Research in Educational Administration & Leadership

Volume: 5, Issue: 3/September 2020

Mentoring and Role Modelling Through the Perspective of Academic Intellectual Leadership: Voluntarily and Institutionally

Baris Uslu

Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Canakkale, Turkey

Abstract

With their traditional roles as being knowledge producers and public intellectuals, the intellectual leadership of academics is formed jointly of responsibilities regarding emerging expectations such as income generation, international networking, external collaboration, interdisciplinary research, disciplinary/institutional representation, and guidance/supervision of younger colleagues' studies. While academic intellectual leadership basically includes six dimensions, Mentor and Role Model are the two core dimensions that intertwine around the others; namely, Acquisitor, Steward, Ambassador, and Advocate. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to compare the rationales and outcomes of voluntary mentoring-role modelling behaviours and institutional mentoring-role modelling programs through the perspective of academic intellectual leadership. In the research, a systematic review of the literature was employed to examine mentoring-role modelling components in the peer-reviewed articles on academic intellectual leadership, following the five essential steps of systematic review methodology: i) formulating research question(s), ii) setting inclusion-exclusion criteria, iii) establishing a systematic search protocol, iv) apprising the quality of individual studies, and v) integrating prominent findings. Results of the analysis

Article Info

Article History:

Received

October 20, 2019

Accepted

August 07, 2020

Keywords:

Academic intellectual leadership, Faculty research leadership, Mentoring programs, Role modelling behaviours, Systematic literature review.

revealed that the personal and economic rationales behind the voluntary mentoring-role modelling behaviours of senior academics are largely consistent with the organisational goals of institutional mentoring-role modelling practices. Further, the symbiotic nature of the mentor-mentee relationship generates a huge potential to enrich the scientific productivity of both senior and junior academics. However, cultural and political reasons largely shape the international practices of mentoring-role modelling in higher education, both at individual and institutional level.

Cite as:
Uslu, B. (2020). Mentoring and role modelling through the perspective of academic intellectual leadership: Voluntarily and institutionally. *Research in Educational Administration & Leadership*, *5*(3), 921-952. DOI: 10.30828/real/2020.3.9

Introduction

Mentoring and role modelling practices are valuable instruments in higher education settings to develop the intellectual capacity and scholarly qualifications of early career researchers (ECRs). Their effectiveness is related to the academics' intellectual leadership behaviours as well as institutional approaches (Macfarlane, 2012a). Therefore, the theoretical perspective of academic intellectual leadership (AIL) could provide a comprehensive framework to understand the dynamics of influential, voluntary and institutional mentoring-role modelling initiatives in higher education institutions.

While mentoring is about supporting younger colleagues to realise their own potential "by guiding and facilitating their scholarly activities… through collaborative studies" (Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; as cited in Uslu, 2015, p. 1608), role modelling involves setting a good example by academics via their scientific

achievements, scholarly attributes, and personal characteristics, both in the professional community and society (Uslu & Welch, 2018). As can be seen in these definitions, mentoring-role modelling behaviours are strongly associated with the professional roles expected from academics, especially those occupying senior positions. Whereas the scholarly role of academics is already known variously as academic (disciplinary) leadership (Kekäle, 1999), faculty leadership (Kezar, Lester, Carducci, Gallant, & Contreras-McGavin, 2007), professorial leadership (Poulson, Smith, Hood, Arthur, & Bazemore, 2011), or research leadership (Evans, 2014), there is a limited number of studies comprehensively evaluating aspects of academic roles and duties together.

One example is Boyer's (1990) book on the priorities of the professoriate. In this work, Boyer (1990) pictured the faculty's role behaviours as having four dimensions; namely, scholarships of Teaching (e.g. developing pedagogical practices and knowledge), of Discovery (e.g. exploring new knowledge, theories, principles, etc.), of Integration (e.g. producing interdisciplinary knowledge), and of Application (using disciplinary knowledge to solve individual, institutional, and societal problems). In another study, Tight (2002) discussed the scholarly leadership of professors and identified nine roles: being a role model, helping the development of colleagues, generating income, participating in public debate, influencing institutional direction, research leadership, innovativeness in teaching, departmental representation in the institution, and maintaining the standards of scholarship. Further, Evans (2014) proposed the componential structure of researcher development by behavioural, attitudinal, and intellectual development, and clearly outlined the role of senior academics in leading epistemological,

rationalistic, comprehensive, and analytical change among their younger colleagues' intellectual perspectives (p. 56).

Additionally, focusing on the nine roles outlined by Tight (2002), Macfarlane (2011) developed the term 'Intellectual Leadership' to define the scholarly leadership roles of professors and categorised these roles as having six dimensions: Role Model, Mentor, Guardian, Acquisitor, Ambassador, and Advocate (p. 70). While explaining mentoring-role modelling as two closely related dimensions, Macfarlane (2011) also revealed how the importance of these role behaviours differ for professors (mentoring as the first and role modelling as the third) and their institutions (mentoring as the fourth and role modelling as the fifth). Similarly, taking Macfarlane's frame as a basis, Uslu and Welch (2018) questioned professorial intellectual leadership and concluded that "to be a good example in every aspect for young people around them, senior academics have to display all sorts of professorial intellectual leadership behaviours within Guardian, Mentor, Acquisitor, Ambassador and Advocate dimensions" (p. 577). Uslu and Arslan (2018) then statistically proved the associations existing between faculty's AIL behaviours and universities' organisational components in terms of organisational climate, communication, and managerial practice flexibility.

Although studies on faculty development initiatives have largely argued the contribution of mentoring-role modelling to the enrichment of collegial climate and scholarly interaction in higher education institutions (Baldwin, DeZure, Shaw, & Moretto, 2008; Fitzgerald, 2014; Macfarlane, 2012b; Osiemo, 2012), these studies rarely take the individual factors of (senior and junior) academics into consideration when assessing the effectiveness of mentoring-role modelling programs. However, it is important to take voluntary and

institutional motives together in order to apprehend a complete picture of how influential mentoring-role modelling practices are in higher education. While investigating the reflection of senior-junior academics' collaboration on their scholarly productivity, such an approach can also guide university managers in designing well-rounded mentoring-role modelling practices in their own institutions. AIL presents a wide perspective to trace both the voluntary and institutional basis of mentoring-role modelling in higher education.

