional development courses and on-the-job trainings) (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017);

- formal faculty appraisal (Murdoch, 2000; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992);
- curriculum and organizational development (Inamorato et al., 2019; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992);
- learning by doing and learning by teaching (H. King, 2013);
- use of models and modeling (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

The indicated types of PD can be further classified into 3 main groups:

- *Direct learning* (e.g. conferences, seminars or workshops),
- *Learning in school/ university* (e.g. mentoring, active research, team planning, etc.),
- *Learning out of school/ university* (e.g. PD centers, subject-specific networks, etc.) (Lieberman, 1996).

Thus, professional development is a process including "a systematic observation, analysis and reflection of teaching practice" (Engin & Atkinson, 2015, p.164) and this involves a considerable number of activities such as "discussion, investigation, experimentation with new practices, learning, expansion of knowledge, acquisition of new skills, and the development of approaches, stances, knowledge and work tools" (Shagrir, 2012, p.23).

Engin and Atkinson (2015) claim that professional responsibilities of an academic consists of teaching, research and service, and professional development is not always taken into consideration as an essential part of the named activities. Despite this, professional development plays a necessary and important part in the life of an academic. First and foremost, due to the rapid changes in the educational environment university teachers need to manage to keep abreast of new developments and innovations in education, and, consequently, be lifelong learners (Engin & Atkinson, 2015). Therefore, it is important for academics to structure professional development plan and this should be placed as 'an ongoing priority' (Brockett, 1991, p.98). This plan should contain the following stages: initiating, planning, managing, and evaluating (Brockett, 1991).

Teachers themselves are learners as well. They are expected to have self-regulation of their learning in order to obtain different types of knowledge and skills (Van Eekelen, Boshuizen, & Vermunt, 2005, p.448). In attempting to find an answer to the question on

how teachers learn in higher education, Eekelen and co-workers in their study give several conceptions formulated by Cochran-Smith and Lytle in 1999 (as cited in Van Eekelen et al., 2005). According to this formulation, teacher learning is considered to have formal knowledge. In this case, teachers usually learn from best practice examples described in different kinds of literature, "how to teach" books or publications in 'self-help' genre (McMillan, 2007, as cited in Duarte, 2013) or learn from different types of trainings (all these are typical to most professional development programmes). In the second conception, teachers learn by constructing their practical knowledge through reflection on their experience. The third conception states that the knowledge of the teachers is generated. The last two conceptions can be seen within the constructivist view on adult learning (Van Eekelen et al., 2005).

As Boud (1999) claims, mostly the development of academics appears to happen in locations where they spend most of their time: departments where they work, professional settings, and research sites. Today, with the prompt changes in education, academic work is no longer individualized in nature, on the contrary, cooperation and collaboration is becoming vital in the higher education realm (Cervero, 1990; Fox & Faver, 1984; Grangeat & Gray, 2008; MacPhail et al., 2018; Montiel-Overall, 2005). One example of it is a reciprocal peer learning where academics, being members of a participative culture (Boud, 1999, p.4), share their experiences, decisions and obligations.

As seen from the literature, most of the authors state the importance and effectiveness of collaborative professional development activities of university academics. But the question remains whether these studies take into consideration teacher's individualities, concerns, and most particularly country-specific patterns (educational institutions, the government or the profession). Professional development of academics should include diverse activities for the better results: be it formal or informal, individual or team-based.

2.3 Mentoring: General overview

In the system of education the central and key figure was and will be a teacher. However, modern pedagogical reality is characterized by the rapid changes, complexity of the contents of a teacher's professional role, requirements and needs to his or her personal as well as professional activities.

An inexperienced faculty member, beginning his/her professional career steps, straightway faces on his/her professional path various new changes taking place in the system of modern education with which a new entrant is unable to find out more about it due to its rapid alteration and because of his/her lack of teaching experience and skills (Carmel & Paul, 2015). In addition, as a representative of new generation, generation of the XXI century, this modern teacher differs from his/her senior colleagues by his/her worldview, relation to his/her profession, to work and many other things (Austin, 2003).

Teacher's grounding and education to the sophisticated multifunctional profession comprises a holistic, sustained and continuous process, directed to shape and model personal qualities, professional skills, knowledge and competences which are sufficient and appropriate to his/her personal needs as well as qualification requirements.

This strategic goal is approached by the system of mentoring which is capable to intensify the professional formation process of a newly hired university teacher and building his/her motivation leading to self-improvement, self-development and self-realization.

The research of the literature is mainly based on the substantial review and analysis of publications, books and journal articles dedicated to mentorship implemented and practiced in the higher education institutions setting. There is a large volume of published studies describing the role of mentoring new faculty (e.g. Boice, 1992; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer et al., 2002; Donnelly & McSweeney, 2011; Jackson & Simpson, 1994; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991; Wasburn & LaLopa, 2003). Thus, surveys conducted on faculty mentoring were more extensively included whereas numerous studies examining and analyzing mentoring with emphasize on the issues of gender, race, ethnicity as well as observing mentoring of undergraduate and graduate students were the points for excluding.

This section of the study envisages the following aspects of faculty mentoring:

1. main characteristics of mentoring

2. benefits of mentoring

3. academic mentoring

4. models of mentoring

5. brief history of mentorship development in Kazakhstan

2.3.1. The main characteristics of mentoring

In the modern theory of education mentorship is given more importance as a mechanism for professional socialization and supporting junior faculty member's academic practice in higher education context. Among them, Lewis's (1999) view can be mentioned which contemplates the notion 'mentorship' as a system of relationships and series of processes where one person offers his/her help, supervision, advice and support to another one. Mentor is a person who possesses qualified experiences and knowledge, has high level of communication, is eager to help and assist to his/her protégé to gain experience which is essential and sufficient for being professional (Lewis, 1999).

In different resources mentoring is appeared in different forms: as a variety of working with non-achiever students (Huskin, 2001), as a learning discourse guide, as a type of support of juniors in the institution (Cruddas & Cruddas, 2005), and for personal satisfaction and growth (Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004), as a way to enhance career advancement (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Psychologists in their turn enriched the understanding of the system of mentorship by demonstrating that social interaction plays a crucial role in the development of learning the subject (Rogers, 1995) and by associating the concept of consultation approach with the effectiveness of learning (Egan, 2013).

The relevance and significance of mentoring in education is substantiated by the fact that not all beginning young specialists are ready and fully developed to begin their professional career. Therefore, mentors' main goals should be to develop newly hired member's professional interests, to assist them in building their professional knowledge, skills and competences, in improving their proficiency.

A great number of literature dedicated to mentoring put up a struggle for giving an accurately specified definition of mentoring (Crisp & Cruz, 2009; Dawson, 2014;

Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks, 2011). Thus, for instance, Berk et al. (2005) argue that despite the fact that mentoring has been researched since the mid-1970s there is no strict and thorough accepted definition of it, especially when talking about mentoring in academia. In addition, Berk *et al.* (2005) reported that there are no specific guidelines or criteria to define the mentoring relationship or to evaluate the mentor's effectiveness. Nevertheless, they interpreted mentoring as follows:

> "A mentoring relationship is one that may vary along a continuum from informal/short-term to formal/long-term in which faculty with useful experience, knowledge, skills, and/or wisdom offers advice, information, guidance, support, or opportunity to another faculty member or student for that individual's professional development" (Berk, Berg, Mortimer, Walton-Moss, & Yeo, 2005, p.67),

and determined such characteristics of a faculty mentor as "expertise, professional integrity, honesty, accessibility, approachability, motivation, respect by peers in field, and supportiveness and encouragement" (Berk *et al.*, 2005, p.67).

Crisp and Cruz (2009) made an analysis of literature in the field of education, business and psychology and found out more than fifty definitions of mentoring which differ in scope and breadth. The authors admit the fact that in the field of education researchers do not provide readers with accurate definition of mentoring: "some quantitative studies have also failed to provide a lack of a clear operational definition, despite use of research designs that require a clear definition to properly examine the impact of a mentoring program or intervention on some measure of student success" (Crisp & Cruz, 2009, p.528).

Significant attention in literature is devoted not only to forms of organization and holding mentoring, but to mentor's personal characteristics as well (Hall, Draper, Smith, & Bullough, 2008; Rose, 2003; Whitaker, 2000). Researchers distinguish following characteristics of a successful mentor:

- personal devotion to other person during rather a long period;
- respect to individual, his/her abilities and right to make his/her own choice in life;
- ability to listen and perceive various points of view;
- ability to empathize in contention with other person;
- ability to see not only obstacles, but decisions and opportunities;

- flexibility and openness (Bozionelos, 2004; Sambunjak, Straus, & Marusic, 2010).

The carried-out roles of mentor give a chance to develop his/her own "human" qualities and to promote his/her mentee's significant professional qualities, increment of the professional competence, therefore, to achieve quality in teaching.

The main characteristics of mentoring, according to Eby, Rhodes and Allen (2007), are that mentoring is a learning partnership, a unique relationship between individuals, a process of support, a reciprocal relationship, a dynamic process where mentor-mentee relationship changes over time.

In general, mentoring is defined as the process of facilitation of newly hired academics directed to accelerated mastering of a new profession or ability, reduction of stress during a transition period, improvement of executing instructions by new teachers by means of mentor-teacher and socialization of junior academics in the teaching profession (Denmark, 2013).

2.3.2 Benefits of mentoring

A considerable number of literature (Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006; Jakubik, Eliades, & Weese, 2016; Koch & Johnson, 2000; Lumpkin, 2011; McKinley, 2004) emphasize the benefits for mentees as well as mentors in the mentorship relationships. Notably, in their study Huling and Resta (2001), after investigating literature on mentoring, listed a number of advantages which mentor will gain him/herself in the mentor partnership. Thus, as mentorship is a reciprocal relationship, mentor updates and improves his/her professional competency as during close collaboration with new teachers they serve as a source of new ideas in terms of teaching techniques, creativeness, lesson planning, sharing new literature. This in turn leads to reflective practice as they always analyze, critically give feedback, and deepen their own teaching sensitivity and skill. Mentoring relationships give an opportunity for renewal and regeneration as well as psychological benefits for both parties (Huling & Resta, 2001). This idea is also supported by Luna and Cullen (1995) who strongly believe that in mentorship relationship a mentee becomes empowered through the assistance of his/her mentor whilst a mentor feels renewed through "the sharing of power and the advocacy of collegiality" (p.6).

The research indicates that mentored junior academics acquire more promotions, get higher incomes, feel career satisfaction and success, and mobility, thus, mentoring is "one avenue for improving the quality of work life for organizational members" (Schrodt, Cawyer, & Sanders, 2003, p.17). Apart from that, being in a learning community approached mentoring network, new junior members manage to solve the problems concerned with stress management and balancing the triangle of teaching, research and service with personal responsibilities, and build cross-cohort supportive connections (Beane-Katner, 2014).

Zeind and her colleagues (2005) indicated conceivable advantages for a mentor which include boosted self-esteem, updated approach to their own academic work, and increase in job satisfaction whereas for the mentee it can include such profits as smoother transition into the academic life and increased likelihood of success (Zeind et al., 2005). In addition to these improvements in academic performance, productivity in terms of presenting papers at conferences, publishing articles, demonstrating independence as a new scholar, developing professional skills, networking can be put forward as beneficial outcomes of mentoring (Johnson, 2007; Liu, Xie, Sun, & Lv, 2020).

There are different forms and stages of mentorship, although all these forms provide

> "an educative-translative bridge between the hard knowledge and explicit skills associated with formal curricula/policy and the soft knowledge and implicit skills developed in spaces that lie outside of formal curricula/policy. Put more simply, effective mentoring allows an individual to connect common knowledge (what and how) to common sense (why) and people of common interest (who)" (Austin, 2018, p.6).

Generally speaking, based on the literature review, the benefits for the organization itself are:

- enhancement of quality in training new and experienced faculty members in accordance with the organization's standards and norms,
- expeditious assimilation of corporate culture,
- formation of positive attitudes to work and consequently on account advertence to newcomers and creating a successful atmosphere for them leads to loyalty,
- implementation of corporate standards and providing of its continuance as initially mentors demonstrate to their protégés approved behavior standards,

- making opportunities for mentors for possible career growth,
- reduction of staff turnover (primarily, it is referred to probationary appointment for newly hired since it is known from the research that quitting of trainees is often concerned with insufficient attention to newcomers and consequently, with their low quality of training),
- formation of cohesive and well trained collective as a result of involving experienced staff member in the induction period of a young worker,
- increase of working efficiency and effectiveness.

2.3.3 Types of mentoring

After analyzing numerous papers dedicated to the problem on mentoring relationships, the following range of mentor relationships was identified, each of which depends on the set goals, its process, outcomes, time and place.

Table 2. Types of mentoring

No.	Type of mentoring	Its definition given by the author(s)	Author(s)
1	Informal mentoring	Informal mentoring is formed voluntarily or is initiated upon individual interest.	(Du & Wang, 2017; Hamburg, 2013; Hansman, 2009; Lumpkin, 2011; Muschallik & Pull, 2016)
2	Formal mentoring	Formal mentoring is usually planned and supported by the organization or institution which makes also tools available to participants for an efficient and productive process.	(Denard Thomas, Gail Lunsford, & Rodrigues, 2015; Du & Wang, 2017; Hamburg, 2013; Hansman, 2009; Lumpkin, 2011; Muschallik & Pull, 2016)
3	Career mentoring	It involves sponsorship, learning professional language and rules, and sharing access to resources.	(Battaglia & Battaglia, 2016; Denard Thomas et al., 2015; Huling & Resta, 2001)
4	Psychosocial mentoring	Involves listening, confidence-building, and encouragement.	(Battaglia & Battaglia, 2016; Denard Thomas et al., 2015; Huling & Resta, 2001)
5	Web-based supported mentoring/ e-mentoring/ systems-based mentoring	Mentoring is available for mentee in online platform, regardless of time and place	(Chong et al., 2020; Gökoglu & Çakiroglu, 2017; Hamburg, 2013; Jeon & Lee, 2015)

6	Faculty mentoring/ "non-intrusive" mentoring/ academic mentoring	Faculty mentoring is a complex and multifaceted process which is essential in fostering teacher retention, success of faculty members and development of the faculty.	(Anafarta & Apaydin, 2016; Battaglia & Battaglia, 2016; Lechuga, 2011, 2014; Muschallik & Pull, 2016)
7	Corporate mentoring/ intradepartmental faculty mentoring	Mentors and mentees are selected from different departments within a higher education institution for teaching improvements	(Tähtinen, Mainela, Nätti, & Saraniemi, 2011)
8	Reverse mentoring	Mentoring relationships where junior faculty members help and support senior staff in using, for example, technology, social media and current trends	(Beane-Katner, 2014)
9	Peer mentoring/ mutual mentoring	Mentoring relationships where mentor is slightly more experienced and where new faculty have opportunities to mentor each other	(Beane-Katner, 2014; Lumpkin, 2011)
10	Group mentoring/ Mentoring networks/ Consortia mentoring	Mentoring relationships which combines peer and mutual mentoring, and offer insight honed from the in-depth expertise and experience of more seasoned colleagues. It involves multiple layers and types of mentoring which leads to necessary changes in faculty culture	(Beane-Katner, 2014; Kadyrova, 2017; Lumpkin, 2011)
11	Intra-departmental mentoring/ Inter-departmental mentoring	Mentoring relationships where mentee is paired with a mentor in the same department (intra) or from different departments (inter)	(Lumpkin, 2011)
12	Research mentoring	Research mentorship encompasses helping protégés meet the norms and standards and to acquire the knowledge, skills, behaviors, and values needed for successful advancement in their careers (p.15)	(Lumpkin, 2011)

Source: Author

As seen from the *Table 2,* there are numerous types of mentoring. some of them interlapping with each other, the types of mentoring differ by their form, the place, the number of people taking part in it, the tools and techniques used and so far.

2.3.4 Mentoring in higher education: Faculty/Academic mentoring

In examining the relationships in mentoring in higher education setting, Lechuga (2011) differentiated three main categories of faculty mentoring: faculty-graduate student mentoring, faculty-undergraduate mentoring and mentoring among faculty members.

In this dissertation, the author focuses mainly on mentoring among faculty members (teacher-teacher relationship).

In the higher education sector, the term mentoring is being used and operated with heterogeneity of descriptions to explain the main goals and aims of mentoring for academics, among them for successful induction, staff retention, mechanism for an on-going growth opportunity, and professional development (Sweeney, 1994).

The concept of mentorship is complicated due to the numerous definitions and explanations. In the field of higher education, this concept became a 'buzzword' (Sands et al., 1991) and nowadays it is receiving a renewed attention (Bhagia & Tinsley, 2000).

In the academic setting this concept has been less investigated compared to the business sector (see Caruso, 1992; Clutterbuck, 1994; Gibson, 2004; Kram, 1983; Waters, Mccabe, Kiellerup, & Kiellerup, 2002) where its significance has been already established as an essential key for career success and workers retention, consequently for organizational prosperity. Boice (1992) claims that mentoring is mostly used in a gradual and unsystematic way, thus, making it complicated to study.

Mentoring is greatly investigated in academic medicine (Bower, 1998; Cain et al., 2001; DeCastro, Sambuco, Ubel, Stewart, & Jagsi, 2013; Morzinski, Simpson, Bower, & Diehr, 1994; Ramanan, Phillips, Davis, Silen, & Reede, 2002; Sambunjak, Straus, & Marušić, 2006; Tracy, Jagsi, Starr, & Tarbell, 2004) where residents and junior faculty member build their perceptions about academic career path and growth from the experiences and observations from the obstacles and complications as well as personal satisfaction their mentors face at daily work. Among highly valued features in mentors are clinical skills and teaching experience, progress in research and equality in mentorship relationships, the significance of mentor's useful advice and guidance for teaching and research for establishing a professional network (Ramanan et al., 2002). This mentor-mentee relationship is interactive and continued in nature (Bhagia &

Tinsley, 2000). In general, mentoring should be disposed to inspire, support and invest in mentees (Tyre, 1995).

Traditionally, in the academic frame, mentoring, although being *'a slippery concept'* (Daloz, 1986, p.ix) renders "support in academic endeavors, and more importantly, provides help to the protégé in comprehending and overcoming the political and social barriers within the department, school or faculty" (Anafarta & Apaydin, 2016, p.22). This view is also mirrored in the study of van der Weijden and colleagues (2015) who look upon mentoring as a way of preparing young academic researchers for a full professorship.

In terms of faculty-to-faculty mentor relationships Sands, Parson and Duane (1991) characterized a mentor as "a person who serves as a guide or sponsor, that is, a person who looks after, advises, protects, and takes a special interest in another's development" (p.175) and depicted another four supplementary mentor roles: sponsor, coach, role model and counselor. Finding oneself in a daunting environment (Faurer, Sutton, & Worster, 2014) with challenges which are legion (Beane-Katner, 2014), it is especially important to find the right mentor who will help to travel the right road in the professional path to achieve the set goals. The study conducted by Faurer, Sutton and Worster (2014) gives evidence for the fact that in selecting mentors the main focus should be made on knowledge of institution resources and environment as well as interpersonal as opposed to length of experience and academic rank.

Mentoring is "a process within a contextual setting, a means for professional networking, counseling, guiding, instructing, modeling, and sponsoring; a developmental mechanism (personal, professional, and psychological); a socialization and reciprocal relationship; and an opportunity for identity transformation for both the mentor and protégé, a communication relationship" (Tillman, 2001, p.298). In contemplation of the discussion of faculty-to-faculty mentoring Tillman (2001) tried to look upon the question in the lens of five dimensions which are mentor and mentee pairs, stages of the mentor-mentee relationships described by Kram (1983), mentor functions, benefits to the mentee, and race and gender in mentoring relationships.

In a broader sense, mentoring approaches, principles and its programs should be developed and implemented in order to empower faculty through the full usage of the benefits of mentoring. The system of mentoring encourages experienced faculty

member and helps and assists junior academic in learning the roles as well as in understanding the institutional culture, offering professional stimulation to both of them, senior and junior staff member (Luna & Cullen, 1995). Moreover, mentoring supports professional growth and renewal which leads to the empowerment of the faculty (Boice, 1992) and shapes the future of young teachers' professions (Nakamura, Shernoff, & Hooker, 2009).

In their study Zellers and other colleagues (2008) delineated mentoring as "a reciprocal learning relationship characterized by trust, respect, and commitment, in which a mentor supports the professional and personal development of another by sharing his or her life experiences, influence, and expertise" (p.555). The researchers maintain that the essence of mentoring in education, specifically in higher education, stands apart from those that is in the business sector. The point at issue is that business sectors elucidate themselves as learning organizations whereas higher education sees this aspect as alternate one and designates itself as a community of learners. Despite this opposition of the meaning of mentoring, benefits of the mentor relationships are identical in both types of organizations: raise of productivity and organizational stability, socialization and communication, confinement of skilled and experienced workers, support of cultural diversity, improved leadership capacity and succession learning, and cost-effectiveness (Zellers et al., 2008, p.557).

Clearly, newly hired young academics coming to the sphere of higher education tend to be unprepared and uncertain as teachers, as academics (Boyle & Boice, 1998) despite the university training with the sufficient variety of responsibilities of the contemporary academic workplace (Beane-Katner, 2014), and they need the person who is an "*expert-who-has-the-answers*" (Portner, 2008, p.8). In her analysis and introduction to mentoring networks of next-generation faculty, Beane-Katner (2014) identifies gaps between theoretical and practical base of graduate students who lack training in the fundamentals in course and curriculum development, teaching based on technology and active-learning strategies, incorporating civic engagement and service, and outcomes assessment. Moreover, she claims that the newly hired members do not understand the core purposes and values of higher education, professional expectations for service and outreach, or how to work with diverse groups (Beane-Katner, 2014, p.92). Thus, mentoring is especially crucial in the induction period of a beginner since during this period they begin "to develop, and balance, their commitments to the two major

dimensions of their professional lives: research and teaching" (Jackson & Simpson, 1994, p.65). Mentors should be able to balance support with challenge and "by balancing challenge, support and vision the mentor creates the tension essential for change and growth" (Bower, 1998, p.595). Additionally, in order to have an effective mentor-mentee interaction mentors should be of the possession of a notable list of specific skills, among them "brokering relationships, building and maintaining relationships, coaching, communicating, encouraging, facilitating, goal setting, guiding, listening, managing conflict, problem solving, providing feedback, reflecting, and valuing difference" (Wyre, Gaudet, & McNeese, 2016, p.76).

As mentor is a fundamental part of the mentoring relationship, examining the **competencies** of mentor is of very high significance. Wyre and the associates (2016) feel certain that rendering mentors with an appropriate orientation in the mentoring model of learning will positively result in efficient and powerful mentorship interactions.

For a complete mentor role, as Cohen (1995) carefully described, mentors should have flexible and fluid behaviors which will influence positively on personal as well as professional growth and progress: "Relationship emphasis to establish trust, information emphasis to offer tailored advice, facilitative focus to introduce alternatives, confrontive focus to challenge, mentor model to motivate, and mentee vision to encourage initiative" (Cohen, 1995, p.3). Thus, mentor stands apart from an advisor, personal specialist or counselor and mentorship is noted distinction for investing substantially in a particular individual over an extended time frame (Cohen, 1995). Mentoring is also different from an evaluator. Clear distinction between these two notions were detailed by Portner (2008) (*Table 3*):

Table 3. Differences between mentoring and evaluating

Mentoring	Evaluating
Collegial	Hierarchical
Observations are ongoing	Evaluating processes/ visits are set by policy
Develops self-reliance	Judges performance
Data is confidential	Data is filed and it is available
Data is used for reflection	Data is used for judgment
Value judgments are done by teachers	Value judgments are done by the supervisor

Source: adapted from Portner (2008)

Tillman (2001) delineated two particular functions of a mentor: career functions and psychosocial functions. The former allocates mentee's preparation for career promotion and this function includes such elements as protection, coaching and sponsorship whereas the latter increases mentee's sense of competence, identity, and work-role effectiveness. This combines role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, and counseling (Tillman, 2001).

Professional socialization is a challenging, trying and frustrating process for new members. Therefore, in the transition period mentors should provide for their mentees:

1. informing, formally and informally, mentees with the knowledge about the university's norms, rules, mores and taboos;
2. serving as a counselor and encourager and give psychological support;
3. promoting his/her mentee by recommending to other colleagues (Schrodt et al., 2003).