Theoretical Structure of AIL

As viewed through the eyes of professors while comparing the priority of scholarly roles according to the professors themselves and also their institutions, Macfarlane (2011) introduced the term 'Intellectual Leadership' and defined six qualities for professorial leadership (see Table 1).

Table 1.

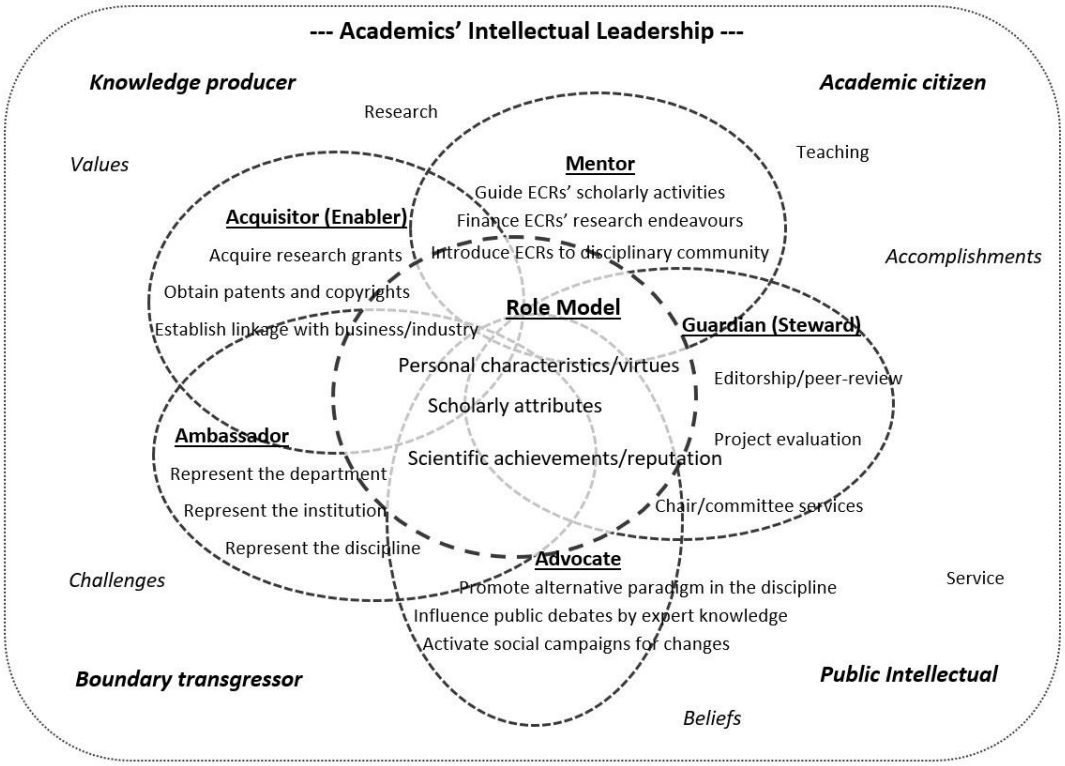
The qualities of the professor as a leader (Macfarlane, 2011, p. 70)

Role Model	through personal scholarship, teaching, leadership and management, influence within the discipline or profession, publication, grants, awards and other research achievements
Mentor	to less experienced colleagues within and without the institution
Advocate	for the discipline or profession; explaining, arguing, promoting, debating, lobbying, campaigning
Guardian	of standards of scholarship and academic values within the discipline or profession
Acquisitor	of grants, resources, research students, contracts and other commercial opportunities
Ambassador	on behalf of the university in external relations both nationally and internationally

Macfarlane (2012a) then expanded on the framework of AIL with four major characteristics (Academic citizen, Boundary transgressor, Knowledge producer, Public intellectual) to describe influential intellectual leaders in academia. Macfarlane and Chan (2014) also identified research, teaching, service duties of academics and their scholarly values, personal beliefs, scientific achievements, and career challenges as the basis of AIL behaviours. When gathering these components together based on the results of previous studies (Uslu, 2015; Uslu & Welch, 2018), the researcher placed the 'Role Model' dimension at the centre to highlight its strong connection with the other dimensions of AIL (see Figure 1).

Figure 1.

Structure of AIL (based on Macfarlane, 2011; 2012a; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014)



The 'Role model' dimension includes academics' personal characteristics (helping, patient, responsible, etc.), virtues (creative, honest, cooperative, etc.), and scholarly attributes (expert, global, respected, etc.) (Macfarlane & Chan, 2014, p. 299-302). In addition, this dimension "covers challenging others to create a transformation in the[ir] understanding…; influencing… and leading [others] to success; performing services that contribute to the development of students, colleagues, research fields,… and society; and coping with

difficulties… such as economical,… or ideological obstacles" (Uslu, 2015, p. 1608). Role modelling is also associated with scholarly reputation, disciplinary expertise, skilful management, international collaboration, income generation, and mentoring behaviours (Macfarlane, 2011; 2012a).

The 'Mentor' dimension basically means assisting the career advancement of less experienced colleagues by advising them on their research efforts and collaboratively participating in their studies (Uslu, 2016, p. 196). Mentoring behaviours of academics cover various practices such as forming research teams with ECRs, financing scholarships/fellowships with grants, co-authorship with younger colleagues, reviewing less-experienced academics' manuscripts and fund applications, giving feedback about the teaching-learning practices of younger scholars, generating co-advisory opportunities for early career colleagues, establishing connections between junior and senior academics in their discipline, and guiding the long-term career plans of ECRs (Macfarlane, 2011; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014). All in all, mentorship would achieve its main goal of contributing to the development of the next generation in academia, "when… the mentee is no longer intellectually dependent on the mentor and finds their own voice… The professor as mentor has succeeded when mentee no longer needs their support and guidance" (Macfarlane, 2012a, p. 94).