Boyle and Boice (1998) state that though mentoring happens spontaneously, "without intervention by faculty developers and other meddlesome sorts" (p.159), 'natural mentoring', which is irregular and short-lived, occurs only for a third of newcomers (p.159). The researchers highly advise to start mentoring as soon as the newly appointed tertiary teacher goes ahead with work, because "the earlier it starts, the more beneficial and enduring the outcome will be, thus, making mentees clear about what they want from their mentors: interest and support, humor and empathy, knowledge and competence" (Boyle & Boice, 1998, p.160).

In the modern educational system mentoring acquires a new form, leaving behind its traditional form performed by senior academic or faculty developers. Teaching in the higher education context should be fundamentally a collegial profession (Johnston, 2009) and consequently, the forms of mentoring are changing as well, to be more collaborative, dynamic, creative and symmetric with equals in mentorship partnerships (Tähtinen et al., 2011).

Most crucial is that senior faculty members should accept that their newly hired junior colleagues are not just younger versions of themselves (Beane-Katner, 2014). Challenges list which face young beginners entering academic workplace includes increased disaffection with the traditional academic work environment, mainly a lack of

coherent tenure policies, a lack of collegiality, and lack of an integrated life (Cullen & Harris, 2008), relevant institutional support for research, misbalance between work and personal life (Trower, 2006). The primary reasons for professional socialization to be smoothed easily are not clearly defined performance expectations and consistent feelings of isolation at the new academic workplace (Cawyer et al., 2002; Stanley & Lincoln, 2005).

That's why one of the ways to think broadly on dealing with meeting junior faculty's professional needs is, as highlighted by Beane-Katner (2014), to institute and practise a mentoring network, covering all aspects of peer, group and reverse mentoring, and that has multiple layers and types of support and guide. The author strongly believes that uniting these mentoring possibilities into a network will create a more flexible, reciprocal, non-hierarchical structure which reverberates with the learning preferences of new members (Beane-Katner, 2014).

Besides, mentoring is a method of transferring knowledge, rendering help and support in the teaching and learning process as well as young teacher's career development. It is essential to note that it does not eliminate other methods such as, on-the-job education, research studies, additional participation in professional development and learning program courses, internships, etc. which in turn complete it enhancing its relevance. Mentorship is not a unidirectional relationship (Tammy, 2018), but rather a reciprocal process, a partnership, on the one hand, mentor's activity, on the other hand - his mentee's activity.

The analysis of the literature proclaims that presently in the theory and practice of modern education emerged objective inconsistency:

- between the enhancement of professional educational level in higher education sector and descending of young workers' motivation to be lifelong learners within their professional career,
- between theoretically accumulated knowledge in the area of mentorship and ineffectively implementation of them in practice,
- between the expansion in the market of educational services and limited opportunities offered for young educators to benefit from them,
- between the research concerning general pedagogical aspects of mentoring and insufficiently elaborated mentoring programs in terms of its organization and

methodological conditions for its practical realization to improve professional formation of a beginning teacher.

Academic mentoring, be it formal or informal, among faculty members should be outlooked not only as a faculty concern, but as an institutional leadership priority (Johannessen, 2016).

2.3.5 Mentoring models

System of mentoring is combined from four reciprocal components:

- organizational interest in promoting its staff members in their professional growth, improving their professional competences;
- specified goals, targets, programs of members' activities involved into the mentorship relationships;
- professional induction period of the young specialist;
- interpersonal communication between a mentor and a mentee in the interaction process.

Considerably thorough understanding of logical basis of structures and principles in mentorship, outlining significant constituent parts of any mentor-mentee relationships is presented by Lewis's (1999) mentoring model consisting of four main elements (*Figure 4*):

Figure 4. Lewis's mentoring model (1999)
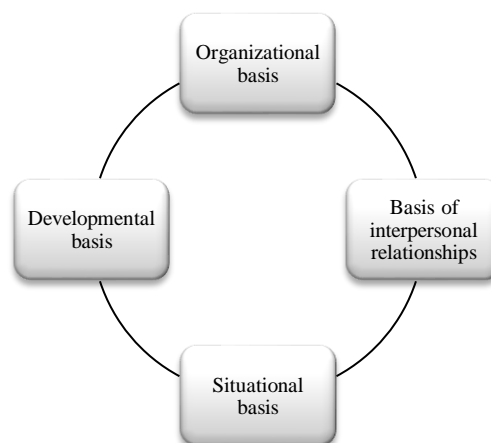
Each basis implicates a certain role of mentor in the induction period of a newcomer and enhancing his/her professional competences. Thus, for instance, organizational basis assumes identifying pitfalls experienced by beginning teacher during the transition period. It is of a great importance to help the beginning teacher in developing his/her own individual teaching style which will be further appended in the process of professional development. Educator-mentor is advised to frame concise plans of mentoring activities that will improve young teacher's development and his pedagogical skills.

Basis of interpersonal relationships supposes to coordinate methodological, pedagogical and psychological positions, consolidate positive and friendly relationships between new colleagues conducing to a new teacher's analysis of his own experience and striving to self-development and self-learning. How a newly hired member is accepted and hedged by his colleagues affect his/her future career: will be motivated for his own pedagogical improvement or lay down his arms in his very first failures and leave the profession. Essential elements for establishing constructive interpersonal cooperation in mentor-mentee relationship are interpersonal skills, trust and accessibility.

Situational basis contemplates collaborative analysis of certain problems emerged during the induction period of junior teacher. Mentor's role is to help to grasp and clear up those problems. Mentor can present models of individual didactical system based on his own experience to new staff members, assist them in organizing and developing their own techniques of teaching.

Basis of development expands new beginning academic's teaching and learning approaches, facilitates their further professional growth. Mentor encourages developing self-sufficiency, enabling to construct the teaching and learning process on the basis of recent research. This induces the process of self-learning and self-determination of a newly entered specialist, and fosters his/her discipline and responsibility.

Thus, mentoring becomes one of the forms of continuous professional education. Mentor has to carry out multiple roles: observes, gives feedback, evaluates the conducted work, leads in the right direction and suggests methods of solving various problems, gives methodological and psychological support (Lewis, 1999).

Bower (1998), referring to Daloz's model (1986), highlights that the essential key elements in building an effective mentor-mentee interaction are support, challenge and vision, and these primary components of mentorship should be established and validated to promote professional growth and socialization of junior faculty. According to this model (*Figure 5*), low challenge and low support causes statis; insufficient balance between support and challenge results in retreat or confirmation, and high level of support and challenge leads to vision to enhance faculty growth (Bower, 1998, p.595).

Figure 5. Daloz's model of mentoring (1986)
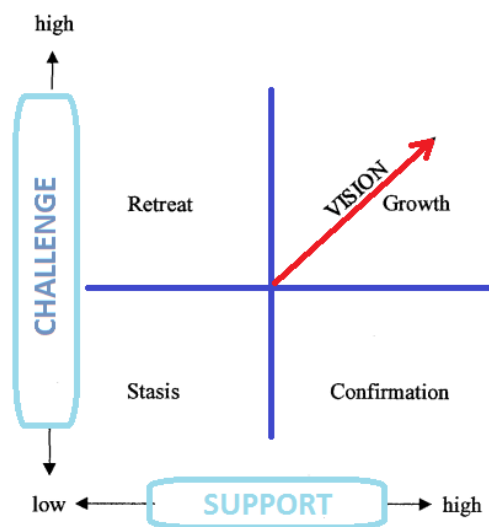
Source: adapted from Bower (1998)

Figure 6. Anderson and Shannon's model of mentoring
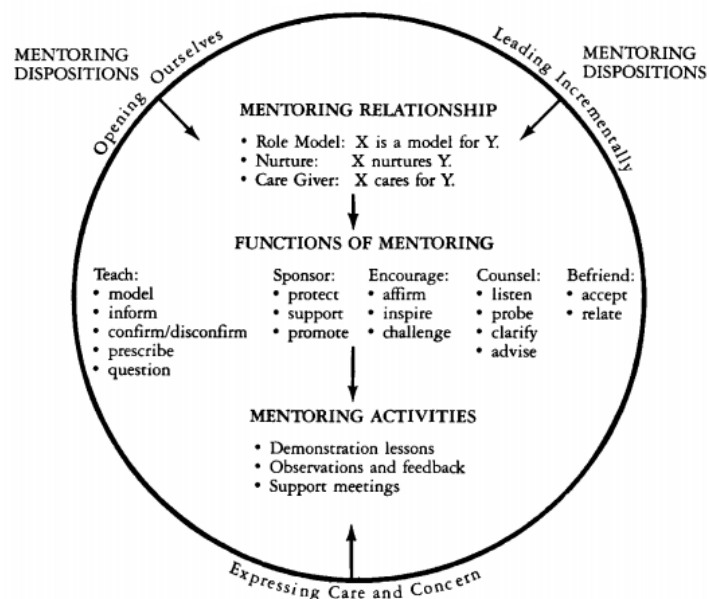
A successful and productive mentoring model, according to Anderson and Shannon (1988) (*Figure 6*), should consist of three primary parts: roles, functions and activities. Mentorship is "a nurturing process" and it is "an ongoing caring relationship" where a mentor acts as a role model and accomplishes five main functions such as "teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counseling, and befriending" (Anderson & Shannon, 1988, p.40). Anderson and Shannon (1988) perceive a mentor as a nurturer and caregiver who "helps provide an environment for growth, considers the total personality of the person being nurtured in deciding how best to be helpful, and operates with a belief that the person being nurtured has the capacity to develop into fuller maturity" (p.40). The researchers believe that considering all the mentioned elements of mentorship relationships as well as a strong and clear conceptual foundation of the given term will guarantee the creation of an effective mentoring program for newcomers.

To conclude, for the effective and successful mentorship relationships the following peculiarities should be taken into account:

Mentorship is a long-lasting and ongoing process entailing orderly planning and systematic approach. The point is that relevant knowledge and skills are not transferred at one haul or from one situation to another, hence those mentoring interactions are successful which are intentionally organized and controlled. Besides, mentoring necessitate investment.

The focus should be on small group of mentees since one mentor will not be able to train a considerable number of juniors simultaneously. The significant point is that mentoring is a work implicating regular feedback, highly emotional as well as mental challenges.

Implementation of formal mentoring programs comprises a complicated but indispensable solution for modern educational organizations as an effective system of staff development. It is in need of instruments ensuring integrated and individually oriented approach to develop its staff capacity. Mentors carry through their mentees to overcome the discontinuity between theory and practice by enlarging knowledge and skills mastered by mentees during their formal learning and practical experience. Furthermore, mentoring helps and encourages gifted and ambitious junior faculty members to plan their professional career path, expand their appropriate skills and

competences, becoming more independent, responsible and purposeful. In general, mentoring contributes in transmitting vision, mission and values of the institutions within its levels through close interactions between mentors and protégés by assisting them in understanding it and helping them in implementing needed modifications in the individual style of teaching and behavior.

It is worth to note that a variety of mentoring models allows any organization to adapt the model that is more applicable and beneficial, thus creating a powerful instrument for staff development. Based on the results of the interview analysis, the research makes an effort to develop a model for mentoring teachers (within junior and senior mentorship pairs): the integrated model bases on Lewis's (1999) model, Daloz's (1986) model and Anderson and Shannon's (1988) model for mentoring.

2.4 Country case: Kazakhstan

2.4.1 Policy profile on education in Kazakhstan

2.4.1.1 Main institutions and underlying principles

Kazakhstan has a centralized education system, with extensive central planning and a detailed system of norms (OECD, 2018).

The Government in Kazakhstan plays a key role in the education system of the country. The Executive Office of the President defines primary strategies in the field of education and develops leading initiatives one of which is the network of Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS). The Government also monitors and assesses the progress of achieving the set goals laid out in the state education programs.

The *Ministry of Science and Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan* (further MES RK) manages, implements and monitors works in the field of education and research as well as protection of children's rights and youth policy.

MES RK is responsible for:

- Defining and conducting of policy in the field of education;
- Developing the projects and regulations with regards to funding in education;
- Preparing and developing educational programs and standards;

- Organizing and implementing assessment systems;
- Setting requirements and regulations for teacher education;
- The support of the Kazakh language as a State language in the educational process;
- Signing international agreements on education (OECD, 2017).

There are several subordinate organizations in the MES RK which operate in the specific areas such as quality assurance, statistics or managing international projects. One of such organizations is *National Center for Professional Development* (ORLEU center). Established in 2012 this center provides a systematic professional development of pedagogical staff in the country with high quality of education (www.orleu-edu.kz).

2.4.1.2 A brief overview on educational policy in Kazakhstan

Educational modernization in Kazakhstan was laid down in the late 1990s by three basic documents: *Law "On Education"* (*from June, 29, 1992 of No.1153-XII), State Standard of Education (http://adilet.zan.kz/eng/docs/V1800017669) and State program "Education" (the last program is prepared for 2020-2025,* MESRK *(2019)*. All three indicated documents were launched at intervals of several months which significantly simplified the procedure for the implementation of the main provisions of each document. The ideology of reforms was formulated very clearly – to integrate the educational system of Kazakhstan into the world educational space.

After the declaration of independence of the Republic of Kazakhstan the legislation which regulated the educational relations passed the phases of its establishment and development. The initial phase of reforming the legislation in the field of education is aligned with the Law "On Education" enacted in 1992 (*from June, 29, 1992 of No.1153-XII*) and Law "On Higher Education" in 1993 (*from April, 10, 1993 of No. 2110-XII*). The Law "On Education" of 1992, directed most significantly on providing education to all its citizens, established in the Article 30 of the Constitution of the RK, holds a specific role in the legislation in education playing as a connecting link between the Constitution of RK and other regulatory legal acts regulating the system of education of the country.

Law "On Education" of RK as amended and supplemented from December 27, 2019 (*No. 291-VI*) consists of primary 12 Chapters:

- *Chapter 1.* General provisions (main used terms and terminology, principles of the state policy in the field of education).
- *Chapter 2.* Management of educational system (Competence of the Government and other authorized bodies in the field of education; social standards in education; accreditation of educational organizations).
- *Chapter 3.* Educational system (the concept of educational system, purposes and levels in education).
- *Chapter 4.* Content of education (the concept of the content of education; educational training programs for secondary education, technical and professional education, specialized education, higher education, postgraduate and additional education).
- *Chapter 5.* Organization of educational activity (general requirements and forms of obtaining education, organization of educational process).
- *Chapter 6.* Subjects of educational activity (educational organizations and their competences; rights, obligations and responsibilities of leaders, students and pupils).
- *Chapter 7.* Status of teachers (rights, obligations and responsibilities of teachers, the system of payment).
- *Chapter 8.* State regulation in the field of education (objectives and forms of the state regulation; quality management in education; state obligatory standards in education; accreditation of educational organizations).
- *Chapter 9.* Financing in education.
- *Chapter 10.* International activity in the scope of education (international cooperation).
- *Chapter 11.* Amenability for violation the Law "On Education" of the Republic of Kazakhstan.
- *Chapter 12.* Conclusions.

In 1946 the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic was established (www.nauka-nanrk.kz). It was the main national center for research in the country. In 2001 the Law "On Science" (*from 2011 of No.407-IV*) was adopted. Priority goals were defined for the development of science and technology involving research in

the field of engineering, innovational technology for recycling of subsoil resources, and innovation in the telecommunication sphere, natural, social and other sciences.

In 2003 the Academy of Sciences was renamed into *National Science Academy* which aims to supply the needs of the country in the applied research and be in charge of forming the country's research, technological and innovational politics.

One of the hindrances to implement and accomplish national goals in integrating research, innovation and education is the division of research enterprises into higher education institutions (HEIs) and research institutions (MESRK, 2012). When the additional financing is directed to HEIs most of the funding to conduct research remains to research institutions financed by the relevant ministries. The limited resources lead to the fact that funding is distributed between many organizations which results in negative impact on research in general (MESRK, 2012).

The other pitfall is high academic loads of teaching staff which prevent the academics to spend enough time for research part of their job as well as developing the integration of teaching part with research as was reported in the National Report (MESRK, 2012).

To improve the quality of education the National system of assessing the quality of education was prepared and established; norms of quality management of educational processes were implemented by the adoption of the standards system of organizing education of all levels; *State Compulsory Educational Standard of the Republic of Kazakhstan* (in Russian ГОСО РК) was implemented in all levels.

After the independence the primary goals of the country were regulated under the control of the first president N.Nazarbayev. Precisely due to the executed liberal-democratic reforms in the field of social-economic and political spheres of the society Kazakhstan became a prominent country in all aspects of functioning as a separate country. Indeed, in 1997 President N.Nazarbayev proposed *"Kazakhstan-2030"*, a state program of strategic development of the country. The "Kazakhstan-2030" Strategy for development provides implementation of seven long-term priorities:

- National security,
- Domestic political stability and consolidation of the society,
- Economic growth based on an open market economy with high level of foreign investments and internal savings,

- Health, education and well-being of Kazakhstani citizens,
- Power resources,
- Infrastructure, more particularly transport and communication,
- Professional state (www.akorda.kz).

The concept 'lifelong learning' is emphasized as one of the key priorities in Kazakhstan. The Strategies "Kazakhstan-2030" and "Kazakhstan-2050" aim to develop a multi-level model of continuous education which will meet the needs of the labour market and individuals.

The regulatory legal acts of the President of Kazakhstan also play a key role in the system of legislation in the field of education. Thus, the state documents such as State Program "Education" (MESRK, 2010) defining the State policy in education were launched by the Presidential decrees and executive orders.

The *State program of education development of the Republic of Kazakhstan* was established till 2015, for 2011-2020, and for 2020-2025 (MESRK, 2019). These documents defining the general strategy, primary directions and priorities, the goals of the governmental policy on education and its mechanisms, its implementation, act as a fundamental and constituent part of development and strengthening of the country's independency and its progressive prosperity.

The purpose of the first program is to advance the national system of multilevel education, to improve the quality of training the human capital, and accomplish the needs of individuals and society in general on the basis of "Strategic planning of development of RK until 2010" (MESRK, 2010).

To form the Kazakhstani model in education effectively the Program specifies the following central directions for the development:

- Transition to 12-year of general secondary education,
- Forming the system of specialized and vocational education of school students in their high school education,
- Forming a new level of after secondary vocational education,
- Provision of three leveled system of training (bachelor, master's and doctoral degrees based on the system of academic credits),

- Design of the National system of quality assessment in education (MESRK, 2010).

The purpose of the *State program of education development of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020* is to advance the competitiveness in education, development of human capital through ensuring access to quality education for sustainable economic growth (MESRK, 2010). Education is a key factor:

"Investments in human capital are of vital importance in the development of technically progressive, productive labor force, which can adapt to the rapidly changing world. Those economies that invest in development of education, skills and abilities of population will gain success in future. Education should be regarded as economic investments, but not just as social expenditures" (MESRK, 2010, p.6).

Within the framework of the State program and in accordance with the Law "On Education" of RK (1992) the emphasis is focused on the development of preschool, secondary, vocational, higher education and postgraduate education.

Promotion of teacher's status in the society is one of the priorities of current educational policy in Kazakhstan. To enhance teachers' professional development primary centers are established: National Center for Professional Development (ORLEU center), centers for professional development within pedagogical higher education institutions, Faculty of Education at Nazarbayev University and "Center of Excellence" at Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools.

To support teachers the State program has set a number of definite goals among which increasing the share of faculty and pedagogic workers who have published their works in impact-factor scientific journals within the past 5 years to 5% to 2020, enhancing prestige of teacher's profession, increasing state support and stimulating labor of teachers (MESRK, 2010). Also, to increase the number of students studying on a government grant scheme under the PhD programs with annual increase of government grants, from 2015 to increase the share of the Bolashak International Scholarship recipients studying under the master's degree, PhD and bachelor's degree programs (MESRK, 2010).

The State program develops the main principles of the educational policy of Kazakhstan, defined by the Constitution of RK, Law "On education" of RK, Law "On

Science" of RK, Law "On National Security" of RK, Strategy "Kazakhstan-2030", State program "Education". Thus, the legal base in the field of education has a strong fundament which involved all aspects of educational relations in the country. This governmental policy defines education as a national priority, builds up a basis for the development of the state educational policy for long term and it is a grounding to implement amendments and additions to the legislation, system of funding, the educational contents, the structure of the educational system, the system of management in education and social policy.

One of the other statements of the government concerning the educational sphere is "*The Plan of the Nation: The 100 Concrete Steps*" launched in 2015. It is a comprehensive plan to implement institutionalized reforms in the country. The reform is developed in five primary directions:

- The forming of professional state apparatus,
- Effectively modernize the judicial system and law enforcement,
- Clear and precise solutions to stimulate new high-tech economic growth and human capital development, tightly focused on improving the quality of life of Kazakhstan,
- Steps to strengthen the nation's identity and unity,
- The forming of "Open Government" with its transparency and accountability (www.strategy2050.kz).

"The targets outlined in these documents are ambitious, but often primarily favour the "excellence" dimension of quality. They include an aspiration to be ranked among "the top 30 countries" in the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) and to have two higher education institutions appear in the top tier of international university rankings. While such targets define quality narrowly, they may still be useful in helping countries identify weaknesses and enhance their focus on inputs and processes that require improvement" (OECD, 2017, p.66).

Bologna Process

The most important step to reform the educational system of Kazakhstan was taken in 2001, when the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan approved the Classification of qualifications and preparing specialties of higher vocational education, according to which the list of specialties was enlarged. This

brought closer to the requirements of international educational standards and, in particular, the Lisbon Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications related to higher education, which Kazakhstan had signed before other CIS countries (OECD, 2017).

When Kazakhstan joined the Bologna process in 2010, the country reported about its willingness to reform its structure of the higher education system to conform to the European standards. Since then Kazakhstan gradually implements changes into its educational system in order to better adhere to Bologna principles. Thus, for instance, national Kazakhstani credits were transformed into European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) credits, and the duration of studies in three levels (bachelor, master's and doctoral degrees) were also aligned with the Bologna mechanism. Apart from this, internalization of higher education institutions was realized through the mobility of students and teaching staff as well as receiving foreign students and professors.

Despite this progress, the country still faces major challenges in the implementation of the principles of the Bologna process. Primarily, these challenges concern in developing a coherent national qualifications framework (NQF) and granting full autonomy to institutions (OECD, 2017). Moreover, there are some points of divergence between the standards and the current situation in the country which include levels of academic integrity and freedom, the exceedance of teacher-centered learning, teaching and assessment practices, the qualifications of teaching staff and the ongoing monitoring and review of the programs (OECD, 2017, p.78).

Polylingual education: "Trinity of languages"

The idea of trilingual education was mentioned for the first time in 2004 by the first President of Kazakhstan. In his Address to the people of Kazakhstan called "New Kazakhstan in the new world" in 2007 the former President Nursultan Nazarbayev suggested to implement the phased cultural project "Trinity of languages" from which the new era of language policy starts of the independent Kazakhstan (Nazarbayev, 2007).

In "The Strategy of transformation of society and the revival of the Eurasian civilization" Nazarbayev (2002) emphasized that "Kazakhstan is a unique country with its multinationality. We have formed a unique polycultural space... Polyculture in Kazakhstan is an indicator of a progressive factor of the development in the society.

Eurasian routes of the people in Kazakhstan build a possibility to connect eastern, Asian, western and European flows and to create a unique Kazakhstani version of the polycultural development" (p.16).

Since Kazakhstan made a step into the international cooperation the problem of training the specialists takes on particular significance. The country needs not only educated but also critically thinking people with strong sense of initiative who possess foreign languages (Bekturova & Yermekova, 2016). Thus, the Kazakh language is used as a state language, Russian – as a language for cross-national language, and English as a means for international communication which provides to connect diverse cultures.

Polylingual education is considered as one of the ways of providing quality in higher education which should be subject to values, goals and purposes of training and educating specialists of new era (Bekturova & Yermekova, 2016).

The general aims of the polylingual education:

- To form students' humanistic system of values reflecting the realia of modern world,
- To form the ability to understand and react to essential problems in one's life in the multicultural world,
- To form students' individual competences needed for them in foreign countries as well as skills and competences of tolerant behavior in the multicultural society (Basharuly, 2002).

Starting from 2012 32 special departments in preparing polylingual specialists were opened in the field of technical, natural and pedagogical sciences at Kazakhstani higher education institutions where more than 5,5 thousand students were trained on polylingual education ("Полиязычие – гарант успешного будущего [Polylingual education is a key to successful future]," 2020).