With the dimensional definitions given above, studies on AIL generate a good source to seek the rationales of both voluntary and institutional aspects of academics' mentoring-role modelling in higher education. Further, AIL studies clearly outline the prominent perspectives with which to discuss individual and institutional rationales and their potential outcomes. These perspectives are

basically personal, cultural (scholarly/institutional/national), economic, and political motivators for the voluntary mentoring-role modelling behaviours of academics (Macfarlane, 2011; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Uslu, 2015; 2016) and, in a similar vein, the organisational, cultural (academic/institutional/national), economic, and political reasons behind institutional mentoring-role modelling practices (Macfarlane, 2012a; 2019; Uslu & Arslan, 2018; Uslu & Welch, 2018). Therefore, following the voluntary and institutional versions of these four frames outlined here, this research will focus on AIL studies to explore mentoring-role modelling initiatives in higher education.

Methodology

This research was designed as a systematic literature review (SLR) on mentoring-role modelling in higher education. Systematic review methodology aims to aggregate the results of individual studies in order to answer specific research questions based on larger evidence (Bearman et al., 2012). In line with this definition, in order to examine the voluntary and institutional approaches of mentoring-role modelling through the perspective of AIL, the researcher systematically reviewed the literature of AIL following the five steps suggested by Petticrew and Roberts (2006). These steps are:

1. Formulating the research question(s),
2. Defining inclusion/exclusion criteria,
3. Recording eligible studies systematically,
4. Assessing the quality of the selected studies,
5. Integrating prominent findings.

Research Questions

The purpose of this research is to explore the rationales behind mentoring-role modelling approaches as part of AIL as well as discussing the potential outcomes both for academics (senior-junior) and institutions. Therefore, the research questions are:

- Through the perspective of AIL, what are the rationales of academics to display voluntary mentoring-role modelling behaviours?
- Through the perspective of AIL, what are the rationales behind the mentoring-role modelling initiatives of higher education institutions?

Inclusion-Exclusion Criteria

To select the related studies of AIL, the researcher defined selected criteria before embarking on the systematic search protocol. These criteria are:

Inclusion	**Exclusion**
+ listed in certain indexes (Web of Knowledge, SCOPUS, and ERIC-Educ. Resource Inf. Center) + relevance to AIL (or research leadership/faculty leadership/academic leadership) + published after 2010 (introduction of intellectual leadership frame by Macfarlane in	- country-specific indexes (e.g. Australian Education Index, British Education Index, etc.) - non-relevance to mentoring-role modelling (approaches/behaviours) - published before 2011 (introduction of intellectual leadership frame by Macfarlane in 2011)

2011) + written in English + a peer-reviewed article + empirical research	- not written in English - not a peer-reviewed article - not empirical research

Systematic Search Protocol

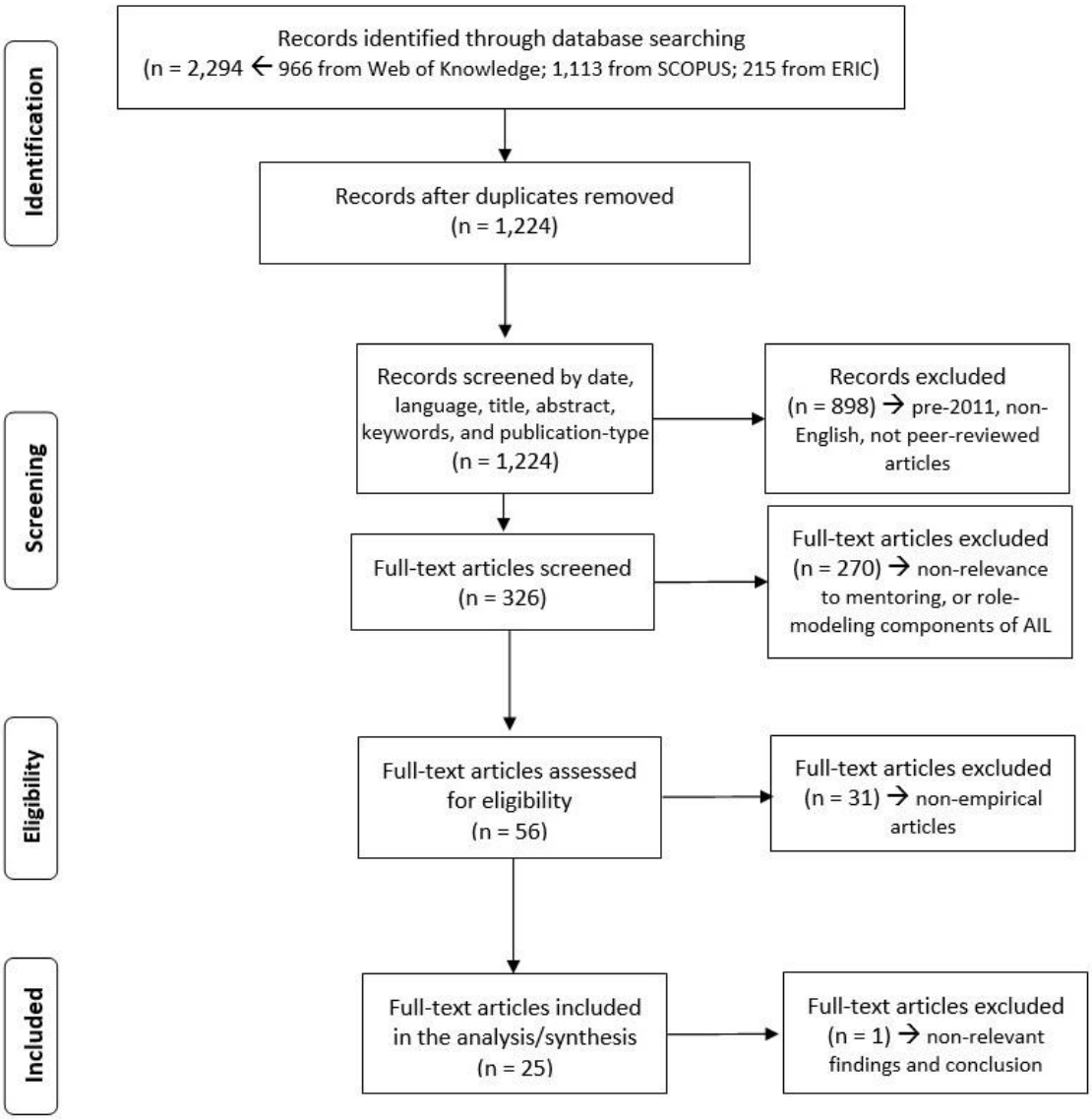
First, the researcher identified the keywords for the systematic search with assistance from a colleague who had studied higher education policy and finance in the same department. These search terms are:

- academic AND intellectual AND leader(ship)
- intellectual AND leader(ship) AND mentor(ing) OR role model(ling)
- faculty AND leader(ship) AND intellectual OR mentor(ing) OR role model(ling)
- research AND leader(ship) AND intellectual OR mentor(ing) OR role model(ling)
- academic AND leadership AND intellectual OR mentor(ing) OR role model(ling)

Second, the researcher searched for these keywords in the previously-defined scientific publication indexes. The results of the systematic search and elimination of articles were then summarised in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2.

PRISMA Flowchart of systematic search on AIL, focusing on mentoring-role modelling



Quality Appraisal

In this review study, all selected articles are empirical research. Therefore, each selected article was assessed based on the methodological approach to its empirical evidence. While quantitative articles were examined focusing on their population-sample, selected analysis, and findings presentation; the qualitative articles focused on the study group, analysis credibility, and direct evidence from the data-source. Mixed methods research articles were evaluated using the same approach to quantitative and qualitative studies. The basic aspects of the article appraisal are tabularised in the Appendix.

Integration of Analysis Results

Parallel to the main logic of SLR in aggregating the results of individual studies, the researcher first analysed each selected article separately. During the analysis, benefiting from the advantage of having an expanded evidence-set from the selected articles, the researcher largely focused on findings/results and the discussion/conclusion sections. As outlined in the theoretical framework above, the researcher previously assigned the analysis themes in consideration of his own studies on AIL (Uslu, 2015; 2016; Uslu & Arslan, 2018; Uslu & Welch, 2018). The themes were the personal, cultural, economic, and political rationales for voluntary mentoring-role modelling, and also the organisational, cultural, economic, and political rationales for institutional initiatives of mentoring-role modelling.

In the first step of the analysis, the researcher read all articles and marked the parts related to mentoring-role modelling. The researcher then formulated the initial list of codes (with the name of

themes and sub-themes). Using this list, the researcher coded each article and noted the related section(s) from the article on Excel, which included 'voluntary' and 'institutional' themes and their sub-themes. In the next step, another researcher with a PhD in the field of Educational Administration and Supervision coded the notes on the Excel sheet using the same codes and same themes and sub-themes. Based on face-to-face discussion, the researcher and second-coder decided to add one more code to the list. After the secondary coding process, the researcher calculated the inter-coder agreement as 82% (with the basic formula: [# of same codes / # of all (same & non-same) codes] x 100). Ensuring the inter-rater reliability (having a coefficient greater than .70 (Miles & Huberman, 1994)), the researcher then integrated the dominant findings of the thematic descriptive analysis. Annotations from the selected articles are also presented in the next section.

Results

AIL consists of a wide spectrum of the characteristics and qualifications of academics, from disciplinary expertise to personality, from societal service to professional network, and from scholarly productivity to gatekeeping duties. Reviewing the systematically-selected articles on AIL, this research extracted the general approach to mentoring-role modelling within the complex structure of AIL. The rationales behind mentoring-role modelling in higher education institutions, voluntarily or institutionally, were then summarised in Table 2 below and the potential outcomes discussed.

Table 2.

Rationales for mentoring and role modelling in higher education

Voluntary Mentoring-Role Modelling		**Institutional Mentoring-Role Modelling**	
Personal	- feeling moral obligation - willing to share his/her experiences - diffusing his/her teaching/research style - relishing co-authorship with ECRs - prioritising/valuing (the composition of) research team with ECRs - developing his/her own research abilities with intelligent ECRs - requests from (international) ECRs for advice *- having visiting positions in overseas universities* *- receiving collegial support from international community* - being an internationally well-known researcher - being a prominent/productive researcher in his/her field - having a scholarly reputation with scientific achievements - having an international network/collaboration - being a multidisciplinary researcher - being an inspirational teacher and/or manager - having communication skills to motivate ECRs - personality match; having a similar personality with mentee(s) <u>- focusing only on his/her own career</u>	***Organisational***	*- training the next generation of academics* - adapting to academic support/faculty development service(s) - adapting to research chair and PhD scholarship schemes *- co-supervision with ECRs* - leadership/skill development for newly appointed professors *- introducing institutional standards* *- familiarising mentees to institutional practice(s)* *- increasing collaboration (disciplinary and interdisciplinary)* - benefiting senior academics' experience and network - capacity development of ECRs - establishing communication for work-related exchange - promoting international disciplinary engagement - enriching faculty socialisation <u>- pay lip mentoring in his/her department</u> <u>- leave off mentoring duties for fund/grant acquisition</u>

Cultural	- tendency for collegiality/collaboration *- receiving collegial support from international community* *- training the next generation in his/her field* *- setting excellence/quality expectations for ECRs' studies* *- co-supervision with ECRs* - mentoring others following his/her mentor(s); ex-mentee experience(s) - mentee's high productivity (influenced by his/her mentor's reputation)	***Cultural***	*- co-supervision with ECRs* *- promoting excellence/quality culture in the institution* - empowering collegiality and shared governance culture - national approach to mentoring (e.g. informal in Africa) - competitive culture in the nation (e.g. for grants in Australia) *- introducing institutional standards* *- familiarising mentees to institutional practice(s)*
Economic	- advising ECRs for suitable publication/fund options - financing ECRs' research by his/her grant(s)/fund(s) quick appointment for mentee (after working with a well-known researcher) - supporting ECRs' studies both for his/her and mentees' promotion <u>- imbalanced teaching and administrative load</u>	***Economic***	- internal (writing/review) support for fund/grant applications - potential gain/profit from visiting, overseas appointment(s) *- preparing "future research leaders (or their own star)"* - searching opportunities actively for departmental colleague(s) <u>- not fairly committed to formal mentoring description</u>
Political	- mentoring ECRs from similar (research) interest group - potential alliance with like-minded ECRs - supporting female ECRs against gender bias - connecting ECRs with senior members of the discipline (purposefully) *- having advantageous profile in post-colonial period (e.g. in Africa)*	***Political***	*- preparing "future research leaders (or their own star)"* - cross-generation mentoring experience(s) - encouragement for mentoring members of other gender(s) - continuously monitoring the impact of mentoring program(s) *- prioritising intellectual gain(s) from ex-colonialist countries*