The implementation of polylingual education is tightly connected with the training of relevant pedagogical staff. To improve and retraining the language qualification of university teachers in the direction of professional English language the republican budget program called "Professional development and retraining the staff of state educational organizations" was established. This program was also initiated by the Ministry of Education and Science of Kazakhstan. Additionally, annually the language

courses are organized from 2017 developed by the AEO "NIS" in cooperation of Faculty of Education at Cambridge University and it is planned to cover more than 3,000 teachers (Zharkynbekova, 2016). Apart from this program, the scholarship program "Bolashak" is functioning where teachers also can improve their qualifications and take language courses. Professional development programs are renewed and opportunities for teacher professional development and qualification are provided (MESRK, 2010).

2.4.2 Brief historical development of mentorship in Kazakhstan

New phase in the development of Kazakh nationhood commenced in critical 1917. For 75 years Kazakhstan was part of the USSR. Since the system of mentoring was established from the early 1930s (Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015) this phenomenon is investigated within the existence of the USSR.

About the role of mentors in becoming a person as an individual wrote Russian writers and pedagogues Vladimir Odoyevsky and Konstantin Ushinsky (Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015). Thus, for instance, reflecting on the significance of mentoring, Ushinsky wrote that one cannot boast just with his experience by counting only years passed during his educational activities. In doing so a teacher becomes a machine which only does certain tasks and checks the lesson. It is impossible to be convinced that the professional experience completely compensates total absence of theoretical preparation. Theoretical knowledge and practical experience should supplement each other, but not replace. Ushinsky draws a conclusion that professional socialization of a young teacher directly depends on his/her mentor's level of professional knowledge, skills and experience.

Beginning from the 1950s and before the collapse of the Soviet Union mentoring was established systematically in any organization. Mainly it was applied to the system of manufacture education and professional technical education: advanced masters, engineers, experienced technical specialists and workers nurtured and tutored junior staff by helping them to grow morally, and acclimate all the nuances of the occupation.

Mentoring in various forms was implemented and practiced in the USSR from the 1930s. The main goal of mentoring was to nurture the young generation. Mentoring was

entrusted to people with high professional qualification and rich life experience. The process of mentorship was extensively propagandized, reviews and meetings were organized, best mentors were encouraged and rewarded with special gorgets such as "Nastavnik molodyezhi" ("Mentor of youths") in the 1930s and title of honor "Zasluzhenny nastavnik molodyezhi" ("Honored mentor of youths") in the 1980s (Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015).

Examination of the given period denotes an increasing role of a teacher in teaching children, educating them to voluntary discipline and communistic attitude towards education and labour. For this reason the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union obliged the National Commissariat of Education in all union republics, soviet and party organizations to provide teachers in their work with all necessary conditions in every possible way in order to acquit successfully responsible and honorary commitments in teaching and nurturing young generation of the USSR.

For the purpose to provide soviet schools with pedagogical staff and attract young people to schools it was suggested that the All-Union Leninist Young Communist League (usually known as Komsomol) in each soviet countries to create and develop special events to select pioneer leaders, assigning them with particular obligations and improving their general as well as special pedagogical qualification. These young people were considered as a valuable reserve for preparing new pedagogical staff.

During the II World War in 1941-1945 and with the appeal of considerable number of pedagogues to the army the educational level of teachers decreased. Teachers as mentors were extremely in need as questions were sharply emerging concerning the activation of methodological works and activities of in and out of schools, methodological unions and panel sessions.

The notion 'mentoring' resumed its modern understanding in the 60s of the XX century and it was regarded as an important form of professional preparation and education of young people in the teaching profession. As experienced male teachers were gone to the fighting line they were replaced by their own students. Mentors of these young specialists were assigned, with excellent professional background and rich pedagogical experience. These mentors and mentees observed each other's lessons with the following analysis.

In the 70-80s of the XX century, with the aim to best accustom to a new pedagogical staff, the USSR enacted a law in which it was proclaimed that for improving practical knowledge and skills of graduates of higher education institutions young beginners pass a training on probation on the particular specialty under the supervision of the administration in the corresponding enterprises, institutions and organizations and under the control of higher education institutions. The requirements to the trainings on probation and its programme were presented in the Instructional letters of the Ministry of Public Education of the USSR in March 27, 1974 (Scherbakova & Scherbakova, 2015).

When examining social and pedagogical aspects of mentoring Batyshev (1977) indicated mentoring as a peculiar process of pedagogical work in the context of production. Every graduate of pedagogical institutions was obliged to pass traineeship according to individual plan developed together with the leader who was appointed from the number of experienced pedagogues. This plan included various directions of work for newly hired teacher which allowed him/her to improve in the teaching activities, in the out-of-school work, in the communication with children's parents, to learn advanced pedagogical experience, to acquire new methods and approaches of teaching and learning as well as to demonstrate managerial capacity. The head of school was responsible for the realization of the plan. Within the ten months traineeship newly appointed specialists learnt the principles of perspective and present planning, took part in planning the work of the school, developed lesson plans for his/her classes. Alongside with that newcomers got necessary consultations with experienced senior teachers and heads of school.

One of the researchers who investigated the phenomenon 'mentoring' during the Soviet Union period was Rogachevskaya (1982) who analyzed the development of mentoring from the first phases of the Soviet regime, discovered its traditions and continuance, demonstrated its place and role in the professional preparation of the working class. "In the first decades of the Soviet regime the movement appeared and began to develop to educate and train young working class. Although this movement hasn't been indicated as mentorship yet, according to its nature and methods of training of youths this have already been mentorship in socialistic type" (Rogachevskaya, 1982, p.11-12).

In general, the nature of mentoring in this period differs with its social essentiality. Studies were focused on the mechanism of influence of mentoring to the increase of labour and social activity.

At the end of the 80s and beginning of the 90s, with the dissolution the USSR, the interest in mentoring as a mass movement weakened.

However, on the boundary of the XX and XXI centuries, as a result of fundamental reorganizations in all spheres of lives of Kazakhstani society in conditions of modernization in the educational system again the necessity came to a head for renewal of mentoring institutions. Because in the modern educational area of "higher education - professional sphere of activity" there are no more substantial mechanisms of cooperation which conduce to professional socialization of young specialists right after their graduation. Almost two thirds of graduates of pedagogical institutions feel unfit entering a new work environment; they don't feel potential in themselves for professional growth and career development. In such situations, developing mentoring system again would be one of the most effective methods of professional socialization of new university teachers.

Today mentorship enters into a new stage of its development, its social role and significance is increasing since the system of mentoring refines the process of induction and professional formation of young academics.

Hence, having analyzed the evolution of mentorship development, it can be concluded that formation and segregation of mentorship as a social institute was entailed with the expanding needs in society in theoretical reasoning and generalization of naturally compounding experience of teaching and nurturing of oncoming generation. Mentor executes a peculiar function of society: nurturing an individual, his/her intellect, spirituality, preparation to life in general, to participate actively in labour work. The phenomenon of mentorship comprises an essential social and pedagogical component of social development and maintenance of valuable traditional socio-cultural grounds.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The Chapter three of the dissertation describes the research design developed for the purpose of the research and its research questions. Given the philosophical assumptions of the researcher, a theoretical as well as knowledge frameworks are established which will guide the researcher throughout the research journey. In the following, the elucidation of the research methods, the sampling units and size, and the data collection and data analysis are described in detail. Specifications of ethical considerations and research limitations are also depicted in this chapter.

The design of the research is basically grounded in a qualitative research methodology with a perspective of an interpretivist paradigm. Theoretically, the research design is guided by the researcher's integrated theory for underpinning faculty mentoring which provides a lens from Blau's Social Exchange Theory and constructivism.

In his work when investigating an interpretive framework, Rowlands (2005) stated that "interpretive research acknowledges the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is being explored and the situational constraints shaping this process" (p.81). Thus, the choice of the data collection tool established an opportunity for shared meaning between the teachers who participated in this research and the researcher.

In the overall picture, this research consists of three phases:

➢ *Phase 1*: Design and planning phase,
➢ *Phase 2*: Data collection phase,
➢ *Phase 3*: Data analysis and reporting.

The first phase included the identification of the problem. To do this, the literature review was conducted related to the research problem where the researcher investigated the topic in focus. Thereafter, the problem was clarified and the scope of the study was narrowed.

The instrumentation plan of the research contained the specification about the selection of the participants, how, when, and where data will be collected.

Since the collection of data is a crucial step in any research, careful attention and emphasize was given to this process, starting from designing the interview questions

which will answer the research questions and ending with the arrangement of the interviews.

Once the data was collected, coded, conceptually organized and interrelated, the analysis and its reporting process were to be undertaken.

3.1 Theoretical framework for faculty mentoring

This paragraph pinpoints the development of the theoretical framework for underpinning mentoring in academia. To do this, a theory was required to outline the focus of this thesis and identify the research questions.

In qualitative research there are numerous types and ranges of theoretical frameworks which emanate in a large number of diverse fields of study and disciplines in the social and natural sciences. This diversity and richness of theoretical frameworks allow researchers 'to see in new and different ways what seems to be ordinary and familiar' (Anfara & Mertz, 2014, p.24). The main goal of any theoretical framework, as highlighted in Mills and Bettis (2015), is 'to make sense of the data, to provide some coherent explanation for why people are doing or saying what they are doing or saying' (p.97).

The primary focus of mentoring in present research is investigating mentorship relationships as a support mechanism for professional socialization and career growth for new university teachers through personal interactions and relationship building. I consider two different frameworks for this study which will provide the researcher a more flexible lens in terms of understanding how junior academics experienced professional socialization and develop their professional growth (*Figure 7*): Blau's Social Exchange Theory and constructivism. I believe that the integration of two theoretical frameworks will deepen our understanding of a phenomenon.

Figure 7. An integrated theoretical framework of the research
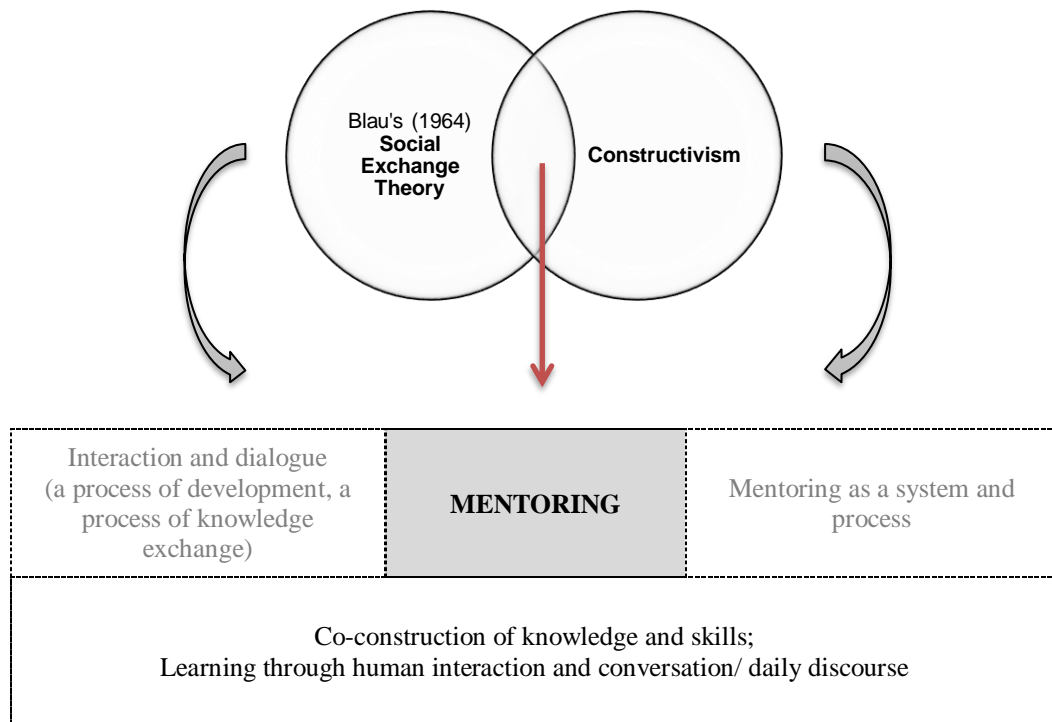
Source: Author

My interest in this integrated theoretical framework (*Figure 7*) led all aspects of this research, from identifying the focus of the study, to sample selection, to the analysis and interpretation of data collection. To begin with, it should be looked at these two theories and see how they help in understanding mentorship thoroughly.

3.1.1 Blau's Social exchange theory

Blau (1964) strived to understand social structure through the analysis of social processes operating the relations between individuals and groups. The main idea is in understanding how social life is organized into increasingly complex structures of associations among people.

Blau (1964) focused on the process of exchange which, according to him, operates a considerable part of human behavior and it is the cornerstone of both interpersonal as well as intergroup relations. The scientist investigated four-stage sequence directed from interpersonal exchange to social structure and further to social change: interpersonal exchange, differentiation of status and power, legitimation and organization, and, lastly, opposition and change.

The concept of social exchange assumes accounting only those actions which are caused or depend on rewards provided by other subjects. People for many reasons tend to address to each other, and it induces them to form social associations. When the initial connection is established, reciprocal rewards help them to support this connection and expand it. The opposite can also happen - when there are insufficient rewards, the association weakens or collapses.

Blau (1964) differentiated 6 types of social rewards:

o   personal attraction,
o   social acceptance,
o   social approval,
o   instrumental services,
o   respect/ prestige,
o   compliance/ power.

Further, he divided rewards into intrinsic (love, attachment, respect) and extrinsic (money or physical work). People not always provide rewards to each other equally. Such inequality leads to differentiation of the power in association.

Social engagement is accomplished within a social group. "It is in the social relations men establish that their interests find expression and their desires become realized," (Blau, 1964, p.13) and people want to be engaged in those groups where they feel they will be rewarded there. Thus, if to align this theory with our case, in the phenomenon of mentoring, a newcomer, entering a new social group, wants to be accepted in a new environment with smooth transition and establish good relations with his or her new colleagues. Rewards in the process of social engagement for new entrants can be social approval, respect, status as a faculty member, practical help and support, and face-to-face daily discourse where teachers learn informally.

According to the Theory of social exchange, the linking mechanism in complex social structures acts norms and values existing in the society. For newcomers in the realm of academia, commonly accepted norms and values serve as mediators in social life and connecting bonds of social interactions. The new member complies with the norms of the group, that is, the norms of the department where he or she works. Collective values of various types can be understood as means of social regulation allowing to expand the range of interaction and structure of the relations within social space and time.

3.1.2 Constructivism

In general, constructivism is a learning or meaning-making theory (Richardson, 2005) according to which teachers as learners create their own new understandings by constructing and reconstructing meaning of their experience, and they learn and develop, personally and professionally.

In the constructivist view "all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentiality social context" (Crotty, 1998, p.53). Throughout one's lifetime every man constructs his own understanding of the world. Thereby, each person is unique with his own worldview and convictions.

Constructivism in education involves a process of self-knowledge of the problems. This is particularly important in the process of teaching since teaching is linked with solving different types of pedagogical puzzles. For a young academic it's necessary to see these puzzles, examine them, compare with prior cases and find solutions. Constructive thinking and professional constructive skills constitute a managing regulator of relations between a teacher and students.

Mentoring relationships represent a process of knowledge exchange which is achieved through the development of relational trust. Since "all forms of knowledge are inevitably reinterpreted according to the postulates, ends, and sociocognitive experiences of the person who takes an interest in them", (Larochelle, Bednarz, & Garrison, 1998, p.4) mentorship fosters critical thinking and motivates teachers to enrich their experiences linked to prior knowledge.

From the constructivist perspective, learning is an active process (Bruner, 1999) and this happens in the social interaction (Matthews, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's (1978) theory of social constructivism promotes learning contexts in which collaboration is put in the center of the learning environment. Thus, building mentoring relationships, be it formal or informal, will shape a reciprocal learning environment for the involved parties where they benefit from these relationships and construct critical-reflective meaning-making exchange (Greyling & Du Toit, 2008).

3.2 Knowledge framework of the research: An interpretivist approach

The effectiveness of research study directly depends on well-planned and well-designed activities and its logical sequences. The sequence chain of the knowledge framework of the dissertation is presented in *Figure 8*.

Figure 8. Knowledge framework of the research within Lukenchuk and Kolich's (2013) typology of research paradigms
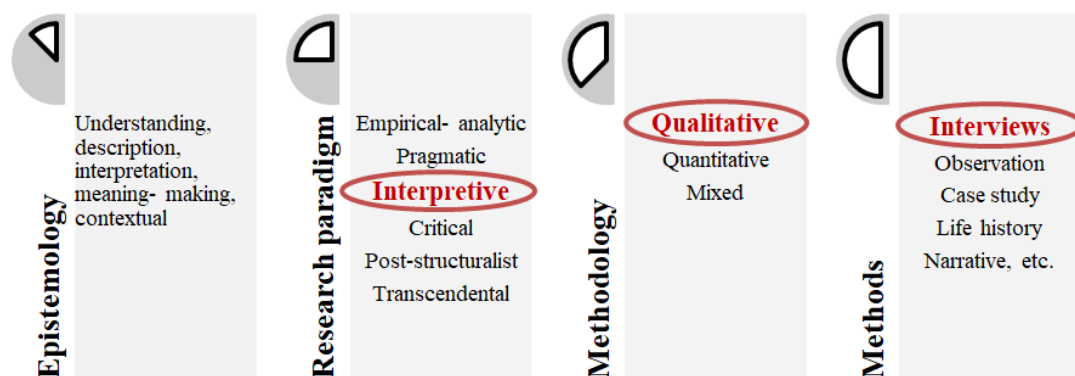
Source: adapted from Lukenchuk & Kolich (2013)

Research paradigm is "a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behavior of the researcher" (Wahyuni, 2012, p.69). As was stated above, for a research paradigm to guide the investigation interpretivism was chosen (*Table 4*):

Table 4. General features of interpretivism

Criterion	Interpretivism
Reality is…	▪ subjective, in people's minds ▪ created, not found interpreted differently by people
Human beings are…	▪ creators of their world ▪ making sense of their world ▪ not restricted by external laws ▪ creating systems of meanings
Science is…	▪ based on common sense ▪ inductive ▪ relying on interpretations ▪ not value free
Purpose of research is…	▪ to interpret social life ▪ to understand social life ▪ to discover people's meanings

Source: adapted from Sarantakos (1998, p.40)

To begin with, interpretivism is an epistemological approach according to which social processes can be conceptualized only through the interpretation of how people comprehend the world around and express their understandings through the help of the language, individual style, public rituals, through people's 'lived experiences', etc.

Interpretevism is an integral part of the qualitative tradition where the researcher and the social world impact on each other (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Consequently, from the interpretivist perspective a researcher reckons upon a relativist ontology which states that every separate phenomenon can have multiple interpretations. Thus, by confiding to interpretivism the researcher will try to derive an elaborated picture of the phenomenon of mentoring and its complexity in its context instead of trying to make generalization of this picture for the whole population (Creswell, 2013).

Methodology is a combination of research methods, system of principles and approaches to organize the research thesis. As a rule methodology is developed, implicitly or explicitly, in the frame of a particular paradigm which is a theory or model of problem statement accepted as an exemplar for solving research tasks. Research paradigms are the embodiment of its philosophical bases and principles. In a wider sense, methodology stands for a researcher's philosophical position. Method is a combination of approaches and procedures of studying, theoretically and practically, the reality (Lukenchuk & Kolich, 2013).

This research is projected towards *qualitative* data which will hold forth in-depth understanding of the respondents' experiences and personal stories as well as the meanings they attach to their actions. For a qualitative research design both individual interviews and focus group interviews were used.

When planning a qualitative research design, primary six principles in qualitative research suggested by Sarantakos (1998) were maintained:

- *Openness*: Keeping openness concerning the research subjects or the research methods;
- *Research as communication*: The importance of the process of communication between the researcher and the participants as they are working together for a common goal, and the participants are "subjects who define, explain, interpret and construct reality" (Sarantakos, 1998, p.51);

- *The process-nature of the research and the object*: Reality is constructed, managed, explained and presented;

- *Reflexivity of object and analysis*: In qualitative research every single symbol or meaning is addressed to be a reflection of the context in which they were developed;

- *Explication*: The data collection procedures in which how the participants were approached are clearly and accurately explained. Also, careful consideration is given to the phases of the research and its ethical considerations;

- *Flexibility*: The research design is more likely to include guidelines than strict rules (Sarantakos, 1998).

3.3 Research methods

3.3.1 Method of interviews

Interviews are used as means of data collection, with a pre-set semi-structured procedure. According to Czarniawska (2004), "an interview is a common enterprise in knowledge production" (p.47) which can be treated as a manipulated conversation by nature, being "a rich source of knowledge about social practice insofar as they produce narratives" (p.50). Moreover, interviews, as pointed in Janesick (2004), are one of the essential components of qualitative research from which rich and meaningful data can be elicited. Interviews help researchers in achieving and getting insight into respondents' perspectives (Hatch, 2002) since interviewers as researchers have "an empathetic access to the world of the interviewee" (Kvale, 1996, p.125). To be more precise, interviews in qualitative research strive to esteem the world from the participants' perspective and to investigate and delve into the importance of people's experiences (Kvale, 1996; Silverman, 2013).

Semi-structured interview, as one of the most effective appropriate means to collect data (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), is a very convenient method, with prepared but not fixed set of questions and follow-up questions can be asked during the interview to deeper understanding on the topic. That is why semi-structured interview is "flexible, accessible and intelligible and, more important, capable of disclosing important and often hidden facets of human and organizational behavior" (Qu & Dumay, 2011, p.246).

Different techniques of conducting interviews were used for data collection. Besides face-to-face interviews, *telephone and email interviews* (Opdenakker, 2006) were practiced due to the location and time differences of the researcher and the respondents. Though some researchers (see, Einarson, Ahmed, Gallo, Einarson, & Koren, 1999; Gillham, 2005; Robson, 1993) report on the inefficiency of telephone and mail interviews for the lack of social cues as voice, body language or intonation, the shortness of the conversation, the dominance of a researcher, not participants, these kinds of techniques do have the same results as face-to-face interviews in getting in-depth and rich data (Carr & Worth, 2001; Mccoyd & Kerson, 2006; Novick, 2008; Opdenakker, 2006). Yet, there is little evidence that the use of telephone or email interviews affects poorly on the interpretation or quality of findings (Novick, 2008).

3.3.2 Method of focus group interviews

The second primary method for data collection was focus group interviews with mentees and mentors.

A focus group interview method, as explained in Kelly (2003), is "designed to elicit perceptions, information, attitudes and ideas from a group in which each participant possesses experience with the phenomenon under study" (p.50). She further adds the fundamental point of focus group data is to pick up the respondents' ideas and attitudes through group interaction and exchange.

As compared to individual interviews, respondents in focus group interviews can change their views or ideas or at least their statements from naturally occurring group interaction and challenge with other respondents for the research purposes. As Casey and Kueger (2015) depicted, participants of focus group are "influencing and influenced by others - just as they are in real life" (p.11) and thus, "a focus group is a special type of group in terms of purpose, size, composition, and procedures" (p.26).

In general, focus group interviews can be used in the following three ways:

➢   As a self-contained method,
➢   As a supplementary source of data,
➢   And use in multi-method studies (Morgan, 1997).

As a *self-contained method,* focus groups are used as a primary source for data collection and apart from individual interviews they enrich data with participants' experiences and ideas. As *a supplementary source,* focus groups can validate findings in quantitative research or can be used together with questionnaires for making generalizations. Lastly, focus groups can be used in *multi-method studies* for triangulation when several approaches are combined together in data collection (Kelly, 2003).

3.4 Research groups

3.4.1 Research participants

The focus of the research is Sh. Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University in Kazakhstan.

Sh. Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University is one of the leading universities in the Northern part of Kazakhstan which trains specialists in different directions such as Education, Human and Social Sciences, Arts, Business, Natural Sciences, Agricultural Sciences, Technical Sciences and Technologies, etc. The languages of instruction are Kazakh and Russian. According to the official webpage of the university (at the time of writing this research) there are more than 11,000 students, with 271 Master degree students and 33 PhD students. As to the teaching staff, it comprises 410 university academics: 20 professors, 13 PhDs, 92 associate professors and 214 teachers with Master's degree. 35 university teachers hold the State honor "Best Higher Education Teacher".

Since the implementation of the "State Programme for the Development of Education and Science" (2011) some specialties are instructed in English and teachers are being trained to teach in English. The program aims to develop teaching and learning of three languages: Kazakh as the state language, Russian as the second state language and language of interethnic communication, and English as the international language.

Its purpose is to strengthen the country's capacity. A polylingual person will always be in demand in any society. That's why school and university subjects are planned to teach in three languages (Kazakh, Russian and English).

In current dissertation it was intended to involve senior and junior faculty teachers, professors and academics working at Sh. Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University, at the Faculty of Philology and Pedagogics and its six departments: Department of Kazakh Philology, Department of Russian Philology, Department of English Language and Teaching Methods, Department of Foreign Languages, Department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work, and Department of Social and Age Pedagogy. The aim was to ask them to share their subjective perspectives and experiences about informal mentoring system at their departments, which were then interpreted by the researcher.

The selection of the faculty under review is justified with the fact that the big number of junior teachers of this university work in this faculty.

It was planned to involve junior staff members with maximum of five years of work experience in the field of higher education as the interviewees. After five years of working at the university, teachers apply to be promoted as 'senior teachers' in Kazakhstan. Some teachers can get this status after three years of work experience if they meet the requirements of the application. Bearing this in mind the invitation letters were disseminated to junior teachers in six departments of Sh.Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University.

The second group of the respondents is senior staff members from different departments of the university who has more than 5 years of work experience.

Junior staff members who volunteered to participate in this survey, aged from 26 to 32, have different length of work experience in the higher education institution (*Appendix 1*). Only one interviewee was a male, the rest 18 were female which corresponds to the usual ratio of gender in Kazakhstani higher education institutions.

As for the senior teachers, the number involved in individual interviews composed 7 seniors from four departments, aged from 32 to 60 (*Appendix 1*). The minimum work experience of seniors consisted of 7 years working specifically in higher education sector while the maximum experience amounted to 37 years. Apart from these 7 seniors, three experts were invited to take part in this research who were administration of the departments. This allowed us to envisage the answers from different perspectives.

As for the focus groups, the selection procedure was the same as with individual interviews. Both focus group interviews were conducted in English at the university

under study. The participants of group interviews were selected from two departments at the university: Department of English Language and Teaching Methods and Department of Foreign Languages. Interviews in groups lasted between 40-60 minutes.

The first group interview was with three junior teachers. The participants were all females and they had one or three years of experience working as a full-time university teachers.

The second group interview consisted of five senior teachers. These five respondents had 17 to 20 years of work experience in the given institution, all female (Kazakhs and Russians).

3.4.2 The selection of the participants

Given the qualitative nature of this research there were no strict agreed-on rules regarding the selection of the participants.

Selecting the participants for this study, the researcher presumed two main sampling types which are *non-probability sampling* and *purposeful sampling*. The former gave the researcher the opportunity to select participants with the freedom based on her subjective judgment (Lewis, Saunders, & Thornhill, 2009).

The latter type of sampling, including snowballing method, allowed to select participants of semi-structured interviews based on self-selection which means that any faculty staff member who was interested to take part in the study was included. This allowed to make an elaborate and in-depth analysis of the questions under discussion.

3.4.3 Sample size

As for the sample size, many researchers speak about data of saturation. For instance, Francis et al. (2010) explained that sample size is often justified on the basis of interviewing participants until "data saturation" is reached. However, there is also no agreed method of establishing the data saturation (Francis et al., 2010).

Individual interviews were carried out until saturation was reached. By using data saturation as a guiding principle, it was determined that saturation would be reached

when "the collection of new data does not shed any further light in the issue under investigation" (Mason, 2010, p.2).

Ultimately, sample size in qualitative research is aligned to reflect the aims and goals of the research study. However, the author followed through the principles suggested by researchers - for instance, Bertaux (1981) and Kvale (1996) suggest minimum 15 participants in qualitative research irrespective of the methodology while Creswell (1998) suggests to include 20 to 30 participants. Initially it was planned to involve 20 participants for individual interviews together with mentors and mentees and during the data collection 5 more mentee teachers were invited to reveal any new information about the topic.

As seen from *Table 5* below, in total 33 young as well as experienced university teachers and experts who represented heads or departments at university in focus were involved in this research. More details about the participants are given in the subchapter *Research participants*.

Table 5. Target groups and sample size

Sample units	Individual interview	Focus group interview
Beginning teachers as mentees	15	3
Experienced teachers as mentors (among them: 2 Heads of the departments and 1 Dean of the faculty)	10	5
Total sampling size	33	

Source: Author

3.5 Data collection

Before arranging the sampling procedures a number of issues were to be solved: informants or interviewees who will be selected for this study, the setting where the research will take place, and the time when the study will be conducted (Sarantakos, 1998).

After deciding to make a purposeful and non-probability sampling, invitation letters were disseminated via e-mails to juniors as well as experienced university teachers who

work at the university in focus. An invitation letter provided a detailed information on the purpose of the research, scope and overview as well as ethical considerations that the participation is voluntary, and that confidentiality and anonymity will be guaranteed. Also, the interviewees were informed beforehand about the themes which are going to be discussed during the interview: defining the notion 'mentoring', 'mentorship', mentor's qualities and competences, and challenges that may happen in mentoring relationships.

The setting and time for the interviews were chosen by the respondents. As was described in *Method of interview* part, due to the time and place differences, the participants could give the interview in three forms: face-to-face, telephone or mail (*Table 6*). In the same way the language of the interview was also chosen by the respondents: English, Kazakh or Russian. All interviews lasted between 20-40 minutes.

Table 6. Division of individual interviews by its types and language of communication

Participants	Form of the interview	Total number	Language of the interview	Total number
Junior teachers	Face-to-face	7	In English	6
	Mobile phone	5	In Kazakh	8
	e-mail	3	In Russian	1
Senior teachers	Face-to-face	8	In English	1
	Mobile phone	1	In Kazakh	8
	e-mail	1	In Russian	1

Source: Author

Once the interviews were scheduled and the place and time determined, the interviews, be it individual or group, began with the explanation of ground rules, general scope and overview of the research conducted.

The data collected was audio recorded with the consent of the respondents (in case of face-to-face interviews) and they were ascertained that the records would be used for the research purpose only and without their identification. Interviews over the phone were not recorded due to the absence of financial support to purchase necessary software.

3.6 Data analysis process

Undoubtedly, data analysis phase in qualitative research is the most complex and mysterious part, as highlighted in Thorne (2000), because it is "a dynamic, intuitive and creative process of inductive reasoning, thinking and theorizing" (Basit, 2003, p.143).

As Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (1994) specified, the analysis of data should contain three concurrent flows of activities which it were followed then throughout the research study:

1) data condensation (selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, interview transcripts)
2) data display (writing summaries, coding, developing themes, generating categories, and writing analytic memos)
3) conclusion drawing.

In other words, these are the main three phases which were described briefly in the introduction part of this chapter.

For interviews in qualitative research two standard approaches are used for analysis, developing themes and content analysis (Gubrium, Holstein, Marvasti, & McKinney, 2012). To do this, two techniques were used in the analysis, the first cycle was manual coding and developing themes and sub-categories which were descriptive in nature (Vaismoradi & Snelgrove, 2019), and the second cycle was conducted via Atlas.ti 8 software for qualitative data analysis.

Figure 9. Research process
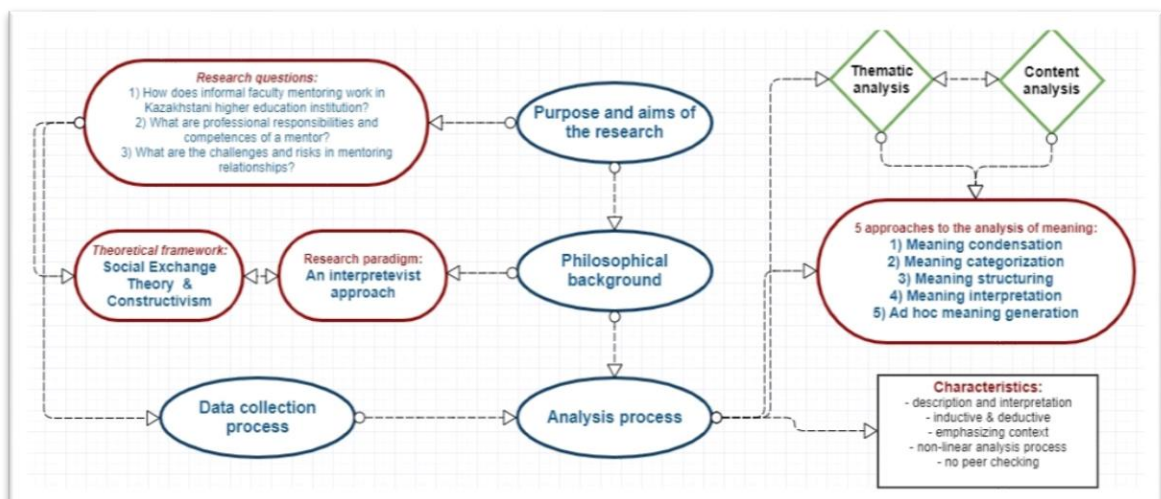
Coding is a crucial aspect of data analysis (Basit, 2003). Saldaña (2015) claims that the act of coding needs to be investigated through the researcher's analytics lens and this depends on what type of filter covers that lens. By filter the author refers to theoretical underpinnings a researcher mapped out for leading his or her research.

As seen from *Figure 9* once the data was collected, the initial coding for the thematic analysis was conducted manually in the excel sheet by developing initial themes for each interview. Then these initial themes were placed in a single excel sheet in columns so that I could then connect similar topics highlighted in the same color. The next step was to create a table (*Table 7, Table 8*) which included the major topics that were constructed from comparable clusters of and sub-topics (*Table 8*). This was the interpretive (latent content) level of analysis (Vaismoradi & Snelgrove, 2019).

The second cycle of data analysis was carried out abiding five main approaches to the analysis of meaning suggested by Kvale (1996) (*Figure 9*). Thus, *meaning condensation* encompasses "an abridgement of the meanings expressed by the interviewees into shorter formulations" (Kvale, 1996, p.192). This phase involved the examination of interview transcripts thoroughly to develop essential meaning of mentoring in academia experienced by mentees and mentors.

Meaning categorization was developed through manual coding by involving main dimensions and subcategories. This was followed by *meaning structuring* through narratives to develop themes of the original interview. Meaning interpretation "goes beyond a structuring of the manifest meanings of a text to deeper and more or less speculative interpretations of the text" (Kvale, 1996, p.193).

For each junior staff member's interview a list of codes was developed (open coding) which were then complied into groups (axial coding), sorted by different colours as seen from *Table 7*. Further, these groups were combined to form overarching themes (selective coding):

Table 7. First cycle open coding for mentee teachers

№	Colour	Themes of the first cycle coding
1		Perceptions of juniors about mentoring

2		Mentoring for smooth transition
3		Characteristics of mentors according to juniors (mentor's functions, roles and competencies)
4		Mentoring types and forms (the process of mentoring at the university)
5		Key factors in mentoring according to beginners
6		Negative aspects of mentoring
7		Challenges of beginners in their induction period
8		Work atmosphere and colleagues
9		Professional learning of beginners
10		Suggestions of mentees about mentoring system

Source: Author

The second cycle of data analysis was utilized with Atlas.ti 8 software. This data analysis software makes coding in three types: open coding (naming a code of the highlighted segment by the researcher), code in vivo (using the selected text segments as a code which is useful when importing quotations in the findings parts) and list coding (choosing a code from the list created and the highlighted data segment is coded).

Upon working with Atlas.ti 8 the following code groups for each participant units were revealed:

Table. 8 Meaning categorization of the data

Code groups of juniors	Code groups of seniors
Acknowledging the benefits of mentoring	"Open lessons" and class observations as a way for professional learning and development
Challenges in the induction period	Challenges which faced senior in their early career
Defining mentoring	Distinguishing features of mentoring which leads to success
Defining mentor's roles and important features	Established tradition of informal mentoring in the department
Essential elements for building mentoring relationships	Faculty development in the department

Faculty development in the department	Mentor's qualifications and competencies
Main help coming from colleagues	Overburden of teachers in HEIs
Negative sides of mentoring	PL and PD of seniors
Professional learning of juniors	Research in HEIs
Recommendations for improvement for mentoring system	Senior teachers vs junior teachers
The reality of newcomers in the teaching profession	Seniors' perceptions about mentoring
The reality of the teaching profession	Significance of mentoring practices
Types and forms of mentoring	Teaching profession in Kazakhstan
Working with a mentor	The impact of the culture and context
	Types and forms of mentoring

Source: Author

3.7 Ethical considerations

Social research is a dynamic process (Sarantakos, 1998) which implicates the researcher and research participants, and which "is based on mutual trust and cooperation, as well as on promises and well-accepted conventions and expectations" (Sarantakos, 1998, p.20).

Any research study should be conducted taking into account the ethical norms prescribed by the Scientific Committee, on the basis of which lies the compilation of the main four values:

- ✓ *Universalism* - the validity of the scientific statements should be evaluated irrespective of race, gender, age, status, positions;
- ✓ *Generality* - scientific knowledge should freely stand as a common heritage;
- ✓ *Disinterestedness* - in terms of when conducting a research to seek the truth selflessly;
- ✓ *Rational skepticism* - every researcher bears responsibility in evaluating the quality of the data (Merton, 1973).

In carrying out a research Sarantakos (1998) admonishes to keep the following ethical standards in professional practice:

- ✓ Accuracy in data gathering and data processing,

- ✓ Relevant research methodology,
- ✓ Appropriate interpretation of the data,
- ✓ Accurate reporting,
- ✓ Fabrication of data is misconduct,
- ✓ and falsification of data is misconduct.

In this way ethical considerations maintain to define "what 'moral' research procedure involves, balance of two values: the pursuit of knowledge and the rights of research participants or of other in society" (Neuman & Robson, 2007, p.48).

As to the ethical considerations between a researcher and a respondent, the following ethical points were upheld:

- *Clear outset*: the participants of the interviews and the focus group interviews were clearly explained the general information about the research and the type of questions;

- *Welfare of the participant*: "The researcher should always be concerned with the welfare of the respondent" (Sarantakos, 1998, p.23); any questions that would harm, embarrass, or put the respondent at risk were avoided;

- *Free and informed consent*: it was explained to each respondent that the participation is voluntary and they have the right to discontinue the participation in the interview without any consequences. The alternative is not to participate. Also the participants had the right to refuse to answer particular questions of the interview;

- *The right to anonymity and confidentiality*: Any summary interview content, or direct quotations from the interview, that are made available through academic publication or other academic outlets were anonymized so that the respondent cannot be identified, and care was taken to ensure that other information in the interview that could identify him or her is not revealed. All information is treated with the strictest confidentiality (Alsaawi, 2016; Creswell, 2012; Gillham, 2005; Kvale, 1996; Sarantakos, 1998).

3.8 Research limitations

The research involves only one particular university in the Northern Kazakhstan which can limit this research since each higher education institution solve the problem of teacher induction and teacher professional development differently. Each higher education institution develops its strategies and goals, issues on staffing, faculty development and retention depending on the type of the university. As such, there are national research universities, national higher education institutions, research universities, academies or institutes. Thus, the results of the dissertation cannot be generalized in large, however some elements of the findings may be true for other higher education institutions in Kazakhstan and elsewhere.

Lack of prior research studies on the topic is one of the limitations. The given topic was not investigated theoretically or practically in Kazakhstan though the elements of informal mentoring in faculties at higher education institutions are being experienced. Therefore, the direct comparison with the findings of this research is not possible with other studies researched in Kazakhstan.

Due to the linguistic context of the research, the participants of the interviews were given the choice to give it in three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. Thus, it was necessary to translate the data collected in Kazakh and Russian into English which may lead to some unintended language issues. However, the translations were done with careful attention and professionalism.

CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS

Chapter preview

Chapter four summarizes the findings analyzed from the data collected. Although there was a lack of a pronounced and manifested concept of mentoring, the findings indicate that there are different types of mentoring which existed among the participating teachers: *formal mentoring, informal mentoring and naturally occurring mentoring*. The forms of mentoring also differed among all six departments. All these types and forms of mentoring are reported in this chapter.

For junior teachers professional development through mentoring includes three forms of learning: *learning by observing, learning by doing* and *learning by asking*. Additionally, key features for building fruitful mentoring relationships were identified from the inductive thematic analysis of the data. Since mentoring involves human interaction and relationship, pitfalls and challenges of this relationship were investigated in this chapter.

The findings are described in three segments respective to each research question which are: (1) the concept of mentoring and its types and forms, (2) mentoring as an essential element of teacher's professional development, (3) mentor roles and competencies, (4) key factors for building effective mentoring, and (4) challenges in mentoring relationships.

The credibility and accuracy of the findings has been achieved by triangulating the data and through the development of meaning categorization and its interpretation.

4.1 Presentation of the research questions findings

RQ 1: How does informal faculty mentoring work in Kazakhstani higher education institution?

RQ 1.1 How do academics conceptualize mentoring?

In response to this question when the participants of the interviews were asked what they understand by the term 'mentorship', a range of feedback was provided. By developing the frequency of comments the most commonly mentioned phrases were identified related to the concept of mentoring (see *Appendix 5* and *Appendix 6*):

Table 9. Teachers' perception of mentoring (by frequency of comments)

Juniors' perception of mentoring	Seniors' perception of mentoring
support	**support**
help	**help**
directing	**directing**
getting advice	**giving advice**
sharing experience and ideas	**sharing experience**
assisting	**assisting**
guiding	**guiding**
teaching to teach	supervision
explaining	cooperation
showing (methods and techniques of teaching/ the right direction)	consultation
asking	leading
encouraging	
pointing at mistakes or things that mentee needs to correct	
identifying mentee's direction, mentee's specific capability in the profession	

Source: Author

All interviewees do acknowledge that mentoring is mostly important in the induction period, as emphasized one of the interviewees, "*during a stressful period*". Thus, the junior teacher 1 says, "*...for me it [mentoring] means first of all support, help, being helped in difficult situations and supporting you throughout your induction period when you start to work. I think, it is very important to have a person whom you can ask about things, about how the things work and are structured*". The junior teacher 3 emphasizes that "*It [mentoring] is crucial because mentoring is showing assistance and support to the people who need it at the beginning of a career or study*". However, the fifth participant stated that one can manage without a mentor in one's early transition period and if one needs help, he/she can just approach a colleague for help.

The most frequently mentioned lists are given in the bold type in *Table 10* above that defined mentoring relationships and how these relationships influenced the support and assistance that was provided for the teaching staff in the departments. As seen from the couple of definitions given by the young teachers, first of all, mentoring is perceived as a support and help of an experienced teacher to a less experienced or inexperienced young teacher where the former guides and assists the latter by providing personal and professional support together with the psychological support.

Also, mentoring is perceived as a support for increasing newcomers' self-confidence in themselves as well as in their teaching and research skills. If young beginners identified the purpose of mentoring as "*when the mentor is sure that the mentee's skills and knowledge expanded, and the mentee is confident at the knowledge he or she received*" (*Junior teacher 7*) or mentoring helps "*to adapt to the colleagues together with its psychological help and helps [mentee] to make confident steps and changes*" (*Junior teacher 15*).

In view of this, together with increasing self-confidence in mentees mentoring is perceived as a vital element on encouraging young beginners to build relationships with their new colleagues and students because mentoring "*develops to adapt to the area of teaching since teaching is in the leading part in our university, to raise self-confidence, also ethical competences directed to strengthen the relationship between a teacher and a student*" (*Head of the department*).

The significance of mentoring during the induction period of new entrants shouldn't be underestimated because as one commented "*a mentor is like a bridge to make contacts with the department*" (*Senior teacher 5*).

4.1.1 Support in professional development of junior teachers as one goal of mentoring

As literature shows (see, for example, Campbell & Brummett, 2007; Huling & Resta, 2001; Lee & Feng, 2007; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; VanDerLinden, 2005), mentoring is a key part for teacher development in ongoing professional learning. *Table 10* below presents how mentoring facilitates professional development and professional learning of junior teachers in three main areas: teaching, research and organization/ administration. The forth column specifies the forms of working in mentorship.

Table 10. Professional development in mentoring

Research	Teaching	Organizational or administrative tasks	Forms of working

guidance in writing articles or writing an article in co-authorship	help in creating and developing syllabus/ curriculum	help with the filling in the documentations	Discussion
participation in workshops, seminars and conferences	help and guidance in writing lesson plans or study plans	help with writing different types of reports	Assisting professor's lectures and practical classes
sharing knowledge on the international journal lists	help with the selection of books and other resources	guidance in creating teacher's individual portfolio	Daily discourse/ informal conversations
	guidance on the usage of classroom activities	support and help in the organization of educational events	Consulting
	guidance on the usage of effective teaching methods and approaches	advise on meetings with students	Giving hints and tips
	help and support in the organization of examinations (term and final)		Meetings
			Reflection
			Class observations & public lessons
			Seminars
			Workshops
			Planning
			Appoint mentees as co-supervisors
			Faculty meetings
			Joint research projects

Source: Author

When entering a new place, without being appointed a formal mentor, junior staff of the departments made an attempt to use three types of learning to develop and enhance their professional knowledge for meaningful change and gain experience in the area of teaching. These three forms of self-directed professional learning are:

1. ***Learning by observing*** (attending professors' lectures and seminars, observing their way of teaching and working with students),

2. ***Learning by doing*** (professional learning sessions like participation in seminars, master classes or academic conferences),

3. ***Learning by asking*** (professional dialogue and daily discourse with colleagues and professors, heads of the departments, other professionals).

Teachers realize that their teaching experiences are sources of learning within the context of their practice. According to the literature, this is the *knowledge of practice* approach to professional development where tertiary teachers work and learn to create knowledge from their own experiences which happens through collaboration and mentorship. Teachers generate their knowledge of practice to theorize and construct their work and to connect it to larger social, cultural, and political issues (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001).

As is commonly known, one of the constituent parts of working in the field of higher education is to be involved in research. When entering a new career in the university setting, one is not fully engaged in research. This can be explained with the fact that new beginners try to make their focuses mainly on the teaching part to get more experiences in order to improve their teaching skills and find their own teaching styles.

Mostly, junior teachers improved their research skills by assisting their senior colleagues in the preparation phase of organization of research conferences and workshops within the department or on the level of the faculty: "*I participated in organizing different kind of conferences, workshops, round tables as an assistant. During these moments I get a lot of knowledge for myself*" (*Junior teacher 10*). Thus, *by doing*, in this case by assisting her mentor the junior teacher enhanced her organizational as well as communicational skills which, in turn, improved further her research skills.

Practice of writing publications and improving research also comes from '*learning by doing*':

> "Together with my mentor we participated in conferences, wrote articles in co-authorship for newspapers and journals. It really enhances and improves your research skills on how to write an article, what parts should be included in it, what should be written and what should be taken into account" (*Junior teacher 6*).

Simply, by asking for advice, by asking for help in finding the solution to minor problems junior teachers enriched their professional knowledge, be it in the field of teaching and research or personal matters. This kind of learnings usually occurred through "*the colleague who is sitting next, just having conversation if they had this kind of problems and how usually they cope with this kind of thing*" (*Group interview with junior teachers*) or the newcomers were "*learning [and were] taking pieces from different people and then asking questions*" (*Junior teacher 8*).

Mostly, all of the participants, irrespective of their teaching experience and field of teaching, stated that the most effective way of naturally occurring mentoring is to have an opportunity to attend their mentors' (professors and senior colleagues) lectures and seminars and during these class observations beginning teachers learnt a lot which was sufficiently enough to make the real picture of the teaching profession:

> "We learnt through attending their [professors'] classes, through observing how they teach, what methods and techniques they use, how they speak to students, all these were lessons for us" (*Senior teacher 5*).

As this type of learning and at the same time supporting mechanism of new teachers was mentioned a great deal it was decided to devote a separate sub-paragraph for this topic and examine it in detail by following this sub-chapter.

One of the important outcomes of mentoring for professional development is, as commented one of the junior teachers of the group interview, "to be able to reflect on his/her teaching". That's why it is crucial "*to involve [mentees] to reflective dialogue…[in order] to improve a particular sphere in his work, to work to get high quality*" (*Senior teacher 2*). Thus, mentoring supports reflective practice.

To sum up this sub-chapter, it was examined that the teachers learn from different opportunities for their professional knowledge and professional growth, namely, from research (professional reading, preparing a teacher portfolio), from professional learning sessions (facilitated workshops, seminars, conferences, master classes, round tables, trainings), through knowledge creation (research publications, publication of teaching manuals, educational or methodological materials), participating in a collaborative practice (group mentoring, collaborative planning, team teaching or assisting in teaching, faculty meetings). As seen from *Figure 9*, professional development activities of university teachers were further classified into four types of professional development in higher education. Thus, structured non-accredited are externally

organized activities and they are typically facilitated whereas unstructured non-accredited are those activities which are independently led by the teacher (Kenny, Young, & Guilfoyle, 2015).