As one of the researcher's ex-interviewees, a professor of human sciences explained that, "you (senior academics) provide examples in almost everything you want to notice is that everything we do as professors is observed, and we become models for researchers who are perhaps less experienced" (Uslu & Welch, 2018, p. 577). Therefore, role modelling includes more than visible mentoring relations with ECRs. However, the favourable characteristics of influential role models tend to make them target mentors by students and junior academics. In this respect, Table 2 clearly shows that personal factors promoting voluntary mentoring include two groups of rationales; why they want to be a mentor, and why others ask them for mentor support. For the first group, the main reason is the moral intention of senior academics to train the next generation of researchers in their discipline (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012; Macfarlane, 2011; Uslu & Welch, 2018). Other rationales are bidirectional, as in the willingness of senior academics to collaborate with a dynamic team of ECRs and their "influenc[e on] the intellectual development of the next generation" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 441). Considering the potential of co-productivity, ECRs tend to ask for mentoring support or work together with highly productive academics. These higher-performer academics have a good reputation gained by means of their scholarly achievements and have developed a strong relationship with the international community in their discipline. For example, Browning, Thompson, and Dawson (2017, p. 372) highlighted that "the 30 research leaders in this study come from active and supportive research cultures and were mentored. They supervise and publish with their research students, participate in collaborative research, and have good international connections and networks."

Accordingly, having good mentoring support in their early career years from senior academics clearly influences the ECRs' understanding of academic culture. Here, accessing collegial support from the international research community could be critical for ECRs in a developing field in their home countries, as in the following example: "she embarked upon a Ph.D. and struggled to identify local discipline specific experts who could supervise doctoral studies in her field. [She said:] But I think I found my intellectual home in the international community" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 448). It can be said that senior academics naturally develop their own mentoring approach based on previous experience with their ex-mentor(s) (Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013; Rohwer, 2015; van Driel et al., 2017). While forming an (invisible) excellence and quality line for ECRs by means of their high-impact studies and publications, senior academics largely contribute to younger academics' productivity with co-authored papers, collaborative projects, co-supervised graduate studies, and their influential advice on potential options for publication and grants.

In addition to their own projects, senior academics can generate financial support for junior researcher positions, largely in the form of a scholarship/fellowship. Young researchers generally assume that such a "fellowship [is a chance] to work with her (professor)… because she is well known and has a good reputation in her field and a chance to work with her is an honour" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 451). On this point, senior academics effectuate personal policies which influence their choice of mentees and approach; for example, by prioritising candidate(s) having a similar research interest in their discipline (Kezar & Lester, 2014), considering the potential of future collaboration (Kezar, Gallant, & Lester, 2011), or protecting young researchers from an imbalanced gender group against gender bias in

the scientific world (Macfarlane & Burg, 2019; van den Brink, 2015). Regarding another personal policy, when senior academics are "searching examiners for [their] doctoral students, [they mostly consider] who is going to be a useful contact for the future, someone might do joint research with or at least someone who can be used as a referee" (Uslu & Welch, 2018, p. 577). Further, Damonse and Nkomo (2012) explained how it is a great advantage for ECRs to access intellectual development support from international experts through their mentor's network.

Damonse and Nkomo (2012) also exemplified the context of Africa, including many post-colonial countries, highlighting the generous responsiveness of disciplinary leaders, especially from their ex-colonialist states of Europe (p. 448). However, having a certain profile as researcher might become part of institutional policies in the post-colonial period, as follows: "During the '80s and early '90s, it was also politically advantageous to [be] a bright, young, white male (English-speaking) who was taken up into research posts at the major resource-intensive Afrikaner universities in [South Africa]" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 447). There are many other political strategies which are shaping the institutional approach to mentoring programs in different parts of the world. Examples include: forming cross-generational mentoring to benefit from the experience of senior academics while keeping them up-to-date by means of younger academics' new research endeavours (from the USA – Kezar & Lester, 2014), encouraging male academics to mentor female ECRs, even establishing connections with their husband (in African countries – Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi, & Kiiru, 2017), and preparing 'future research leaders (or their own star)' (in Australia – Uslu & Welch, 2018).

Whether or not it is their main rationale, it appears that the institutional strategy of mentoring is also related to the academic culture of the country as well as the institution itself. While the humanitarian approach or competitiveness of national academies influences the content of the mentoring program in an institution, mentoring programs generally contribute to the empowerment of collegiality, scientific collaboration, and a culture of excellence in the institution (Browning et al., 2017; Evans, 2014; Kezar et al., 2011; Uslu & Arslan, 2018). Higher education institutions also benefit from senior academics' mentoring behaviours in introducing their bureaucratic structure (i.e. institutional standards and practices) to less-experienced mentees, which is largely related to tenure and the promotion process (Evans, 2014; Kezar & Lester, 2014; Macfarlane & Burg, 2019). Further, mentoring programs may also be associated with institutional services for financial gain by "visiting fellows[hips of their own staff] at universities across the globe" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 450), "advising on source of funding [particularly for departmental colleagues]" (Macfarlane, 2011, p. 67), and a "systematic network for internal review [of grant proposals]" (Evans, 2014, p. 53).