Graphically, all the named professional development activities of university teachers enhanced by the elements of mentoring can be illustrated as follows (*Figure 10*):

Figure 10. Mentoring within professional development of university teachers
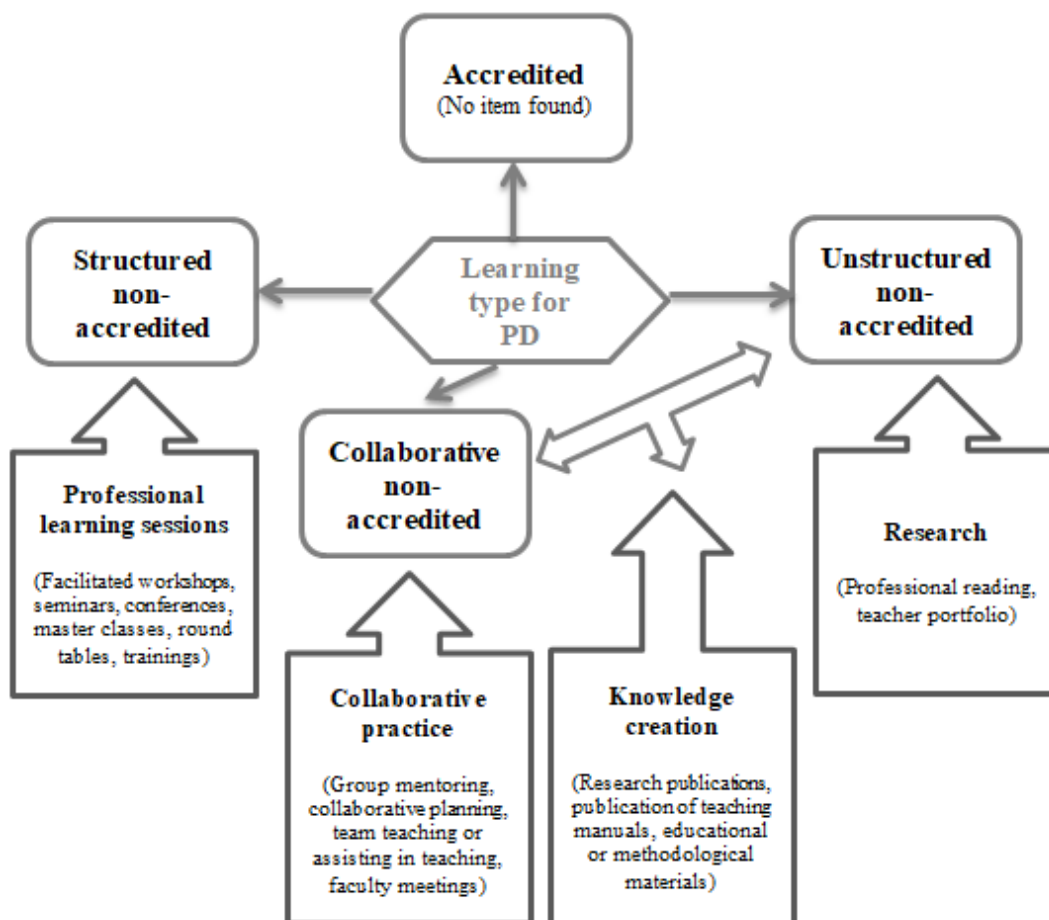
Source: Author

4.1.2 "Open lessons" and class observations for professional development

One of the requirements in the administration of the university, specified in the area of quality assurance in education, is a continuum mechanism of assessment of university teachers' and professors' skills and competencies. For the internal quality over the work of the teaching staff is used so called open lessons (public lessons and peer-

observations) and reciprocal collegial visits attended by heads and deans of the departments, and administrative workers.

As to the 'open lessons' there are two types established at this university: the first is 'public lessons' which is accomplished during the first three years of working at university where a beginning teacher should give a public lesson which demonstrates a new teacher's skills and competencies needed for working in higher education institutions. These kinds of public lessons are organized mainly for heads of faculties, deans of departments, colleagues and specialists from other departments and administration.

Secondly, peer or class observation, is organized within young teacher's department during the first year of teaching in higher education. The aim of both lessons is to demonstrate knowledge and skills in their teaching subjects as part of the induction period, but the purpose of the former, public lessons, is primarily to be promoted to be "senior teacher".

Reciprocal visits are part of teacher's professional development where each teacher is scheduled to visit his/ her colleagues' classes twice a semester. Heads of the departments consider these reciprocal visits, from one hand, as a means for developing and improving professional competency of university teachers, from the other hand, as an instrument for evaluating quality of teaching courses.

For newcomers class observations served as a means for enhancing professional knowledge, for improving teaching skills as well as to get insight about the organizational culture:

> "I think all of us admired the ethics of these experienced teachers what they had because everybody was really working hard and teaching was really the focus of the university… Even if like [my colleague] said we were sometimes afraid to ask but you could always observe the way they taught and we always did the examinations together. So, through observation, through listening to what other people are saying to you actually taught you a lot" (*Group interview with senior teachers*).

'Open lessons' are more one-way in nature whereas reciprocal visits are more collaborative since in the first case a new teacher prepares the lesson as part of his/her induction in order to demonstrate his/her professional skills and competencies for working as a university teacher.

Since most of the junior teachers who participated in the interviews haven't had the experience of holding "open lessons" yet, it was difficult to elaborate this topic. In the regulations of the departments teachers hold "open lessons" when they are promoted. But one of the senior teachers mentioned about these public lessons which was assigned to her during her first year of teaching:

> "During the first year I was to give some kind of an open, so to say, lesson which was attended by many other teachers from our department, from other departments and from schools I guess. And this was during the first year |accent| it is very difficult and challenging" (*Senior teacher 1*).

Later, it was found out during the interview with the Head of the Department of Science and International Cooperation that the departments reformulated regulations of supporting newcomers which included "to help a mentee in methodological questions, *not to assign to conduct public lessons at the beginning* [of their career], to let them to participate and observe your seminars and practical classes, to appoint them as co-supervisors". Thus, the departments have decided to make the newcomers' transition period easier and with less stress because as the senior teacher above emphasized that giving these open lessons were "*difficult and challenging*".

Reciprocal visits are, as a necessary feature of professional development, organized to develop planning skills, to enhance techniques, approaches and styles in teaching through collaborative practice, to develop personal and professional skills of evaluation, and to develop team-building skills and be able to receive criticism for improvement because "*by participating in the classes of your colleague you take something for yourself from the lessons*" (*Junior teacher 11*).

In literature class observation is acknowledged as a collegiate approach to professional practice (Martin & Double, 1998) which helps "in preventing teachers from being isolated and routinized" (Cosh, 1998, p.173). Thus, "*if I had some hesitations on how to do this or that in the right way, I visited their [professors'] lessons, watched them, learnt, and then went further*" (*Interview with the Dean of Faculty of Philology and Pedagogics*).

Observation of practice, as emphasized by Martin and Double (1998), is a required aspect of initial professional development. It should encompass "a free exchange of views based on the shared understanding of a teaching intention made real through the actual experience" (Martin & Double, 1998, p.162). That's why one of the teachers

found these class observations meaningful and efficient: "*I elaborated my knowledge and skills through observing their lessons where were used modern approaches and techniques of teaching and learning*" (*Junior teacher 6*).

As was analyzed the purpose of these visits or class observations is:

– to control the fulfillment of curriculum and form of teaching,

– to control the quality of lectures and seminars,

– to assess teacher's activities and professional development,

– to transfer experience and knowledge of leading professors in the department,

– to present innovative educational technologies,

– to implement research innovations into classroom.

The form for class observations are given in the *Appendix 4*. The form consists of 10 evaluating rubrics which of each can be assessed in maximum 10 points:

Planning and contents of the lesson

1. Having the syllabus, lesson plan, appropriate teaching materials which are described in the curriculum

2. Setting lesson goals and tasks and achieving them. Setting the problems of the lesson

3. Practicing the usage of the recent scientific achievements, state regulation documents and additional literature source at the lesson

4. Using interdisciplinary connection

5. Using new technology and interactive methods of teaching

6. Using teaching aids appropriately

7. Development of key, disciplinary and special competencies

8. Making conclusions about the lesson and teacher's evaluation of students' work

Teacher's personal and professional features

9. Degree of students' activeness, keeping students' motivations and interests

10. Teacher's professional skills (teaching ethics, speech culture, teacher's appearance, etc.)

According to the regulations of the departments each teacher, both seniors and juniors, are obliged to visit twice a semester his/her colleagues' classes. The department makes a schedule in which the names of the teachers who observe and teachers who is going to be observed are indicated. Which remains unclear is that how the points gained during the observation of the class effect on teacher's work, how the heads of the departments use it for faculty development, what they do if a teacher gets low points, are the points given subjectively or objectively and so on. But, unquestionably, teachers learn a lot from the observations.

RQ 1.2 What kind of mentoring model(s) and forms occur at the university?

Interestingly, the data revealed three forms of how mentoring (*Figure 11*) is functioning or functioned at the university under focus: formal mentoring, informal mentoring and naturally occurring mentoring.

Figure 11. Evolution of mentoring system based on teachers' experiences

- **Formal mentoring**
- Performed according to the planned scheme for newcomers

1st generation of teachers (X generation)
(with more than 25 years of experience)

2nd generation of teachers (Y generation)
(with 15-20 years of experience)

- **Informal mentoring**
- Mentor is assigned, but not controlled

- **Naturally occurring mentoring**
- Mentor is not assigned, colleagues are regarded as mentors

3rd generation of teachers (Z generation)
(with less than 10 years of experience)

Source: Author

4.1.3 Formal mentoring

As was investigated in the literature part (see 2.4.1 *Brief historical development of mentorship in Kazakhstan*) during the existence of the USSR mentoring was established systematically in any educational as well as industrial organizations.

The interviews with senior teachers together with deans and heads of the departments who have "witnessed" the Soviet Union regime, reported about the systematic mentoring mechanism schemes for newly hired specialists:

> "I have been educated during the Soviet Union. At that time I started my teaching career at school. At that time we had a systematic mentoring. When a young specialist came to work, it was obligatory to assign him or her a mentor who is experienced. That experienced teacher helped a young teacher in his/her growth and development, gave advice and influenced them to the right road" (*Dean of the faculty*).

The nature of mentoring was structured and mentors focused their interventions on increasing and strengthening newly entered young teachers' exposure to challenges and new experiences. This, in turn, increased new teachers' confidence and aspiration in their ability to reach their goals.

Another characteristic feature of mentoring system in the Soviet period was that newly hired members of the department were recruited as probationers or interns. According to the interview held with the Head of the Department of Science and International Cooperation the new teacher was appointed a mentor who was a professor, experienced and knowledgeable, and for two years they were meant to work productively together. This professor carried out lectures and the mentee teacher led the practical classes or seminars and assisted the professor's lectures. Only after two years this mentee teacher could apply to be promoted as a lecturer at the university.

In such a way, newly entered specialists could easily adapt to the new profession, observe its difficulties and obtain full insight into the profession through class observations of their professors or colleagues, faculty meetings and by assisting their professors' lectures.

Acknowledging the significance of the formal mentoring programs, the head stated:

> "But today it [mentoring] looks very differently. Of course, it [mentoring] is very important because when you have just graduated from higher education institution, to be a university teacher, it is very difficult. Because postgraduate studies do not prepare you in that direction. Today even in master degree studies there is no direction that prepares university teachers" (*Head of the Department of Science and International Cooperation*).

He admitted, mentioning several times during the interview, that the degree programmes in bachelor, master or Ph.D. studies are not directed to prepare and train future specialists or pedagogics for the higher education institutions:

> "They [Master and PhD degrees] are research-based, purely research-oriented, and it looks as if they prepare specialists for research organizations" (*Head of the Department of Science and International Cooperation*).

That is why he acknowledges the necessity of keeping the tradition of mentoring in the departments so that beginners could smoothly adapt to the work atmosphere and get the full picture of the profession.

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, as the independent country Kazakhstan started its own education system and implemented reforms in education. The second generation of teachers (Y generation) (*Figure 11*) was caught by the new system in education but mentoring existed as a system for supporting the new staff members: "*In our case we do have some mentoring, so to say, but it was not official*" (*Group interview with senior teachers*).

4.1.4 Informal mentoring

To the teachers who have 15-20 years of teaching experience in the field of higher education at their initial steps of career mentors were appointed, but these mentors were not formally assigned or regulated by documents in the department.

One of the interviewees of the group interview thought back to the time of their induction period by saying:

> "They [mentors] were very professional. That was the field whenever they were asked, I think, sometimes even we were afraid to say some certain things. Of course, they were our mentors but in certain cases we preferred to be careful, to keep silent" (*Group interview with senior teachers*).

The other teacher tried to explain that 'being afraid of their professors' was 'some kind of professional ethics' because as beginning teachers they admired the professional level of their professors and instead of directly asking for help from them, they learnt by observing their classes and the way they spoke to their students.

As mentoring was functioning with the first generation of teachers (X generation), this type of informal mentoring had the same features: mentors were assigned without formal regulations. The system wasn't structured and controlled by the head of the department.

Unlike their predecessors these senior teachers were employed as university lecturers, not as interns. As new teachers in the department they could attend their professors' lectures and seminar classes. Thus, by observing and by watching of what the professors were doing and saying these senior teachers increased their professional skills in teaching.

4.1.5 Naturally occurring mentoring

To the time where the third generation of teachers (Z generation) (*Figure 11*) started their career path, the elements of formal mentoring were fully disappeared, although the heads of departments and senior teachers assured that all departments keep the tradition of mentoring for supporting newcomers. However, new entrants of the departments say:

> "When I started working I hadn't an official mentor. Though when I asked for help from my colleagues, they gave their advice and guided me" (*Junior teacher 11*),

> "My colleagues were very helpful and I passed it [induction period] with less stress. I asked them questions which worried me or which were related to teaching" (*Junior teacher 1*),

or

> "If I want to know something which is difficult for me to solve, to know, if I don't know something in my work, I can just ask any of my colleagues in my department and have relevant answer for that" (*Junior teacher 2*).

As *senior teacher 1* pointed out during the conversation, "*mentoring is, first of all, a cooperation of teachers*", the last described type of mentoring is more a naturally occurring mentoring. These types of relationships are not structured and the relationship between senior and junior teacher fosters the growth of newcomers', personally and professionally, and hence minimizes the nature of mentoring.

Thus, the differences and peculiarities of each mentoring types can be summarised in table below (Table 11):

Table 11. General features and differences of mentoring types

Key features	Mentoring type		
	Formal mentoring	**Informal mentoring**	**Naturally occurring mentoring**
Development and management	Planned and organized within organizational structures	Mentor is assigned informally	Arranged largely spontaneously and most likely initiated by the mentee
Nature	Supervisory	Responsive	Interactive
Organizational involvement	Structured with clear goals and objectives has a developed program; Monitored and evaluated by program coordinator/ department leader; Formal meeting times	Unstructured, no organizational interference or control; Goals evolve over time and adapt to the needs of the mentee	Unstructured, no organizational interference or control
Roles and responsibilities	Roles and responsibilities of mentor and mentee are clearly defined	The relationship is voluntary-based	The relationship is voluntary-based, friendly and parent-like in nature
Focus	Focused to solve important or urgent task	Focused on minor tasks or a specific aspect of a task	More situation-based, asking for help or advice on particular issues
Key skills	Expert training and support	No training	No training
Duration	short-time period (time-bound)	longer term relationships	longer term relationships

Source: Author

4.1.6 Group mentoring

Since the system of mentoring is not established formally at the university level, mentoring forms and types differed in each department. The only distinguished department was the *Department of English Language and Teaching Methods* where they have formed a group mentoring system and kept this tradition for a long time. Even this system has its particularized name – "Links":

> "In our department we "link" which means that two or three teachers of the same course, they are collaborating and discussing the topics, the tasks, what to do and what to take, what to choose for the students. It can be during the breaks so teachers are just agreeing on the time and discussing all

the issues concerning those students" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

The essence of "links" is to form a group of teachers where one is experienced and qualified and this senior teacher guides two or three young inexperienced teachers for the time of whole academic year. At the beginning of each academic year a mentor forms a group according to the taught subjects of the beginners so that to work in one direction, starting from creating the syllabus and making lesson plans to choosing teaching materials and aids:

> "During our work we had to work in two or more groups, the same groups of the same year, three of us worked together: we had the same teaching materials, aids, syllabus, we also prepared it together" *(Junior teacher 2)*.

Thus, in this type of mentoring teachers by 'linking' to each other share experiences and ideas, challenges and pitfalls with the aim to find the right solutions. Support and help is provided from both peers as well as their mentors. It is particularly remarkable that this system is not regulated or 'controlled' by the head of the department.

The analysis of the interviews allowed to identify the following advantages of group mentoring:

- Group mentoring develops newcomers' positive attitudes to their new job since their professional socialization passes easily,
- Group mentoring increases newcomers' professional preparation and qualification,
- Newly hired members of the department quickly becomes familiar with the department's work speed, expectations, its norms and regulations, established traditions,
- Juniors become confident,
- Juniors are directed and guided in their early career regarding teaching and documentations in the department.

4.1.7 Reverse mentoring

Although there is already a wealth of experience in computer learning or digitalization in education, many teachers still try to refrain from the possibilities of integrating computer learning tools. It should also be noted that the implementation of information

technologies in education is quite complex and requires in-depth reflection. On the one hand, ICT plays an important role in ensuring the efficiency of the educational process, from the other – it impacts on the rate of learning by students.

Thus, reverse mentoring appears as a new type of mentoring in the departments which turns the traditional hierarchical approach to the system of mentoring on its head. Rather, this type of relationships perceives that there are skill gaps on both sides, and that both juniors and seniors can address their weaknesses with the help of the other's strengths.

> "Now in our department we practice distance learning education. We create video-lectures. Young staff members help as with the technology, you see, it is like a partnership where you help each other. They help us in using technology effectively, and they learn how to use innovative methods of teaching and learning. What should be included, which topics, how prepare assignments and tasks for students, and many other things" (*Senior teacher 6*).

This was also mentioned by the *Junior teacher 11* who acknowledges the reciprocity of mentoring relationships because, as he said, "*nowadays young generation, for example, are good at using computer and other facilities, they are fluent at using multimedia equipment*". As the Dean of the faculty highlighted, "*today's specialists differ from those in the past. Nowadays every worker is a specialist who possesses the knowledge of three languages, good skills in technology*" and that's why it is easier for young beginners to adapt to their new work atmosphere and penetrate into it.

Reverse mentoring turns out to be the reciprocal exchange of experiences as well as transfer of knowledge which increases cross-generational knowledge overall. In this way, both parties of the mentoring relationship gain benefits from it: mentees will have the opportunity to understand, learn and be heard by senior and experienced staff with the development of their leadership skills and organizational knowledge and mentors will be advanced in using technology in education as well as in research, thus, improving their content knowledge by improving their technical skills and develop valuable cultural insights from direct interaction with young teachers. This, in turn, helps to build '*professional friendships'* (Gardiner, 1998).

4.1.8 Research mentoring

This is rather a constituent part of the general mentoring relationships. However, when a couple of junior teachers from the Department of Kazakh philology described their mentoring process as purely directed to the research area, it was decided to consider it as a separate type of mentorship.

During the conversation with Junior teacher 9 it was singled out that research mentoring is as important as other forms of mentoring. Apart from teaching this junior teacher was taking her doctoral studies at the same university where she graduated. Her relationship with her mentor was directed to enhance professional growth in research capacity and strengthening research culture.

Being an interactive process in nature, with the help of the mentor's advice and direction the mentee identified her research area, narrowed her research focus and further it went as an ongoing mentoring as she says,

> "Even now with my mentor's advice and guidance I could be able to use theory into practice on the basis of using integrative methods of teaching, [to perform] quality and meaningful lectures, rich with theoretically scientific materials" (*Junior teacher 9*).

In the context of research, another teacher from this department (*Junior teacher 10)*, highlighted that by assisting her mentor in the organization of research conferences and workshops, round tables and seminars she has acquired experience from it. Furthermore, together with her mentor this beginning teacher worked on research publications.

Thus, young teachers as researchers were able to develop their own personal research strategies, were encouraged to transform research ideas into research projects and got regularly guidance on suitable journals to be published which improved their skills further to select journals by their own. Knowledge and experience gained from research mentoring led to provide supervision on BA and MA students in writing their diploma works.

4.1.9 Mentoring model

Based on the mentoring models suggested by Lewis (1999) and Anderson and Shannon (1988), discussed in the literature part of the thesis (see "*2.3.6 Mentoring models*" part), a model was composed which the participants units of the research (junior teachers and senior teachers) wish to implement or see as an ideal model for successful mentoring in their departments. The analysis of the conversations with the interviewees led to the development of two mentoring models (*Figure 12* and *Figure 13*).

Figure 12. Mentoring model proposed by junior teachers

Organizational basis

Identifying newcomer's challenges and setting goals

Perception of mentoring

Support	Guidance	Sharing
Help	Teaching	Encouraging
Asking	Explaining	Pointing at mistakes
Getting advice	Showing/ demonstrating	Identifying newcomer's direction
Assistance		

Mentor's roles

Positive	Leader
Advisor	Guide
Supporter	Helper
Encourager	

Mentor's competencies

Experienced	Thoughtful	Pleasant
More knowledgeable	Open	Communicative
Successful than the newcomer	Responsible	Moderate
Highly qualified	Honest	Simple
Professional	Understanding	Listens
Patient	Tolerant	Open-minded
Careful/ attentive		

Mentoring activities

Discussions	Daily discourse/ informal conversations	Reflection
Talks	Consulting	Class observations
Outer comments	Giving hints and tips	Helping with documentation
Feedback	Meetings	Planning together
Outer expert's vision		Collaborative work

Developmental basis

Expanding junior's teaching styles and approaches, Facilitating junior's further growth, Keeping friendly relationships

Basic of interpersonal relationships

Building relationships based on:

Trust
The same interest
Voluntariness
Partnership
Exchange of experience
Transfer of knowledge
Time & commitment
Freedom
Open & free relationships
Mutual respect
Feeling safe

Collaborative work,
Analysis of the conducted work,
Assistance in developing junior's teaching styles and techniques

Situational basis

Source: Author

The perceptions of mentoring by academics are examined in the above paragraphs. Mentoring activities shown in the mentoring model are situated in junior teachers' professional development area which is also described in the previous paragraphs.

The following sub-chapters interpret the main composing parts of this mentoring model. In particular, mentor roles and competencies are given in comparison from the perspectives of junior teachers and senior teachers.

These core elements for mentoring model were built based on Anderson and Shannon's (1988) mentoring model. As to Lewis's (1999) mentoring model, examined in the literature part, the phases for mentoring relationships were similar for both mentee teachers and mentor teachers. Slight differences can be seen in the second phase for building mentoring relationships. These key factors are detailed in the Section *Key features for building effective mentoring relationships.*

Figure 13. Mentoring model proposed by senior teachers
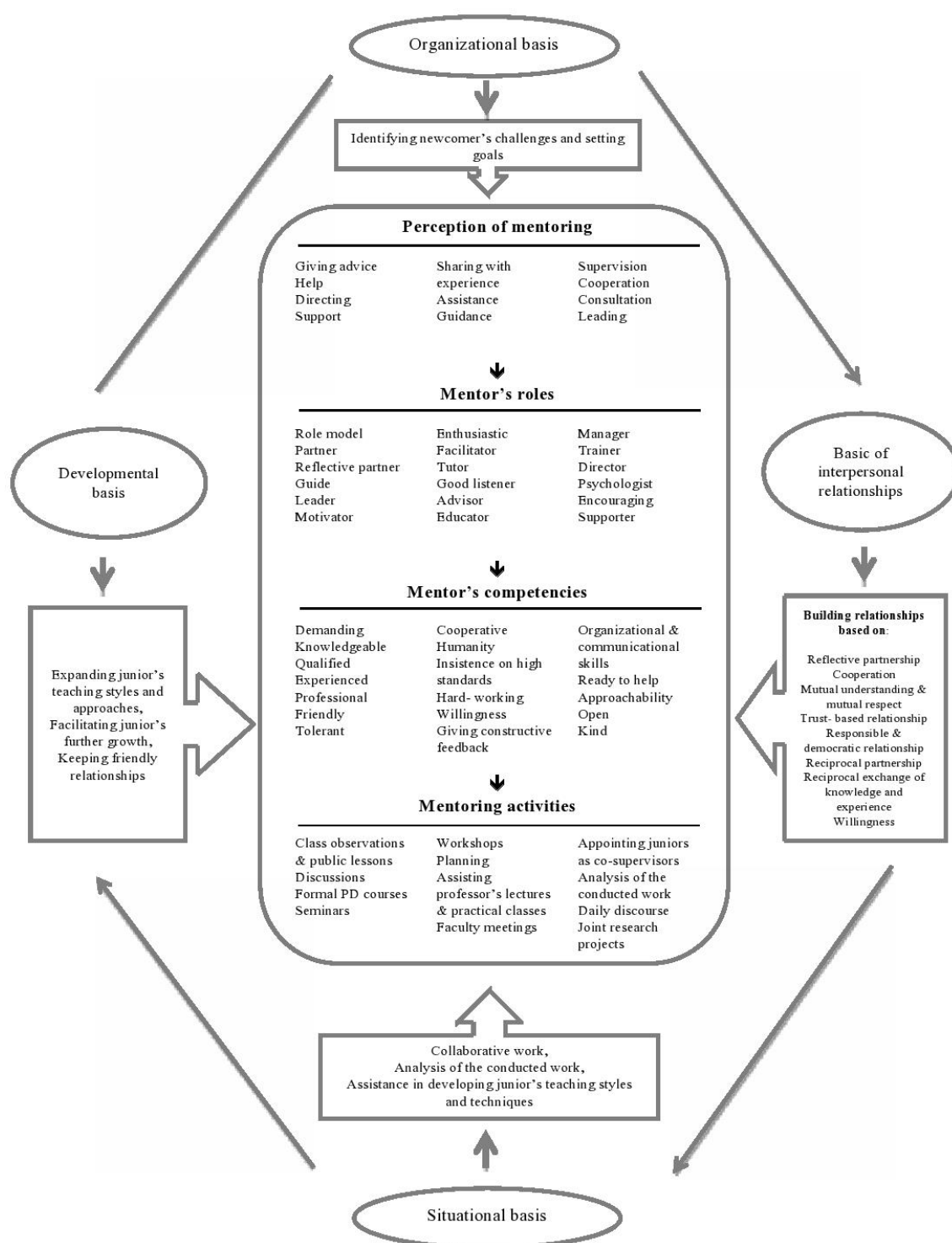
Source: Author

RQ 2: What are the professional responsibilities and competencies of a mentor?