While institutional mentoring initiatives include many conjoint facilitators of the cultural, economic, and political aspects of academia, the main purpose of higher education institutions is the development of ECRs, as explained by the following: "If they (junior researchers/academics) do not get mentoring, professional development, and support early from their institutions, their talents might be wasted" (Browning et al., 2017, p. 373). Higher education institutions can also adapt mentoring-role modelling schemes to more comprehensive, academic leadership training or a faculty development program in order to enrich faculty socialisation

(Rohwer, 2015), establish collegial communication channels (Evans, 2017), increase disciplinary and interdisciplinary cooperation (Uslu, 2016), and promote engagement with the international research community (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012), particularly benefitting from senior academics' professional networks (Macfarlane, 2011).

However, senior academics may choose to focus only on their own studies; even mentoring-role modelling "is considered a formal job specification" (Macfarlane & Burg, 2019, p. 269) for professorship in their institution. In such circumstances, many ECRs then have to seek "support, encouragement, and advice from professorial colleagues outside [their] institution… [rather than] simply pay lip service to the principle of mentoring [in their department/institution]" (Evans et al., 2013, p. 681). Furthermore, higher education institutions can prefer to purposively leave out the mentoring-role modelling responsibilities of senior academics, as Macfarlane (2011) stated: "while many professors are still committed to often time-consuming mentoring and support activities, modern institutions are increasingly developing systems to release them from such duties in order to focus their efforts in a more economically efficient manner" (p. 71).

Conclusion

This research focused on the Mentor and Role Model dimensions of AIL. Systematically selected articles on AIL were analysed to discover the rationales of academics to do voluntary mentoring-role modelling as well as the institutional dynamics of the mentoring-role modelling components of faculty development initiatives. The results displayed an interwinding structure of personal, organisational, cultural, economic, and political factors that

together influence mentoring-role modelling practice in higher education.

While higher education institutions clearly prioritise training the next generation of academics, it seems that the feeling of obligation by senior academics to contribute to the development of junior academics/researchers serves this institutional priority well. The institutions largely prefer to adapt mentoring-role modelling practices into their faculty development programs, but such organisational practice may conclude with perfunctory collegial support from senior to junior colleagues (Evans et al., 2013). Here, the quality of the mentoring-role modelling of senior academics is heavily dependent on their personal willingness to collaborate with younger academics. Beyond having a similar research interest, the voluntary aspects of their mentoring-role modelling behaviours should also include a good match of the mentor's and mentee's personalities (Rohwer, 2015).

As expected, ECRs (i.e. mentees) tend to seek collegial support from high-achiever, research leader(s) in their disciplinary area. If a mentor accepts potential mentees as fresh intellectual power for the teamwork, "over time, when successful, this awe-inspired relationship [between mentor and mentee(s)] seems to mature into one of mutual respect between mentee and mentor" (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012, p. 451). Considering the high potential of their like-minded personalities, this symbiotic relationship will most likely result in a productive collaboration for both mentor and mentee(s). In addition to their co-authored papers, a mentor might provide financial support for their successful mentee(s) through grants or funding.

Contrary to Macfarlane's (2011) warning on removing the mentoring-role modelling duties of senior academics for financial reasons, many higher education institutions, especially ones aiming to raise their own stars, can prioritise the inclusion of internal reviews of their institutional mentoring-role modelling initiatives (Uslu, 2017). Here, in addition to their peer feedback, the active role modelling (or personal contribution) of senior academics on grant-writing can greatly increase the chance of junior academics' fund acquisition; this is clearly another goal of institutional mentoring-role modelling programs. In the end, with their scientific productivity and grant achievements, young scholars can quickly become research leaders in their field (Browning et al., 2017; Li, Aste, Caccioli, & Livan, 2019). Similar to Evans' (2017) suggestion, when they reach this senior step, institutions should introduce professorial roles and duties (in keeping with collegial expectations) through a special training program for newly-appointed/promoted senior academics.

Their fruitful experience of mentoring-role modelling obviously assists the collegial formation of a mentoring-role modelling culture among new research leaders. On the other hand, when a mentor-role model fully focuses on their own career, the mentor-mentee relationship can create unfair authorship and financial reward (largely in favour of the senior party) in their joint research projects (Horne et al., 2016; Macfarlane, 2017; Meng et al. 2017). As the researcher personally experienced, in such circumstances, early career academics generally seek out collegial support from the international community in their discipline. As an emerging political reason in this research, if ECRs are working in post-colonial countries, they mostly receive disciplinary support from international academics who have research background in ex-colonial states (Damonse & Nkomo, 2012; Owusu et al., 2017).

As in many cases around the world, it follows that higher education institutions prefer to appoint visiting professors to meet the mentoring-role modelling need of their junior academic staff (Spring, Kunkel, Gilman, Henderson, & White, 2016). With the advantage of globalised transportation (Stein, de Oliveira-Andreotti, & Susa, 2019), these flying-faculty generally come from ex-colonial states to newly-developing higher education systems (Poultney, 2017). Using the example of the United Arab Emirates, Samier (2019) warned of the eroding effect of re-colonisation in national academies through the global practice of mentoring-role modelling in higher education. Therefore, to consolidate their academic culture consistently with national perspectives, university leaders should pay keen regard to cultural codes and social values as well as scholarly norms when designing institutional mentoring-role modelling.

In sum, the current research systematically reviewed AIL studies focusing on mentoring-role modelling practices. Further studies may analyse mentoring-role modelling initiatives using different theoretical perspectives such as the glonacal agency heuristic (including Local-National-Glonacal spheres) of Marginson and Rhoades (2002) or CUDOS (Communism-Universalism-Disinterestedness-Organized skepticism) of Merton (1942). Researchers can also employ other types of systematic review in the form of meta-synthesis or meta-analysis to focus on faculty development training through the perspective of mentoring-role modelling.