RQ 2.1 What key competencies should mentor possess in ensuring successful mentorship outcomes?

Through how teachers, both junior and senior, are satisfied with mentoring relationships and their perceptions of mentoring mentor competencies were developed (*Table 12*) within the context of the university setting.

Table 12. Mentor's competencies

Mentor's competencies identified by juniors	Mentor's competencies identified by seniors
more experienced than the mentee	demanding
more knowledgeable than the mentee	knowledgeable
more successful than the mentee	qualified
highly qualified	experienced
patient	professional
careful and attentive	friendly
thoughtful	cooperative
open	humanity
responsible	insistence of high standards
honest	hard-working
understanding	Willing to share with his/her knowledge, teaching materials, skills or experience
tolerant	organizational skills
professional	communicational skills
pleasant	ready to help
communicative	approachable
moderate	open
simple	kind
listens	gives constructive feedback
open-minded	understanding
	tolerant

Source: Author

Based on the results of the data I classified within-named competencies into three main groups (*Table 11*) as outlined in the mentoring literature: *professional development, career development and psychosocial development* (Ciechanowska, 2010; Kolb & Wolfe, 1981; Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006).

Table 13. Classified mentor competencies

Professional development	Career development	Psychosocial development
knowledgeable	guidance	supportive
experienced	responsible	communicative
highly qualified	insistence of high standards	patient
professional	demanding	careful/ attentive
gives constructive feedback	cooperative	thoughtful
communicative skills	communicative skills	honest
organizational skills		understanding
		tolerant
		pleasant
		moderate
		open-minded
		approachable
		open
		kind
		readiness to help

Source: Author

To start with, identifying mentor's competencies was extremely complicated by the fact that, firstly, there is no established formal neither informal forms of mentoring at the university in focus, and, secondly, all mentoring relationships are situational and temporal in nature (Clutterbuck, 2005).

But, still, I've tried to make an attempt in defining mentor's competencies for effective and successful relationships based on data analysis. The initial phases of mentoring relationships requires from mentor to be *positive and kind* (*Group interview with junior teachers, Senior teacher 3*), actively *listen* to what mentee says (*Junior teacher 13, Senior teacher 3, Group interview with junior teachers*), "who can worry and be concerned about their common work" (*Senior teacher 3*), thus building trust (*Senior teacher 6*) between them which is a crucial role of a mentor. Said differently, mentor needs to possess psychosocial development skills for further fruitful relationships which refer to a relatively high level of emotional intelligence.

Professional development skills are also of great importance: mentor needs to be knowledgeable and experienced, qualified (*Interview with the Head of the department, Senior teacher 3, Senior teacher 4*), "to have organizational and communicational skills to plan their mentoring relationships and control its realization and outcomes" (*Senior teacher 6*).

It is essential that mentor teachers help the newcomers to understand the issues they teachers face, not to be afraid to accept new experiences in their life, to be able to reflect on the issues happening in their initial professional career.

Importantly, mentors should see the mentee teacher's challenges from the mentee's perspective, but not through the prism of his/her own problems, because mentees want to be heard and understood. One essential point is that "*mentor should consider his mentee not as a competitor, but as his partner*" (*Senior teacher 6*) and that "*mentor feels responsibility and pure strive to help his younger colleague*" (*Senior teacher 7*).

RQ 2.2 What attributes are regarded as important in ensuring effective mentoring relationships?

When asked a question about what roles should mentor entail, a wide array of roles for mentors (*Table 13*) was elicited by senior teachers which is explicable based on of their own experiences and practices whereas junior teachers indicated to those roles which they would like to see in their formal mentors. On the other hand, it is explained by the fact that these two generations of teachers, Y and Z generations, experienced different types of mentoring: seniors experiencing informal mentoring with the elements of formal mentoring and juniors who had no informal neither formal mentoring, but naturally occurring mentoring with their colleagues or peers.

Table 14. Mentor's roles

Mentor's roles identified by juniors	Mentor's roles identified by seniors
positive	role model
advisor	partner
supporter	reflective partner
encourager	guide
helper	leader
leader	motivator
guide	encouraging
	facilitator
	tutor
	good listener
	advisor
	educator
	supportive

	manager
	trainer
	director
	psychologist

Source: Author

The function of role modelling that a mentor teacher fulfills, entails that the mentor has to be, as was specified by Rhodes *et al.* (2005), *a tangible model of success*. Therefore, mentors play a positive and impactful influence on young member's outlook in the department because as was previously noted, "a mentor is like a bridge to make contacts with the department" (*Senior teacher 5*). For this reason, mentor as a key figure in the mentoring relationship carries out its *transitional feature*: both the roles with supervisory and collegial functions. That's why the young generation of teacher wants to have their mentors to be positive and friendly, understanding and supportive. If mentors act purely as supervisors, then it would be challenging for both parties of the mentoring relationship to overcome the generational differences.

As the last generation (Z generation), young generation of teachers, hasn't practiced the elements of formal and informal mentoring, they regarded their own professors as role models because as they commented, "*academics and experienced professors' words, their teaching careers are a great lesson for young teachers*" (*Junior teacher 10*).

The most frequently used attribute for mentor role identified the mentor's feature of being a helper, supporter and guide:

> "Mentors guide [young teachers] to enter their occupation in teaching with updated educational programs, general in the study process. They share with their experience. They lead young specialists who hasn't enough practical teaching experience as well as research skills, apart from that they help in organizational moments when having activities with your students" (*Junior teacher 10*).

Apart from getting professional support, seniors classified mentor's psychological support as crucial in the early career steps because it "*helps apart from discussions of classes, discuss the success of the process which will motivate a mentee. Thus, it will build trust-based relationship which makes the process of mentoring more effective*" (*Senior teacher 3*).

The supporter attribute of mentor included also the roles of being a *partner* ("*who is acting as your partner, like reflective partner*" (*Group interview with senior teachers*) and a leader:

> "It is important to lead the young staff and then when they smoothly pass their induction periods it would be easier to work because these young staff will already know about the nature of work, how to teach, how to collaborate with teachers. With the help of their mentor's advice I think everything can be managed" (*Junior teacher 15*).

In this way mentoring can be "*more organized and young teachers can be more supported*" (*Group interview with senior teachers*).

4.2.1 Key features for building effective mentoring relationships

The analysis of the interviews elicited some key features which lie in the central part in building an effective mentoring relationship. The first comes the feeling of **trust** together with the perception of being understood and respected. Trust and respect are a conjoint element in informal mentoring relationships and that's why teachers believed that building trust-based relationships is crucial.

One junior teacher highlighted: "*The most important in this kind of relationship is to leave up the trust of your mentee and make a solid contribution to the further progress of success of your mentee*" (*Junior teacher 7*) whereas the other commented that: "*When you can speak to the mentor, share your ideas. When you have the same thoughts, ideas, when you are heard and understood*" (*Junior teacher 13*).

Clearly, the notion of trust has to be unique to each individual. Therefore, mentees perceive the acts of trust differently. For the junior teacher quoted above the feeling of trust is referred to the ability to speak freely and share her ideas to her mentor without a feeling of fear.

As building trust between the parties of mentoring relationship comprises aligning of a close relationship between two people who can be, in a point of fact, unfamiliar to each other, the establishment of trust can be especially challenging.

Together with the feeling of trust an effective mentoring relationship evokes **mutuality or reciprocation** between the individuals, thus, strengthening social development and forming a social connection. By developing mentoring on equal degrees "*on the bases*

of collegiality and respectfulness" (*Junior teacher 15*), the common interests between mentor and mentee are firmed "*for further fruitful relationships*" (*Junior teacher 15*).

In Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) this mutuality or reciprocity invokes to giving and receiving of 'rewards' or as quoted above 'fruitfulness' within any kind of relationship.

Gradually, trust is built when mentoring is ***a partnership relationship*** as noted by one of the interviewees:

> "If it [mentoring] is based on a partnership with mutual trust and same goals where not only one, but both parties are active. So keeping a partner relationship and being active improves career success" (*Junior teacher 4*).

Apart from being a partnership relationship based on mutual respect and mutual understanding mentoring develops as ***a reciprocal exchange of knowledge and experience***:

> "We [mentors and mentees] learn from each other. It is definitely. Young generation is very quick in learning some new things, so we try to be like them, not miss any advancement in education" (*Senior teacher 7*).

For both a mentee teacher and a mentor teacher this relationship should be ***voluntarily*** and with ***freedom*** entered into, with mentor's pure ***willingness*** to support and help and mentee's ***motivation*** to gain the necessary professional skills and competencies and increase confidence to overcome challenges in the new working place. Interestingly, voluntariness and freedom come from the interviews with the junior staff members. One of them noted that:

> "It [mentoring relationship] is something voluntary when you have a person who really wants to help you and you are eager to follow his instructions yourself" (*Junior teacher 3*).

Here, mentor's willingness plays a key factor for further successful outcomes of this relationship. As was highlighted by the senior teacher,

> "If you don't want to be a mentor, then some day or other this may negatively impact on the relationship. So it is important that a mentor feels responsibility and pure strive to help his younger colleague" (*Senior teacher 7*).

"*Through responsible and democratic relationships*" (*Senior teacher 4*) the involved parties of the mentoring mechanism can lead their relationships to have successful and impactful outcomes for further professional development and growth.

During the group interview with young beginners from two departments (Department of English Language and Teaching Methods and Department of Foreign Languages) one of the interviewees particularly emphasized on the matter of having *freedom* in mentoring relationships:

> "If you are younger teacher, meaning less teaching experience, you should also have the freedom of trying out new things. So, the mentor should not prevent you from trying out of new things" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

The thought-provoking fact is that one the participants of the research relates the notion of freedom to the ***feeling of safe***. She uses this notion as "*safe in terms of teaching, in terms of addressing to the person, in terms of being honest with a person, with the struggles that you are having so that you're not complaining, but the person will be adequately understand you what do you mean*" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

From the lens of our theoretical framework (developed in the *Research design and Methodological part*) mentoring enhances the establishment of the social capital:

> "Mentoring is not just the exchange of social or professional experience, but it is also an exchange of social capital. Our mentors helped us to find our teaching styles, to stand firmly in our professional path" (*Senior teacher 6*).

Thus, with the time changes the form of mentoring is changing as well. Mentoring is "*a very important constituent part of a collaborative work in different spheres in HEIs*" (*Senior teacher 3*) because "*only through collective or team one can reach achievements, only through team one should develop himself, be it from the professional point or be it from personal development*" (*Senior teacher 2*).

From the integrated theoretical framework of Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) and constructivism (Matthews, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978), relationships can be regarded as a major source of learning. Teachers gain much of their learning through connection, in this context through collaborations with other colleagues, with young beginners being as active contributors in the mentorship.

Putting it all together, mentoring, in the context of faculty mentoring at the focused department, is about building a partnership based on mutual respect and trust, friendship and support within which help and guidance, advice and assistance, leading and encouraging could be offered as part of the transition period of a young inexperienced teacher.

RQ 3: What are the challenges and risks in mentoring relationships?

RQ 3.1 What challenges do young academics face during their early career period?

The analysis of the interview analysis allowed the researcher to divide the challenges faced by the beginning academics into the following three general groups (*Figure 14*):

1) Challenges in organization and administration;
2) Challenges in teaching (includes the acceptance of the role of a new university teacher, impact of new educational reforms in Kazakhstan, impacts of new working environment);
3) Challenges in research.

Overall, as interviews with newly appointed faculty members show, in practice when young university teachers are provided with appropriate support and assistance, teachers turnover rates and 'shocking by entering the profession' decrease (T. M. Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). As the research of Knight and Trowler (2000) demonstrates, in Kazakhstan the situation turned out to be the same: due to the lack of time and huge workloads academicians do not have extra time to collaborate to engage in joint research projects or to form and develop networks of teachers (Fulton et al., 2005).

Figure 14. The main challenges faced by young university teachers in Sh. Ualikhanov, Koshetau State University, Kazakhstan

TEACHING
- ⇒ Usefulness of tacit knowledge on the job (peer-observation, peer-feedback, conversations with colleagues, etc.)
- ⇒ A new role: from student to teacher
- ⇒ Affects of new educational reforms
- ⇒ Lack of time
- ⇒ Lack of motivation
- ⇒ Overwhelming workloads
- ⇒ Lack of teaching skills (writing lesson plans, classroom teaching skills) and practice
- ⇒ Lack of mentorship

RESEARCH
- ⇒ Lack of academic writing skills and research skills in general
- ⇒ Difficulties in organizing conferences and workshops
- ⇒ Lack of time
- ⇒ Lack of motivation
- ⇒ Lack of mentorship
- ⇒ Isolation

ORGANIZATION
- ⇒ Filling documents
- ⇒ Lack of organizational skills (in terms of creating syllabus, study programs, developing a teacher portfolio)
- ⇒ Isolation (lack of support, lack of peer-evaluation, impact of work environment)

Source: Author

4.3.1 Challenges in organization and administration (A new role - new responsibilities)

The requirements of research and teaching in the higher education requires possession of high professional knowledge and skills, mastering of modern pedagogical methods and techniques as well as acknowledged personal responsibility for the quality of education, development of creative and erudite professionals responsible for well-being of students and society in general. Junior academics entering their academic career, first and foremost, encounter the problems on accepting their new role as a university teacher. First of all, this is seen in transitioning from a student status into a teacher status:

> "When I started to work at the university, just after graduating from my university, so, it was a little bit difficult. Because I was no longer a student, I was a teacher and that was a new rule for me and new responsibilities confused me a little bit. The main difficulty was to adapt to new teacher's role, to assess students and of course to deal with paper work like creating a

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syllabus, checking students' formative and summative works" (*Junior teacher 7*).

Despite the listed obstacles the interviewee is very positive about her induction period. Thinking back to this period she remembered how her colleagues and the friendly atmosphere provided by them helped her to overcome that tension which demonstrates how the working environment and supportive and guiding team members can positively effect on a young specialist.

One of the most mentioned difficulties which the beginning teachers challenged in their new working place were dealing with the documentation, specifically filling administrative documents in the right way and developing subject syllabuses. The syllabuses are prepared according to the language of instruction of the subject. This means that faculty teachers prepare the syllabuses for their taught subjects in three languages: Kazakh, Russian or English. This, in turn, comprises another obstacles dealing with the documentation:

> "Though I have already had one-year experience at school being a teacher at the university, turned out to be a bit different. In terms of documentation and working conditions. Though the first week I was overloaded, I had to process a lot of information in my mind, settling to a new environment" (*Junior teacher 4*).

In the same vein was another participant who stated,

> "when I started working, the first thing I found difficult was dealing with the documentations. Then it was how to create the syllabus, how the portfolio should be developed, what is expected from students" (*Junior teacher 11*).

Among pitfalls in the adaption to the new working place were failures in accurately planning of time, logically developing units and sequential steps of lessons, difficulties in explaining new material to students, working with students:

> "I always struggle with time management in my classes" (*Junior teacher 4*).

> "In the first week I had some difficulties with students. I was a supervisor of some groups and I didn't know what kind of responsibilities I should take, how to meet students, what kind of information I should provide and ask from them" (*Junior teacher 5*).

> "As a new staff member, though you know everything theoretically well, in reality I felt a strong feeling of not having a practical knowledge. This was seen in works like lesson planning, filling the papers, working with students' paper work and many other documents" (*Junior teacher 14*).

Adaptation of a new specialist is a mechanism of a flexible realignment to the changing conditions of the environment, specific culture of the higher education institution as well as purposefully acquiring the norms of collective professional communication, organizational knowledge and keeping the organizational traditions. Lack of peer-evaluation and motivation of each other (of teachers at the faculty) was found as one of the influential factors. However, not all beginners were challenged by this. Thus, for instance, *Junior teacher 7* was lucky enough in her transition period as she graduated and started to work at the same university. This happened to most of the respondents who found to work with their previous professors as their colleagues easy and with less stress whereas those who were quite new in that place felt to be isolated:

> "It seemed to me that everybody in our department worked by their own. Everybody seemed working alone by themselves. But as time passed I got used to the environment" (*Junior teacher 11*).

Here, newly hired worker's motivation plays a crucial and significant role which can positively affect his/her colleagues as well as advantageously impact on the organization, in general. This was highly emphasized by two of the respondents:

> "If you don't ask for help and deal with your difficulties only by yourself, then it depends on your motivation and strength. But if you ask your colleague, he/she will definitely help you, will show, how to work. So, everything is on your hand, it is only up to you" (*Junior teacher 11*).

The context of teaching, mainly social environment, appeared to be essential in the process of teaching adults and teaching students. As it is known, Knowles' third assumption is related with the role of the adult learners' experiences (Knowles et al., 2014). When working with adult students, some junior teachers were not confident in developing lesson plans considering student's interests and experiences. In general, transition period of all respondents seems to pass easily and without less stress due to the positive atmosphere in the workplace, due to their colleagues' support, advice, assistance, guidance and help: 5 out of 15 respondents felt hardships in their early career steps. The rest were positive about their induction period and early career path. It is supposed that this is connected with the reason that those ten junior teachers are the graduates of the same department where they currently work. It was easier for them to cope with the pitfalls since their colleagues were their previous teachers and professors. Still, the challenges mentioned above caused the same stress to all of them.

4.3.2 Challenges in teaching in higher education

The interviewees emphasized the usage and significance of the *tacit knowledge* for the enhancement of their professional knowledge and teaching practice. Daily conversations with peer colleagues, personal wisdoms from senior colleagues, learning by being told and learning by observation in the new organizations seems to facilitate newcomer's transition period to be fruitful and effective:

> "…my mentor always shares his rich experiences, shows how to do and how to work, I find this more impactful and practical. I think this kind of knowledge cannot be found in books or in any other theoretical publications" (*Junior teacher 9*).

Junior academics acknowledge the fact that even though you graduate with well-established theoretical base, in practice that base seems to be like the emerged part of an iceberg and the rest tremendous part of it elaborated through the tacit knowledge, through observing other teachers, receiving peer feedback, cultivating collegial relationships, and participating in lifelong learning experiences (Stronge, 2002).

As Susanne Garvis (2012) noted in her article, for a young new teacher educator, it is very hard to start working since "no one gives you a manual on what to do. You teach in isolation" (p.298) and it is often "filled with tension" (p.300). To avoid isolation, the respondents indicated on the importance of having a formal mentor:

> "The first difficulty was absence of mentor and teaching different subjects in different courses" (*Junior teacher 12*).

> "When I started working, of course, I faced some challenges. For a teacher who has just graduated, who has no experience, I think, it is important to appoint a mentor who will support, guide to a new direction and raise his mentee's confidence and self-esteem. So, it is important to have a person beside you to adapt to a new working place" (*Junior teacher 10*).

Almost all of the junior teachers of the individual and group interviews found preparing the syllabus and development of the courses difficult and challenging: "*There was a lot of information about curriculum and syllabus, and the current assignments. And that I was left with a pack of paper that I need to check. So, this was challenging*" (*Group interview with junior teachers*). Still, senior teachers from all six departments helped their young beginning colleagues with pleasure in forming the syllabus, its structure and contents: "*They [senior colleagues] taught me how to plan individual curriculum, advised how to make lesson plans and syllabus*" (*Junior teacher 4*).

As it was previously depicted, the young generation of teachers (Z generation) counted their senior colleagues as their mentors. This naturally occurring mentoring has no structure and, accordingly, they didn't schedule a meeting. Mostly, 'mentorship' occurred during informal conversations, during the breaks. One of the junior teachers of the group interview, looking back to her induction period, commented with a humorous undertone, when asked how the department supported the young staff overall: "*very informally through just conversations and trying to like pat on the back and say "You will do it*" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

When it came to teaching itself, as one junior teacher highlighted:

> "I was significantly supported while preparing the syllabus and the teaching materials. But then in the teaching itself I was pretty much left alone" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

4.3.3 Challenges in research in higher education

Research is one of the fundamental functions of higher education institutions. Publication and innovational performances of pedagogical staff, their involvement in the research, actively or passively, come out as a kind of indicator, hence, characterizing the actual position of the university and its staff in general.

Therefore, for the newly appointed academician, who has already many difficulties in teaching practice and administrative things, the engagement in the research seems to get them in a tangle:

> "Since I worked at the university, research also became one part of your job. Writing research articles, participating in conferences, workshops, organizing workshops for teachers, organizing an open lesson as a young university teacher, these all made some difficulties because of the absence of scientific knowledge and background. However, there are councils for young scientists within the university. Members of it are young university teachers from each department. Above mentioned research projects, the ways of organization of conferences and seminars, how to participate, how to write articles, all is discussed there. Students are also involved to this council, so from this now their scientific knowledge is being developed" (*Junior teacher 11*).

The interview participants explained the system of conducting research in their university. At the beginning of each academic year, new lecturers fill in an individual

plan where he/she plans what is going to be done in terms of research: to publish at least three articles, to participate in different kinds of conferences, workshops and seminars, to organize one workshop or seminar at the faculty for the staff, to be a supervisor, etc. The question of the 'teaching-research nexus' remains under the discussion because the respondents couldn't connect the idea if university teachers' research can inform their teaching or not. In the initial phase of their career newly hired teachers seem to care more about their teaching rather than research and it is not surprising with the limited number of hours in their working day.

Here, again support and assistance of a mentor or of colleagues were of great help:

> "They [mentors] enriched my knowledge on how to conduct the research, how to identify relevant focuses, they also told about possible drawbacks. Of course, in practice all of these kinds of knowledge are more essential than just reading from papers" (*Junior teacher 10*).

Definitely, for a new academic to have all these multiple roles and to find a balance between them are difficult and hard as you are all the time overloaded with these tasks. What is more, the lack of time is found to be crucial at the very early stage of new entrants and not only, it is influencing the whole mentoring process from both parts. One teacher mentioned,

> "A job is new to you and you need to learn, how to do it, there are a lot of things that you do over your job, you need to be really organized. So, the lack of time is the main difficulty" (*Junior teacher 1*).

RQ 3.2 What potential pitfalls may occur between the parties of the mentorship relationships which would hinder its development?

A significant body of literature has demonstrated that mentoring relationships inevitably embraces both positive as well as negative aspects which impact on the quality of the mentoring relationships and on its productivity.

This sub-chapter envisages the question of experiencing negative aspects of mentoring relationships of the junior staff.

4.3.4 Formal vs. Informal types of mentoring

When mentoring pairs are forcedly assigned by the head of the department without mentor's and mentee's consent, it is quite possible that the parties of mentorship may not go well together from the beginning which would further lead to conflicts between them.

One of the main weaknesses of informal mentoring is that it is voluntary-based and the involved parties don't make a report on their progress which sometimes leads to mentor's indifference. Another disadvantage of it, as was commented by our respondent below, is that this function is unpaid and there is no separate time accorded to it:

> "It was difficult for me to make contacts with my mentor, so I wish there would be formal relationships where you can reach your mentor and talk to him, ask things which are not clear for you. Maybe because of the unpaid functions some people don't want to be disturbed all the time, because you know that you are doing it for free and nobody is controlling you, nobody is asking for making reports about the progress of these relationships. That's why these people [mentors] should be simple in nature and understand that the new staff doesn't know all the nuances of working in the department" (*Junior teacher 15*).

This unpaid and voluntary function of mentors appears to be one again burden to senior teachers who are overwhelmed by carrying out multiple functions. That's why "*mentors should have some financial support because we need to increase mentor's material motivation in order to increase his/her love for profession. Only in this way mentor can be more responsible and will help his/her mentee truly*" (*Junior teacher 14*). Mentor's contribution and devotion should be rewarded in some way.

> "When I started working, to tell the truth, it was only mentioned during department meetings by the heads about mentoring, but in fact there was no any help" (*Junior teacher 15*).

In comparison, formal mentoring is time-bond, well-structured and organized. For this reason conflicts may arise regarding simply in making schedules for mentoring relationships. Thus, formal mentoring is not a kind of solution for faculty improvement if the pairs are not harmoniously established from its start. Rather than providing advice and giving constructive feedback, sometimes mentors became controlling and in doing so mentors feed fear in their mentees which brings up to an issue of *hierarchical attitude* of mentors:

"Sometimes it [mentoring] is very much connected to fear of being checked, so you are the mentee and you assume that your mentor is there to check if you are doing well or doing wrong. So, this fear does not add to the quality of teaching. It really reduces the quality of teaching" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

Whereas informal mentoring with the element of flexibility is convenient for mentors and for mentees it can be used as a self-driven learning in which they can fill their knowledge gaps. In informal mentoring it is difficult to measure and monitor its outcomes. One of the participants of the group interview intended to express her ideas concerning the implementation of mentoring as a support mechanism for newly hired:

"I would request a more systematic approach to mentoring but necessarily keeping it informal. So, the relationships between mentor and mentee should not be formal because there is always that element of fear to complain or also hierarchy what will people say or so on. So, it must be informal but it must be more systematic. And I think it could be extended to the teaching groups and also that would include not only the professional support but the emotional support too because teaching is hard" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

Bearing this teacher's recommendation in mind it was concluded that the best appropriate version to implement mentoring program in the departments is to combine formal and informal mentoring forms which will make a beneficial model for a faculty development program.

4.3.5 Mismatch of pairs

Often, pairs in mentoring are matched blindly.

Upon conducting this research, it was found out that the age differences causes a great effect on further development of the relationship. It is important that when matching mentor and mentee their age differences and common interests should be taken into account:

"Being in mentorship was so challenging for me, though at the beginning I felt a bit uncomfortable before my mentor because she was an old person with a lot of experience and I felt like a student before her" (*Junior teacher 4*).

Interestingly, some mentee teachers seemed to be too self-confident that they waved aside their mentor's advice and guidance:

> "In some cases young specialists need obedience and listening to what seniors say and advice" (*Senior teacher 3*).

Or:

> "Even if a young specialist is very knowledgeable, during classes some mistakes can occur. If you tell them about those mistakes, they can say "Yes, I know about that" (*Senior teacher 2*).

All these cases indicate to the fact that the fruitful relationships reckons upon heavily on motivation of both parties of this relationship. Rather than implementing traditional formal elements for supporting new members, it is more advisable to pair bearing in mind mainly the experience and knowledge of the mentor:

> "I think it is not necessarily needs to be done according to the age that the older person is mentoring the younger person but it can be more or less similar ages, but the years of experience, so the years of teaching. So, I would prefer to have a mentor more or less of my age but with more years of experience in teaching, then not to have a person who is just too high on the hierarchy to prevent that formality of mentoring" (*Group interview with junior teachers*).

4.3.6 Mentor's reluctance to be involved

There is no doubt that mentoring is time intensive and time consuming. That's why willingness of mentor plays a great role in this relationship. The mentee teacher below failed to make contacts with her mentor and at last she gave up making efforts to reach her mentor:

> "In most cases I asked questions which I was interested in. But, unfortunately, he said that he was busy and didn't have time to work with me. We didn't work together" (*Junior teacher 14*).

Again, it shows that motivation and willingness to work together should come from both the mentor and the mentee.

Before starting this cooperative work in the educational organizations it is necessary, first of all, to identify the roles expected from mentors as well as from mentees. Upon doing this research, the authors determined to form a list of these roles based on the negative aspects of experienced mentoring relationships of university teachers.

Thus, for instance, the roles of mentors should include:

- Providing a proper support and guidance to the newcomer which includes informal feedback and criticism,

- Identifying the newcomer's needs and providing with specific suggestions and advice for its improvement,

- Sharing their own experience so that a new teacher can see how to solve the real problems and issues,

- Providing advice and guidance on how to balance multiple responsibilities (teaching, research and service),

- Providing personal support,

- Humility, devotion and willingness to help and assist mentee.

For mentees these roles should include:

- Humility, devotion and willingness to self- improvement,

- Listening to what the mentor says and advises, and trying to apply them in practice,

- Being open to feedback and criticism and strive to improve towards better results,

- Not to be afraid to share problems and pitfalls to find the right solutions,

- Initiating meetings with the mentor,

- Asking for help and advice if mentee doesn't see the solution,

- Willingness to share and to discuss any ideas and problems together with the mentor.

In such way, combined mentoring relationships, with the elements of formal and informal mentoring, can create a healthy, fruitful and flexible relationship for all involved.

RQ 3.3 How does the context impact on the development of mentoring relationships?

Mentoring is a relationship and all personal relationships are shaped by the environment in which these relationships are established.

"Teachers' actions represent active and creative responses to the constraints, opportunities, and dilemmas posed by the immediate contexts of the classroom and the school [in our case: the university], and it is through these immediate contexts that the wider structure of the community, society, and the state has their impact on teachers" (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p.21). That's why it was important for us to examine how the context influences on the development of mentoring relationships. To do this, an analysis was done based on Pollard's (1982) model of three levels of social contextualization.

4.3.7 Interactive level

In this first level of social analysis the influences of the teaching environment were explored. From the theoretical framework of our research (Blau's Social Exchange Theory and constructivism), learning is occurred through human interaction and conversation. The junior teachers of this research tried to address to their new colleagues by regarding them as their mentors, thus, it induced them to form social associations.

4.3.8 Institutional level

This level refers to socializing influences within the educational organization, in particular the influence of the new colleagues.

Almost all of the new entrants (except a couple of negative cases stated above) could easily adapt to the new work atmosphere because of the positive influence of their new colleagues. The new colleagues seem to be open and very helpful in any occurred professional issues and problems.

Mentoring is a reciprocal relationship and once established, reciprocal rewards help the parties involved to support this connection and expand it. As was identified, Blau (1964) differentiated two types of rewards: intrinsic and extrinsic.

Mentors were rewarded intrinsically by getting respect and trust from their mentees whereas they were not extrinsically rewarded from the departments because the

mentoring service wasn't paid and there is neither time-frame offered for it. This led to the unwillingness and indifference from mentor's sides because they have been already carrying out multiple responsibilities in their departments (as seen from the research) and unpaid mentoring relationships were regarded as one more extra work.

Although the heads and the dean of the faculty under the focus kept saying that they keep the tradition of mentoring as a support mechanism for junior members, in practice it looked the other way round. Even if the junior faculty members were assigned informal mentors, it was either mentioned only during faculty meetings or it was not for newcomers to reach their informal mentors because of the lack of control over their relationship because as was previously described mentoring in the departments wasn't monitored and supervised.

The other fact which influenced the relationship on the institutional level is the material conditions in the departments. Simply, the lack of printers for printing teaching materials and aids for students and personal computers for using during the work time made a negative influence on newcomers. There is still lack of book provisions in the departments.

4.3.9 Cultural level

The institutional and organizational culture level is considered from two lenses: from the personal perspective and from the community at large. The idea of this level is to explain how the newcomers establish the control they do over their education. At this point, shyness and diffidence of a newcomer acts as one cultural influence in socialization into teaching because of the shyness the newcomers didn't feel enough confident to ask for help. Since the last generation of teachers (Z generation) do not experience formal form of mentoring, to most of them the cultural context prevented them for the initiation of the mentoring relationships.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this research was to explore how mentoring works in Kazakhstani higher education institution, what current problem issues are, and, thus, make a contribution to the growing research-based literature on this issue. This research provided insights into the issues and challenges of informal mentoring at Kazakhstani university.

In this chapter of the dissertation, the author strives to present the interpretation of the findings in the light related to the research questions and in relation to the literature review concerning faculty mentoring in the academic setting.

5.1 Discussion of the findings related to the research questions

In examining the first research question of the present study it was endeavored to investigate *how informal faculty mentoring works in Kazakhstani higher education institution*.

To begin with, teacher plays a key role in education. Promotion of teacher's status in the society is one of the priorities of current educational policy in Kazakhstan. In order to increase the number of the academic staff, the State program for Education Development plans a 20% increase by 2020 of the annual who have passed training and retraining (EU, 2017).

To enhance teachers' professional development primary centers are established: National Center for Professional Development (ORLEU center), centers for professional development within pedagogical higher education institutions, Faculty of Education at Nazarbayev University and "Center of Excellence" at Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools. During 2012-2015 3,900 teachers from 38 higher education institutions could participate in professional development activities, including trainings abroad (EU, 2017).

Kazakhstan joined the Bologna process in 2010. Despite strives and changes made in education, the country still faces major challenges in the implementation of the principles of the Bologna process. Primarily, these challenges concern in developing a coherent national qualifications framework (NQF) and granting full autonomy to

institutions. Moreover, there are some points of divergence between the standards and the current situation in the country which include levels of academic integrity and freedom, the exceedance of teacher-centered learning, teaching and assessment practices, the qualifications of teaching staff and the ongoing monitoring and review of the programs.

Together with the reforms and innovations in education the system of mentoring has also fallen under the changes. Thus, when digging the question of the development of mentoring at university in focus, it was revealed three different forms of mentoring depending on the experiences of teachers: *formal mentoring, informal mentoring and naturally occurring mentoring*.

It is essential for a beginning teacher to have at least one person who is "expert-who-has-the-answers" (Portner, 2008, p.8) and he/she is supported and assisted in any questions he/she may have. Today, in six departments of Sh.Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University mentoring is not implemented on the systematic level yet, though only particular independent endeavors were identified to use this mechanism as a support and growth tool for beginning teachers through personal interactions and relationship building.

Notwithstanding the fact that mentoring is not formally implemented in the departments, several types of informal mentoring were identified during the data analysis: *group mentoring, reverse mentoring, research mentoring and informal mentoring* which demonstrates teachers' motivation to cooperate in order to increase peer-to-peer interactions, foster knowledge-sharing, boost self-confidence and heighten group interactions. More than that, the engagement in mentoring relationships for teachers was to set up a more professional organizational culture which was one of the strategic goals of the departments to reach through collaborative work.

The actual value of mentoring is in providing with an opportunity for a mentee to watch and observe how a mentor works and how his/ her mentor solves timely permanent problems in so called real time conditions. That's why for beginning teachers professionalism comes through observing their senior colleagues, receiving feedback from their peers, cultivating collegial relationships, and participation in lifelong experiences.

On the assumption of definitions on the contents and specifics of mentoring designated by different authors, their points of views can be systematized as follows. Firstly, mentoring is deliberated as a pedagogical phenomenon, as a means for developing an individual from various aspects, as a vehicle for career development. Secondly, mentoring is regarded as a social institution which performs and accomplishes the process of transferring and acceleration of social experience. It is a form of generation continuity which provides outputs of moral qualities of new group shift. Lastly, the importance of mentoring is seen in professional and technical preparedness of young generation, it is considered as a means for reproducing the working class. Broadly speaking, mentoring is a long-term phased, purposeful process of a young worker's achievement and development of his personhood, his professional as well as personal horizons, spiritual values -all these contribute positively to his professional socialization, strengthening of his motivation to the chosen professional area and professional growth.

I've made an attempt to identify what *professional responsibilities and competencies a mentor* should possess for effective and productive mentoring relationships which comprised the second research question of this study.

Although it was difficult to specify what roles and competencies should a mentor entail due to informal, particularly, naturally occurring mentoring in all departments, the researcher made an attempt to define them. The mentor attributes derived from the interviews were further developed into three core development competencies: professional, career and psychosocial.

These dimensional qualities for a good mentor derived from the research participants serve as mentor typology for ensuring effective mentoring relationships because as Plamondon (2007) states successful mentoring relationships set up a claim of a balance of skills, attributes and qualities of a mentor. This typology is a list of mentor characteristics which are either critical or desirable for a mentor to take possession of in order to be in a fruitful relationship with a positive impact on a mentee.

Mostly, beginning teachers elaborated more on psychosocial competencies and responsibilities from their assigned mentors together with mentor's communicational and organizational skills, honesty and open-mindedness. Interestingly, early career teachers wanted their mentors not to regard them as just younger versions of

themselves. It was evidenced in those interviews where new teachers, narrating on the challenges of their transition period, mentioned how senior teachers faulted them for hanging their heads easily while in the time of senior teachers they were more motivated and more studious. In worse cases this led to isolation of new teachers.

The findings of the research identified some conditions and key factors for building effective mentoring relationships which included the feeling of *trust* together with the perception of being understood and respected, *mutuality* and *reciprocation* between the involved parties. Mentoring, first of all, should be regarded as a *partnership* where a reciprocal exchange of knowledge and experience takes place.

One of the core features for building a solid partnership is to enter this relationship with senior teachers' pure *willingness* to guide and assist, help and support, and young beginning teacher's *motivation* to gain the necessary professional skills and competencies and increase confidence to overcome challenges in a new working place. These important features were fundamental to the quality of mentoring relationships.

The third research question was about to explore if there occur any *pitfalls and challenges that would hinder the development of mentoring*.

Before analyzing the challenges in mentoring relationships, first of all, it was intended to investigate the challenges of the beginning teachers in their induction period and in doing so to examine for the necessity of implementing mentoring as a support mechanism in the given departments.

 In the course of the current research it was found that most of the beginning teachers experience particular difficulties in their early career in doing one or another aspect or component in field of teaching, research and service. Having analyzed all activities in the decreasing order of difficulties and hardships, it was noticed that the utmost challenges occur in working as an advisor (a curator as called at the university) for a group of students. Young teachers who carry out this function encounter into difficulties connected mainly with a lack of knowledge to execute an advisor's duties and responsibilities. Accordingly, it is problematic for beginners to define goals, tasks and contents of this function. Working as an advisor reduces itself not unfrequently into taking control and monitoring students' progresses in their studies and it is challenging for new teachers to engage students in organization and holding out-of-university events or activities.

Further, the challenges go concerning with the organization and teaching of lessons. In particular, junior teachers feel lack of monitoring and disciplinary skills. As the findings indicate beginning teachers make focus on the content and presentation of a particular material, fulfilment of the planned activities, on themselves, on their behavior or speech, but not on students, on their progress, not on the effects or outcomes of what he or she does. Therefore, it is hard for beginners to lead a lesson and simultaneously make a managerial analysis of lesson. It is also problematic to determine the appropriate methods and approaches for the classes, and make modifications in the content of the presented material. Besides, as the senior teachers mentioned, irreflective and random changes can have a significant impact on general focus and productivity of the lesson. That's why experienced teachers highly recommend following the plan from a start.

The data with the junior teachers instantiates, directly or indirectly, that the involvement of juniors in mentoring relationships supported their *ongoing professional development*. Three forms of self-directed professional development were singled out in mentoring relationships for upgrading young teacher's skills: *learning by observing, learning by doing* and *learning by asking* (see *Section 4.1.1*) through professional learning sessions, collaborative practice, knowledge creation and research.

There was also recognition that peer and class observations are indeed deemed to be an exchange of knowledge and experiences and, thus, one of the important types of methodological and collegial work which enhance any young teacher's level of methodological preparation. This method of professional development was established in all six departments to support faculty members' roles including fostering their teaching practice and improving their professional content knowledge. In its turn, mentor teachers benefited observing young teachers' teaching and they advanced their own critical self-reflection on teaching practices by providing feedback and suggestions for improvement. Additionally, collaboration with beginning teachers was a new source for new practices for senior teachers like in reverse mentoring where young teachers assisted them in making video-lectures.

From this perspective it can be stated that mentoring as an imperative part of professional development strategy is a core factor for faculty improvement since it has an influential impact on the effectiveness of teaching and learning as well as on forming a supportive working environment. Although there was no well-defined link found

between professional development and mentoring, early career teachers did indeed acknowledge the activities undertaken together with their informal mentor teachers as part of their professional development.

In conjunction with exploring how faculty mentoring supported university teachers' practice and professional development in the induction period, the results of the study also indicate to the fact that there is a need to consider the quality of informal mentoring relationship and major factors that determine this quality.

These factors are mainly referred to the challenges and obstacles appeared during the informal mentoring experiences of junior faculty members.

The concept and process of matching the parties based on voluntarity in mentoring partnership was found as a crucial fact which impacts the quality of this relationship. Since there is no structure and organization in informal mentoring mentor teachers were predominantly assigned by the heads of the departments at the beginning of the academic year and during the year there was no control or supervision over the matched pairs.

Most of the barriers with mentors come from beginning teachers who are employed from outside. This means that in most cases the departments hire their own graduates and it was easier for new teachers to graduate and start to work with those people who were their own professors and lecturers. Even if the heads of the departments officially do not assign mentors to them, they could easily reach their senior colleagues and ask for help in solving the challenges they face.

One of the negative aspects happening in mentoring relationships was found to be the *mismatch* of the involved parties. This was especially true when it came about matching the old experienced one with the new entrant. The heads of the departments are in the wrong belief if they assign an old mentor and hope for effective and productive outcomes from this relationship. This was also reflected in the literature when Faurer, Sutton and Worster (2014) reported to pay attention to the knowledge of institution resources and organizational context together with interpersonal attributes instead of regarding the length of experience and mentors' academic rank when selecting mentors.

One of the other incompatible attributes in selecting mentors with those of the new comers is in the lack of interpersonal skills of mentor teachers. The interview with one

beginning teacher indicates to *mentor's interpersonal incompetency* when the mentor avoided working with the appointed informal mentee under the pretext of having no time.

This *interpersonal incompetency* also come out from the side of mentee teachers in failing to accept mentor teachers' critical feedback given to their teaching practice.

Since it was not possible to examine mentor's compatibility with mentees in-depth, future research may have a dig on both mentors' and mentee teachers' attitudes and beliefs rather than just relying on a couple of young teachers' perception.

One a separate note the question should be thoroughly addressed on which *type of mentoring* is more beneficial and practical in the university setting because as the findings show both informal and formal mentoring have its own disadvantages together with advantages. In the former case the mentee teachers lacked more support and guidance from their mentors since there was no control and structure over their work whereas in the latter case there seemed to be fear of control and hierarchy from mentor's side which hindered the further development of their relationships. That's why it was important "*not to have a person who is just too high on the hierarchy to prevent that formality of mentoring*" (*Group interview with mentee teachers*).

Willingness and motivation from both mentor and mentee were found to be crucial in facilitating mentorship.

Lastly, *insufficient and poor support* of time and tools (like technology) for mentoring from the side of the heads and leaders of the faculties and departments had a huge impact on the development of mentoring as a mechanism of supporting young teachers in the departments.

The interviews with the leaders push us to conclude that predominantly employers do not conceive what should be done in order to implement mentoring as a system in their organizations. Although this constitutes the whole complex of arrangements, including not only the selection of mentors, but also mentors' motivation with the adequate tools (settings, ICT and financial support, time), evaluation of the effectiveness of their work, and trainings and facilitation to develop mentors' competencies in the field of accomplishing this mission. If employers are ready to support the implementation of mentoring mechanism in their departments, then it is necessary to be involved in all

steps of implementation of mentoring at earliest stages since mentoring is like a career technology. It will be effective only if supported from HE organization's and its leaders.

Apart from that, the data analysis opened the floodgates to formulate a conspicuous pack of precise requirements on how mentoring should be organized at the university. Particularly, in order to obtain good results a mentor should daily cooperate and collaborate with his/her mentee.

Without prejudice to the above, the analysis of the interviews with the junior teachers shows in what particular direction it should be worked intensively: young specialists conceive that mentors can influence on them in stabilizing in the chosen profession. Consequently, it is necessary to train mentors to be oriented in that position effectively as well.

5.2 Discussion of the findings in relation to the literature

In relation to the literature this current research has pinpointed that the results are mainly reflective of the literature studies regarding teacher-to-teacher mentoring in the context of the higher education. At the same time the results also indicate that this research made a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on this topic.

To start with, it was congruent with the literature that it is important to address the professional socialization of beginning teachers. The findings of the present research demonstrates that the questions of what a new entrant of the department need to know and how they learn it are neglected, also as was investigated in Dinkelman, Margolis and Sikkenga (2006). Barely right after their graduation new teachers face struggles in teaching, research and servis responsibilities. That's why it is particularly challenging and stressful (Boyd et al., 2011; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer et al., 2002).

The university in focus is a mostly pedagogical-oriented university which means that most emphasize is made on teaching. By contrast to the literature where the researchers find that new teachers are prompted to make stress on publications, as for example in Carmel and Paul (2015) or in Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999), the analysis of the interviews with junior staff members shows that teaching prevails over research. But there are support initiatives in the departments such as research councils for young beginning teachers where they get proper help and assistance in writing publications.

Apart from that, writing articles with senior colleagues in co-authorship was another support and help for newcomers.

The challenges in the induction period which was demonstrated in *Figure 14* fall in with those challenges which were examined by Izadinia (2014), specifically real-world challenges and emotional tensions reviewed in the literature part of the research. Additionally, the feeling of isolation is derived mainly because of the overwhelming workload of both mentors and mentees which is one of the most mentioned problems of early career teachers in the literature in the field of higher education institutions (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Cawyer et al., 2002; Martinez, 2008). Clearly, the findings refer that the beginning teachers needed support programmes such as mentoring in their induction period.

Unlike traditional forms of learning where, at first instance, knowledge is delivered and achieved or trainings in which skills and competencies are formed or developed, mentoring is a unique mechanism for new members in transferring of accumulated wisdom and experience of senior staff members in the organization as well as values and ethics of the organizational culture.

The literature on faculty mentoring extensively made an attempt in identifying mentor roles and characteristics. This typology included a mentor to be a guide, advisor, protector, assistant, helper, supporter, a means for professional networking, counseling and many others. From the interviews with beginning teachers it was pinpointed two sides of the roles of mentors at their departments: first, professional development which is seen in transferring knowledge, skills and competencies, encourage in acquisition of new experience, development of one's motivation, and second, sociocultural induction which is seen in feeding with organizational culture, its values, norms and rules. These findings beg to acknowledge those findings examined during the literature review for this research (see for example Faurer, Sutton, & Worster, 2014; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991).

Since mentoring as a support mechanism is not implemented in all six departments, formally or informally, it was extremely difficult to specify commonly educed benefits for both mentor teachers and mentee teachers. But, still, conversations with senior and junior faculty members allowed to indicate the benefits gained during naturally occurred mentoring, group mentoring, research and reverse mentoring. Most basically, these

benefits were similar to those found in literature: boosted self-esteem, upgrading teaching skills, increased job satisfaction, productivity and improvements in teaching and research as well as in professional competency (Beane-Katner, 2014; Boice, 1992; Huling & Resta, 2001; Johnson, 2007; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Zeind et al., 2005).

The analysis of the literature and in practice (in this research) on developing effective mentoring relationships concurred concerning its foundational principles: constructive professional interrelationship between mentor teacher and mentee teacher, the selection of a mentor should be made with the perspective of appropriateness of teachers in line with the principle of voluntariness. Additionally, mentors should possess high level of empathetic understanding as well as keeping professional tact in the relationship with beginning teachers.

The analysis of the data collected from the research participants acknowledges the fact from the research-based literature that if there are no formal mentoring programs at universities, the system of mentoring can be especially problematic (Carmel & Paul, 2015). This was seen in experiencing obstacles to mentoring as examined in the third research question above. The current research is line up with the literature investigated and reviewed that mentoring, be it formal or informal, should be aligned to the department's strategic goals for faculty development.