References

Baldwin, R., DeZure, D., Shaw, A., & Moretto, K. (2008). Mapping the terrain of mid-career faculty at a research university: Implications for faculty and academic leaders. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 40*(5), 46-55. doi:10.3200/CHNG.40.5.46-55

Bearman, M., Smith, C. D., Carbone, A., Slade, S., Baik, C., Hughes-Warrington, M., & Neumann, D. L. (2012). Systematic review methodology in higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development, 31*(5), 625-640. doi:10.1080/07294360.2012.702735

Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

* Browning, L., Thompson, K., & Dawson, D. (2017). From early career researcher to research leader: Survival of the fittest? *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 39*(4), 361-377. doi10.1080/1360080X.2017.1330814

* Damonse, B. A., & Nkomo, M. (2012). Leading from the front: Exploring the professional and personal nature of research leadership. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 26*(3), 441-454. doi:10.20853/26-3-179

* Evans, L. (2014). What is effective research leadership? A research-informed perspective. *Higher Education Research & Development, 33*(1), 46-58. doi:10.1080/07294360.2013.864617

* Evans, L. (2017). University professors as academic leaders: Professorial leadership development needs and provision. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 45*(1), 123-140. doi:10.1177/1741143215578449

* Evans, L., Homer, M., & Rayner, S. (2013). Professors as academic leaders: The perspectives of 'the led'. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 41*(5) 674-689. doi:10.1177/1741143213488589

Fitzgerald, T. (2014). Scholarly traditions and the role of the professoriate in uncertain times. *Journal of Educational Administration and History, 46*(2), 207-219. doi:10.1080/00220620.2014.889092

* Horne, A. L., du Plessis, Y., & Nkomo, S. (2016). Role of department heads in academic development: A leader–member exchange and organizational resource perspective. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 44*(6), 1021-1041. doi:10.1177/1741143215587305

Kekäle, J. (1999). 'Preferred' patterns of academic leadership in different disciplinary (sub)cultures. *Higher Education, 37*(3), 217-238. doi:10.1023/A:1003584731452

* Kezar, A. Gallant, T. B., & Lester, J. (2011) Everyday people making a difference on college campuses: The tempered grassroots leadership tactics of faculty and staff. *Studies in Higher Education, 36*(2), 129-151. doi:10.1080/03075070903532304

* Kezar, A., & Lester, J. (2014). Building STEM faculty leaders on campus. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 8*(1), 57-62. doi:10.1002/jls.21323

Kezar, A., Lester, J., Carducci, R., Gallant, T. B., & Contreras-McGavin, M. (2007). Where are the faculty leaders? *Liberal Education, 93*(4), 14-21.

Li, W., Aste, T., Caccioli, F., & Livan, G. (2019). Early coauthorship with top scientists predicts success in academic careers. *Nature Communications, 10*(5170), 1-9. doi:10.1038/s41467-019-13130-4

* Macfarlane, B. (2011). Professors as intellectual leaders: Formation, identity and role. *Studies in Higher Education, 36*(1), 57-73. doi:10.1080/03075070903443734

Macfarlane, B. (2012a). *Intellectual leadership in higher education: Renewing the role of the university professor*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Macfarlane, B. (2012b). Whisper it softly, professors are really academic developers too. *International Journal for Academic Development, 17*(2), 181-183. doi:10.1080/1360144X.2012.662465

* Macfarlane, B. (2017). The ethics of multiple authorship: Power, performativity and the gift economy. *Studies in Higher Education, 42*(7), 1194-1210. doi:10.1080/03075079.2015.1085009

* Macfarlane, B., & Chan, R. Y. (2014). The last judgement: Exploring intellectual leadership in higher education through academic obituaries. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(2), 294-306. doi:10.1080/03075079.2012.684679

* Macfarlane, B., & Burg, D. (2019). Women professors and the academic housework trap. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 41*(3), 262-274. doi:10.1080/1360080X.2019.1589682

Marginson, S., & Rhoades, G. (2002). Beyond national states, markets, and systems of higher education: A glonacal agency heuristic. *Higher Education, 43*(3), 281-309. doi:10.1023/A:1014699605875

* McConnell, R. (2018). Student perspectives of academic advisors and leader development at the graduate level. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 66*(3), 146-157. doi:10.1080/07377363.2018.1525519

* Meng, Y., Tan, J., & Li, J. (2017). Abusive supervision by academic supervisors and postgraduate research students' creativity: The mediating role of leader–member exchange and intrinsic motivation. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 20*(5), 605-617. doi:10.1080/13603124.2017.1304576

Merton, R. K. (1942). The normative structure of science. In N. Storer (Ed.), *The sociology of science: Theoretical and empirical investigations* (pp. 267-278). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

* Mohnot, H. (2019). The impact of some demographic variables on academic leadership preparedness in Indian higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 43*(1), 1-11. doi:10.1080/0309877X.2017.1349891

Osiemo, L. B. (2012). Developing responsible leaders: The university at the service of the person. *Journal of Business Ethics, 108*(2), 131-143. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1087-3

* Owusu, F., Kalipeni, E., Awortwi, N., & Kiiru, J. M. M. (2017). Building research capacity for African institutions: Confronting the research leadership gap and lessons from African research leaders. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 20*(2), 220-245. doi:10.1080/13603124.2015.1046497

Petticrew, M., & Roberts, H. (2006). *Systematic reviews in the social sciences: A practical guide*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Poulson, R. L., Smith, J. T., Hood, D. S., Arthur, C. G., & Bazemore, K. F. (2011). The impact of gender on preferences for transactional versus transformational professorial leadership styles: an empirical analysis. *Review of Higher Education and Self-Learning, 3*(11), 58-70.

Poultney, V. (2017). Leading the flying faculty: What do leaders of doctoral programmes need to know? *Management in Education, 31*(4), 159-165. doi:10.1177/0892020617734820

* Robins, L., Murphy, N., & Zierler, B. (2016). Leveraging a faculty fellowship programme to develop leaders in interprofessional

education. *Journal of Interprofessional Care, 30*(4), 520-522. doi:10.3109/13561820.2016.1150258

* Rohwer, D. (2015). Emerging research leaders' preparation and practices. *Texas Music Education Research*. Access: https://www.tmea.org/assets/pdf/research/Roh2015.pdf

Samier, E. A. (2019). Toward a postcolonial securities critique of higher education leadership: Globalization as a recolonization in developing countries like the UAE. *International Journal of Leadership in Education* [Online First], 1-20. doi:10.1080/13603124.2019.1591514

Spring, H., Kunkel, M., Gilman, I., Henderson, N., & White, J. (2016). Teaching and learning in action. *Health Information and Libraries Journal, 33*(3), 249-254. doi:10.1111/hir.12148

Stein, S., de Oliveira-Andreotti, V., & Susa, R. (2019). 'Beyond 2015', within the modern/colonial global imaginary? Global development and higher education. *Critical Studies in Education, 60*(3), 281-301. doi:10.1080/17508487.2016.1247737 de

Tight, M. (2002). What does it mean to be a professor? *Higher Education Review, 34*, 15-31.