CONCLUSION

Nowadays teaching is becoming exciting, rewarding, and uplifting (Parkay, 2013). Teacher roles involve interpreting, but not mere translation of information; communicating, not mere informing; moderating; facilitating – actively assisting in terms of self-education; tutoring – consulting; managing; initiating educational actions, generating ideas, and coordinating common efforts. But it is also very challenging, especially for beginner teachers.

The strategy of training future teachers in the conditions of formal, non-formal and informal education is directed on: getting a high quality in education which gives an opportunity to create professional competences necessary for practical activities of a teacher, acquisition of strong skills which increase graduates' competitiveness and promote the development of their professional career (Hendrix, Luyten, Scheerens, Sleegers, & Steen, 2010; Richter et al., 2011). Moreover, one of the central aims evolving with the implementation of new state educational reforms in Kazakhstan is to advance the level of the personnel capacity and professionalism of employees working in higher education. However, the present system of preparation of pedagogical staff education programmes and technology of training academics for working in higher education institutions do not enable beginner teachers to cope with the tasks, as noted in OECD document: "The lack of national standards for teachers - an important element of professionalisation -presents an obstacle to high and consistent quality in initial and continuous teacher education in Kazakhstan" (OECD, 2017, p.98).

Professional socialization of newly hired specialists is indispensable. Besides the professional knowledge, they need to get accustomed to a new social circle, to organization's traditions and fully developed norms as well as to the new forms of educational management. Though all participants of the survey experienced elements of informal faculty mentoring, they highlighted that it is crucial to implement faculty mentoring programmes since it is a good opportunity for a young academic to learn and discover together with a mentor all the necessary components of the professional activity, mainly its purpose, subject, approaches and techniques, results and outcomes, conditions in the field of this profession.

An integrated theoretical framework based on Blau's Social Exchange Theory and constructivism helped the researcher to frame the concept and process of mentoring as a

system and generate its meaning in applying mentoring as a means for professional socialization and growth of a new teacher in the higher education context. Through the lens of this integrated framework it was possible to conclude about the nature of mentoring at the university in focus: the social exchange explained by Blau (1964) was irreciprocal as senior teachers only desired to guide and help the beginning teachers without expecting anything from them in return. However, as the results indicate, both senior and junior teachers did benefit from mentoring by co-constructing knowledge and skills, thus, learning and developing personally and professionally. In doing so mentoring found to foster beginning teachers' critical thinking and motivated them to enrich their professional experiences and skills linked to prior knowledge.

Even though the research participants experienced naturally occurring mentoring, the findings evidenced that mentoring is existing among Kazakhstani university teachers in the form of providing help and assistance, advice and support, reflection, attending in class observations, personal care and encouragement and in doing so it contributes to form and develop a culture of teacher professional development.

As a researcher, I truly believe that the findings of this study will provide valuable and relevant insights towards a better understanding of informal mentoring in the Kazakhstani context. The significance of mentoring shouldn't be underestimated because as one of the junior staff teachers highlighted, "*To be mentored means you can just be successful and satisfied with your job*" (*Junior teacher 2*).

Potential implications for the Kazakhstani context

In the light of the conclusions reached in this current research, several key implications of the research for university teachers and administration specifically in the university realm were determined but also it can be implemented to other related fields of education. But generally acknowledged, "*It is the reader, not the researcher, who determines what can apply to his or her context*" (Merriam, 2009, p.51).

One implication of the present research is that university teachers may need to learn the nuances of being a mentor as well as to mentor. The interview analysis confirms the assumptions in Daloz's (1986) mentoring model: the more a new teacher gets support and assistance, the more he/she enhances successfully his/her professional growth.

Junior teachers of the research needed to be guided and assisted by their peers and senior colleagues. Emotional support was also found to be of great importance in the induction period.

Based on the analysis of the conducted data, a mentoring model was developed for this particular context (*Figure 12* and *Figure 13*) which presents key features for implementing mentoring as a support mechanism for new young academics which includes the relative strengths formal and informal mentoring.

Recommendations for future research

It is only through research that the essential parts and components of the needs can be disclosed, discovered and developed. Based on the findings of this investigation, some key recommendations were formulated.

Since the question regarding faculty mentoring is an emerging topic in the field of higher education in Kazakhstan, this topic needs to be theoretically qualified. Currently, the research on informal mentoring practices in Kazakhstan is relatively unknown. Additionally, due to a female dominated sample the gender difference wasn't taken into account. It would be imperative to explore mentoring in relation to this issue in the future.

Overall, the current research indicates within its limits that there is a need to revise, reexamine and explore the context of the Kazakhstani higher education institutions to implement and practice of mentoring as a support mechanism for newly hired members.

Some of the implications of the research directly verify research-based literature on how to support newly hired specialists in the higher education. As the results of this research indicate, departments need to implement a mentoring programme which will be a combination of formal and informal mentoring forms. Since the outcomes from informal mentoring were not structured and organized as well as were not monitored and evaluated, it is necessary to conduct systematic evaluation of mentoring system to ascertain the constructive effectiveness of mentoring relationships and experiences of university teachers and to achieve professional development goals.

The involved parties in mentoring should establish a partnership that fosters teacher's practice and enhances teacher's professional knowledge and experience. The heads of the departments need to monitor and evaluate over this kind of relationships, otherwise as findings indicate obstacles may happen which prevent the mentoring development. It is important that such negative mentoring experiences are managed effectively. Failing that can lead to a potential risk of teachers' resisting to facilitate the mentoring relationship in the future.

In establishing mentoring as a core teacher support tool, it is important for the departments to make a shift from its traditional dyad model to a more innovative and collaborative model as was demonstrated in the case of group mentoring or reverse mentoring.

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Appendix 1. Demographic information about the research participants

Junior teachers

No.	Interviewee (junior teachers)	Age	Gender	Nationality	Work experience\ year	Department	Language of communication in the interview
1	Mentee1	29	female	Kazakh	1	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
2	Mentee2	26	female	Kazakh	2	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
3	Mentee3	32	female	Kazakh	5	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
4	Mentee4	29	female	Kazakh	3	Department of Foreign Languages	English
5	Mentee5	29	female	Kazakh	2	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	Russian
6	Mentee6	32	female	Kazakh	3	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh
7	Mentee7	26	female	Kazakh	2	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
8	Mentee8	26	female	Kazakh	1	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
9	Mentee9	31	female	Kazakh	5	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh
10	Mentee10	31	female	Kazakh	3	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh
11	Mentee11	28	male	Kazakh	2	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh
12	Mentee12	32	female	Kazakh	2	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	Kazakh
13	Mentee13	27	female	Kazakh	1	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	Kazakh
14	Mentee14	30	female	Kazakh	2	Department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work	Kazakh
15	Mentee15	29	female	Kazakh	2	Department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work	Kazakh

Senior teachers

No.	Interviewee (senior teachers)	Age	Nationali-ty	General work experience	Work experience in the university	Department	Language of communication in the interview
1	Dean of the faculty (at the time of interviewing)	60	Kazakh	37	33	-	Kazakh
2	Head of the department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work	46	Kazakh	20	20	-	Kazakh
3	Head of the Department of Science and International Cooperation	46	Kazakh	25	25	-	Kazakh
4	Mentor1	32	Russian	10	7	Department of English Language and Teaching Methods	English
5	Mentor2	60	Kazakh	40	37	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh
6	Mentor3	52	Kazakh	35	27	Department of Foreign Languages	Russian
7	Mentor4	49	Kazakh	27	24	Department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work	Kazakh
8	Mentor5	51	Kazakh	27	17	Department of Foreign Languages	Kazakh
9	Mentor6	56	Kazakh	36	36	Department of Pedagogy, Psychology, and Social Work	Kazakh
10	Mentor7	51	Kazakh	25	25	Department of Kazakh Philology	Kazakh

Appendix 2. Interview Consent Form

Research title: Mentoring in Higher Education: The Case of Kazakhstan

Research investigator: *Gulsaule Kairat*

PhD Student at ELTE, Faculty of Education and Psychology

Adult Learning and Education programme

Research supervisor: Habil. Associate Professor *Kinga Magdolna Mandel*

Research Participants name: _____

Dear Participant, thank you for agreeing to be interviewed as part of the above research.

In our research we seek to examine the role of faculty mentoring, how mentoring works, what the current problem issues and trends are.

This consent form is necessary for us to ensure that you understand the purpose of your involvement and that you agree to the conditions of your participation.

Participant's rights: Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to discontinue your participation in the interview without any consequences. The alternative is not to participate. You have the right to refuse to answer particular questions.

Any summary interview content, or direct quotations from the interview, that are made available through academic publication or other academic outlets will be anonymized so that you cannot be identified, and care will be taken to ensure that other information in the interview that could identify yourself is not revealed.

All information will be treated with the strictest confidentiality.

A. General data

Name: _____

Nationality: _____

Age: _____

Gender: M ☐   F ☐

Civil Status: _____

Job position: _____

Years of working experience: _____
Years of experience on the field: _____

Date of the interview: _____

_____
Interviewee Agreement Signature

Appendix 3. Interview guide

Theme	Interview questions
Academics' perception of the notion "mentor", "mentorship, mentoring"	1. What do you understand by the term "mentorship"? What does mentoring mean to you? 2. How should mentoring look like? 3. Why is it important? Why should people have mentors? 4. Did you have a mentor? When? Could you describe a particular case when it was especially important to have and manage with them?
Mentoring process in higher education	For mentees: 1. How important do you think mentoring is? Do you have a mentor? Could you describe your relationship with them? 2. If yes, who initiated the process? 3. What learning opportunities occurred during mentor-mentee relationship? Please mention one particular example. 4. Could you describe the main activities which were undertaken together with your mentor? 5. What opportunities are there for teacher collaboration in your faculty? For mentors: 1. How do you identify mentee's learning needs? 2. What do you think young academics need? 3. What do you find beneficial for you in the mentorship?
Mentor's qualities and competencies	1. Can you give me an example of where your mentor assisted your learning and this worked well and why you think this was? 2. Can you think of an example where this did not work as well and why you think this was? How do you think it could be improved? 3. What qualities do you think a mentor needs? 4. What competences does informal mentoring develop in mentees and mentors? 5. What has been instrumental in helping you form a relationship with your mentor?

	6. How is working with your mentor different from working with other faculty academics and professors?
	7. How do you think, how can mentoring enhance and improve career success and job satisfaction?
Mentoring as a means for smooth transition and support in young academics' professional path	1. How was your induction period passed in your faculty? What you've learnt? Can you remember the first week? Can you describe it?
	2. What types of help did you feel you needed as a young staff member? Can you give an example?
	3. What role did your mentor have in your early career phase? Was this what you expected or not, can you tell me a little more about this?
	4. Did your mentor give you qualified feedback and demonstrated up-to-date and informed pedagogical and content knowledge needed for your professional development?
	5. What do you perceive as your key strengths?
Challenges and risks of mentor-mentee relationships	1. What was the most challenging part for you in mentor-mentee relationship? What was done for the improvement? Could you given an example?
	2. Do you feel you were given enough time for mentoring? How?
	3. What kind of difficulties did you have in your induction period? In mentoring? How did the workplace atmosphere influence on your work? Can you describe your first week of working?

Appendix 4. Sample of evaluation of class observations in Sh.Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University, Kazakhstan

"Class observation of teaching" form

Teacher's name (who is being observed) _____
Subject _____
Faculty/ department_____ Group _____
Number of students _____ Number of attended students _____
Date _____ Time _____ Room _____
Theme of the class _____

Evaluation criteria	*Points*	*Comments or recommendations*
Planning and contents of the lesson (max.10 points)		
Having the syllabus, lesson plan, appropriate teaching materials which are described in the curriculum		
Setting lesson goals and tasks and achieving them. Setting the problems of the lesson		
Practicing the usage of the recent scientific achievements, state regulation documents and additional literature source at the lesson		
Using interdisciplinary connection		
Using new technology and interactive methods of teaching		
Using teaching aids		
Development of key, disciplinary and special competencies		
Making conclusions about the lesson and teacher's evaluation of students' work		
Teacher's personal and professional features (max.10 points)		
Degree of students' activeness, keeping students' motivations and interests		
Teacher's professional skills (teaching ethics, speech culture, teacher's appearance, etc.)		
TOTAL POINTS (max 100 points)		

Teacher's name who observed, signature _____
Teacher's name who was observed, signature _____

"___"_____20__

Appendix 5. Frequency analysis on junior teachers' interviews (individual and group)

Definition	Features	Mentor's roles	Mentor's competencies	Mentee's competencies (developed through mentoring)	Key features for building effective mentoring
Support (52)	Discussion	Positive	More experienced	Communicative skills	*Trust* "The most important in this kind of relationship is to leave up the trust of your mentee and make a solid contribution to the further progress of success of your mentee" *(Junior teacher 7)*
Help (80)	Talks	Advisor	More knowledgeable	Critical thinking skills	*The same interest* "They [mentor and mentee] should have common interests for further fruitful relationships" *(Junior teacher 15)* "The most important is understanding that you are working for common interests and act accordingly" *(Junior teacher 15)*
Ask (30)	Outer comments	Supporter	Successful than you	Gain experience	*Voluntariness* "It [mentoring relationship] is something voluntary when you have a person who really wants to help you and you are eager to follow his instructions yourself" *(Junior teacher 3)*

Advising/ advice (21)	Outer feedback/ giving feedback	Encourager	Highly qualified	Confidence	*Partnership* "If it [mentoring] is based on a partnership with mutual trust and same goals where not only one, but both parties are active. So keeping a partner relationship and being active improves career success" *(Junior teacher 4)*
Assistance (9)	Outer expert's vision	Helper	Patient	Improving professional skills	*Exchange of experience*
Guiding/ guidance/ direct (25)	Daily discourse/ informal conversations	Leader	To be careful/ attentive	Flexibility	*Transfer of knowledge*
Teach (3)	Consulting	Guide	Thoughtful	Self-study	*Time and commitment from both sides*
Explain (9)	Giving hints and tips		Open	Teambuilding skills	*Freedom*: "If you are younger teacher, meaning less teaching experience, you should also have the freedom of trying out new things. So, the mentor should not prevent you from trying out of new things" *(Group interview with junior teachers)* "When you can speak to the mentor, share your ideas. When you have the same thoughts, ideas, when you are heard and understood" *(Junior teacher 13)*

Showing (8) (methods and techniques of teaching/ the right direction)	Meetings		Responsible	Interpersonal skills	*Open and free relationships*
Sharing (4) (with up-to-date news/ experience/ ideas)	Reflection		Honest	Diligence	*To be able to listen to each other*
Encouragement (1)	Class observations		Understanding	Mutual trust	*Respect each other* "Mentoring should be built on equal degrees, on the bases of collegiality and respectfulness" *(Junior teacher 15)*
Pointing at mistakes or things that mentee needs to correct (1)	Helping with documentation		Tolerant	Good fellowship	When 'matching' mentor with mentee, to take into consideration the *matter of having experience and knowledge*, but not the age "I think it is not necessarily needs to be done according to the age that the older person is mentoring the younger person but it can be more or less similar ages, but the years of experience, so the years of teaching. So, I would prefer to have a mentor more or less of my age but with more years of experience in teaching, then not to have a person who is just too high on the hierarchy to prevent that formality of mentoring" *(Group interview with junior teachers)*

Identify mentee's direction, mentee's specific capability in the profession (1)	Planning together		Professional	Subject-related skills	*Feeling safe* "Safe in terms of teaching, in terms of addressing to the person, in terms of being honest with a person, with the struggles that you are having so that you're not complaining, but the person will be adequately understand you what do you mean" *(Group interview with junior teachers)*
	Collaborations		Pleasant	Research and teaching skills	
			Communicative	Self-esteem	
			Moderate	Open	
			Simple	Creativity	
			Listens	Motivated to learn	
			Open-minded	Reflects on his/her teaching	
				Open to feedback	

Appendix 6. Frequency analysis on senior teachers' interviews (individual and group)

Definition (constituent parts of mentoring)	The forms for sharing or exchanging knowledge and practice	Mentor's roles	Mentor's competencies	Mentee's competencies (developed through mentoring)	Key features for building effective mentoring
Giving advice (16)	Class observations & public lessons	Role model	Demanding	To be interested	*Reflective partnership* "When you know there is a formal person, for example, formal program who is acting as your partner, maybe like reflective partner, as your mentor where you discuss different questions. I think that it's more organized and young teachers can be more supported" *(Group interview with senior teachers)*
Help (94)	Discussions	Partner	Knowledgeable	To have responsibility	*Cooperation* "I guess first of all it [mentoring] should be like a group of teachers at this or that department who will supervise young specialists" *(Senior teacher 1)* "Only through collective or team one can reach achievements, only through team one should develop himself, be it from the professional point or be it from personal development" *(Senior teacher 2)* "It's [mentoring] a very important constituent part of a collaborative work in different spheres in HEIs" *(Senior teacher 3)*

Directing (10)	Formal PD courses	Reflective partner	Qualified	Self-confident	*Mutual understanding and mutual respect* "In some cases young specialists need obedience and listening to what seniors say and advice" *(Senior teacher 3)* "Mentor should respect his mentee in terms of his colleague, but not as a student. He should foster his smooth adaptation to his job. Also mentee should respect mentor's efforts in helping him or her" *(Senior teacher 5)*
Support (25) (psychological/ professional/ personal)	Seminars	Guide	Experienced	To improve their professional and personal skills	*Trust-based relationships* "Another important role is mentor's psychological support. It helps apart from discussions of classes, discuss the success of the process which will motivate a mentee. Thus, it will build trust-based relationship which makes the process of mentoring more effective" *(Senior teacher 3)*
Sharing with experience (13)	Workshops	Leader	Professional	To be able to receive critical feedback	*Responsible and democratic relationships* "I learnt that we can improve our qualification through responsible and democratic relationships" *(Senior teacher 4)*
Assistance (4)	Planning	Motivator	Friendly	Competitive	*Partnership/ Reciprocal partnership* "For me it's [mentoring's] like a partnership, you work together, you improve together your professional knowledge and professional skills" *(Senior teacher 5)* "We [mentors and mentees] learn from each other. It's definitely.

					Young generation is very quick in learning some new things, so we try to be like them, not miss any advancement in education" *(Senior teacher 7)*
Guidance (9)	Assisting professor's lectures and practical classes	Encouraging	Cooperative	More responsible	*Reciprocal exchange of knowledge and experience* *"Mentoring is not just the exchange of social or professional experience, but it's also an exchange of social capital, you see. Our mentors helped us to find our teaching styles, to stand firmly in our professional path"* *(Senior teacher 6)*
Supervision (2)	Appoint mentees as co-supervisors	Enthusiastic	Humanity	Self-learning skills	*Willingness* "If you don't want to be a mentor, then some day or other this may negatively affect on the relationship. So it's important that a mentor feels responsibility and pure strive to help his younger colleague" *(Senior teacher 7)*
Cooperation (3)	Faculty meetings	Facilitator	Insistence of high standards	Self-development skills	
Consultation (3)	Analysis of the conducted work	Tutor	Hard-working	Critical thinking skills	
Leading (2)	Daily discourse	Good listener	Willing to share with his/her knowledge, teaching materials, skills or experience	Improved teaching skills	
	Joint research projects	Advisor	Organizational and communicational skills	Management skills	

		Educator	Ready to help		
		Supportive	Approachable		
		Manager	Open		
		Trainer	Kind		
		Director	Giving constructive feedback		
		Psychologist	Understanding		
			Tolerant		

Appendix 7. Sample of Atlas.ti 8 analysis

Challenges of junior teachers in their induction
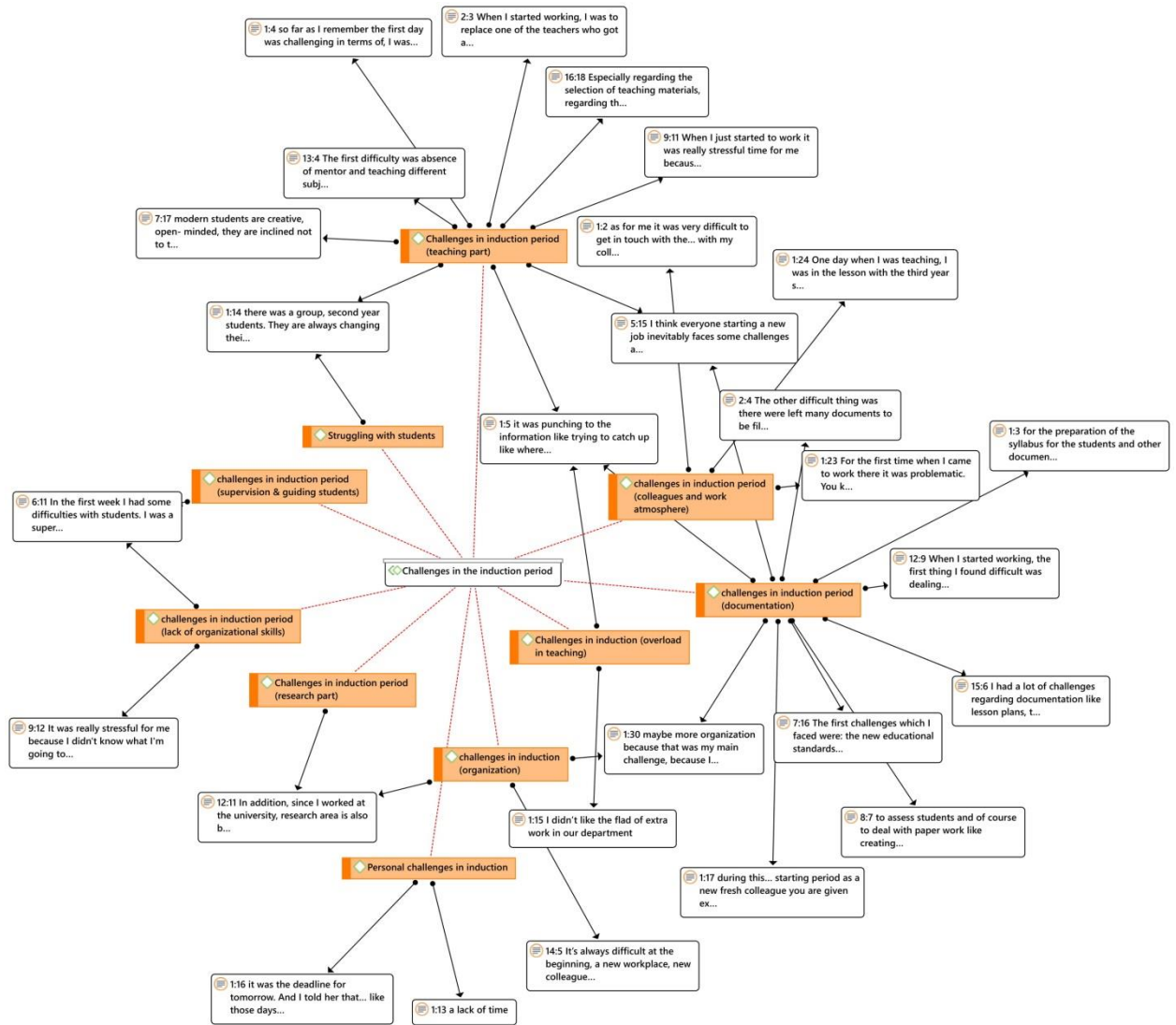
Mentor's roles and competencies

16:12 I mean I had help from my colleagues but not from my mentor. Maybe tha...

11:1 I think, mostly, academics and experienced professors' words, their te...

defining mentor roles and functions

professors as role models

competences of mentors

5:2 mentor is a person who is more experienced, who is more knowledgeable...

7:7 In our department, for example, we have mentors who are experienced, h...

mentors as advisors

mentor roles

9:7 Sometimes when you want to advise smth or tell smth to a person, not a...

7:3 Educators with rich experience transfer definite educational news to j...

16:20 Qualification, communicativeness, moderateness, simplicity

mentor as a guide

Defining mentor's roles and important features

mentor's features

13:2 to be responsible, hones

14:3 A mentor should be understanding, tolerant, profi in his occupation, s...

mentors as role models

1:46 An effective mentor is the one who listens.

11:3 Mentoring plays an important role in modern educational institutions....

5:5 he is one who can help you to understand the environment around and ho...

effective mentor

he is one who can help you to understand

15:2 Mentor is a person who is knowledgeable, professional, experienced.

1:50 For an effective mentor, I would say, open- minded

mentors as leaders

16:8 It's important to lead the young staff and then when they smoothly pas...

16:7 leadership and giving advice because when you a new in your department...

1:47 An effective mentor is the person who supports and who is open

8:10 The most positive experience I think is when once mentor and mentee un...