* Uslu, B. (2015). Testing the psychometric features of the Academic Intellectual Leadership Scale in a university environment. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 15*(6), 1605-1621. doi:10.12738/estp.2015.6.0205

* Uslu, B. (2016). Faculty's academic intellectual leadership within the conditions of modern universities. *Education and Science, 41*(184), 193-211. doi:10.15390/EB.2016.6140

Uslu, B. (2017). The influence of organisational features in high-ranked universities: The case of Australia. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 39*(5), 471-486. doi:10.1080/1360080X.2017.1354755

* Uslu, B., & Arslan, H. (2018). Faculty's academic intellectual leadership: The intermediary relations with universities' organizational components. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 21*(4), 399-411. doi:10.1080/13603124.2016.1278044

* Uslu, B., & Welch, A. (2018). The influence of universities' organizational features on professorial intellectual leadership. *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(3), 571-585. doi:10.1080/03075079.2016.1185774

* van den Brink, M. (2015). The politics of knowledge: The responses to feminist research from academic leaders. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, 34*(6), 483-495. doi:10.1108/EDI-01-2015-0004

*van Driel, M., Deckx, L., Cooke, G., Pirotta, M., Gill, G. F., & Winzenberg, T. (2017). Growing and retaining general practice research leaders in Australia: How can we do better? *Australian Family Physician, 46*(10), 757-762. Access: https://www.racgp.org.au/download/Documents/AFP/2017/October/AFP-2017-10-Research-GP-Research.pdf

About the author

After his visit to the University of Sydney, Australia, **Baris Uslu** received his PhD degree in 2015. Dr. Uslu works as an Associate Professor at the Department of Educational Sciences, Faculty of Education, Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey. His studies focus on educational administration, academic leadership, and higher education management.

E-Mail: barisuslu@comu.edu.tr

Appendix

Table 3.

Evaluation of empirical articles on AIL including mentoring-role modelling

Quantitative					Qualitative				
Article	***Sample***	***Analysis***	***Reporting***	***Rating***	***Article***	***Study Group***	***Analysis Credibility***	***Evidence***	***Rating***
Evans et al. (2013)	1,223 ECRs	Descriptive (No separate analysis section)	Tabulation	√	Kezar et al. (2011)	81 acad. staff 84 admin. staff	Interviews/content analysis (trustworthiness)	Direct quotations (summary of findings)	√√
Uslu (2015)	863 faculty	Exp. Fact. Anly. & Conf. Fact. Anly.	Tabulation	√√	Damonse & Nkomo (2012)	10 res. leaders	Interviews (participant selection)	Direct quotations (forming sub-sections)	√
Horne et al. (2016)	301 academics	Path analysis	Tabulation and figure	√√	Evans (2014)	50 acad. (junior)	Interviews (analysis steps)	Direct quotations (forming sub-sections)	√
Uslu (2016)	1,3098 faculty	Co-variance (ANCOVA)	Tabulation	√√	Kezar & Lester (2014)	no number (STEM researchers)	Interviews (campus-based)	Assessment (from campuses)	√
Meng et al. (2017)	857 postgrads.	Struc. Equa. Modelling	Tabulation and figure	√√	Macfarlane & Chan (2014)	63 academic obituaries	Word frequency (themes)	Direct quotations (Tables of word frequencies)	√
Uslu & Arslan (2018)	937 faculty	Struc. Equa. Modelling	Tabulation and figure	√√	Rohwer (2015)	13 emerging res. leaders	Interviews (frequency counts)	Direct quotations (frequency)	√
Mohnot (2019)	372 acad. leaders	Descriptive & inferential	Tabulation and graph	√√	Robins et al. (2016)	8 participants	(Open-ended) survey	Direct quotations (frequency)	√
					van Driel et al. (2017)	18 practitioners	Interviews (no clues for themes)	Direct quotations (tabulation)	√

					McConnell (2018)	52 military students	Questionnaire & interviews (no clear analysis tech.)	Direct quotations (tabulation)	√
					Uslu & Welch (2018)	13 senior academics	Interview (inter-coder reliability)	Direct quotations (forming sub-sections)	√√
					Macfarlane & Burg (2019)	30 professors	Interviews/content analysis (theme assignment)	Direct quotations (following themes)	√√

Mixed (Quantitative and Qualitative together)

Article	*Sample – Study Group*	*Analysis - Credibility*	*Reporting - Evidence*	*Rating*
Macfarlane (2011)	233 professors 15 professors	Questionnaire (descriptive) Interviews (no analysis section)	Tabulation Direct quotations (summary table)	√
van den Brink (2015)	971 reports 64 professors	Report analysis (descriptive) Interviews (no analysis section)	Percentages Direct quotations	√
Browning et al. (2017)	30 research leaders	Questionnaire + CV Interviews (time calculation)	Percentages-Means Direct quotations-Graphs	√
Evans (2017)	No number for survey respondents 20 professors	Questionnaire (descriptive) Interviews (following res.ques.)	Percentage graphs Direct quotations	√
Macfarlane (2017)	108 survey respondents	Questionnaire (descriptive) Comments (grounded theory)	Graphs Direct quotations	√√
Qwusu et al. (2017)	No number of interviewees 119 res. leaders+37 res.team Mmbrs	Focus groups (no analysis tech) Survey (descriptive+inferential)	Direct quotations Statistical outputs+Tables+Graphs	√