

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**MENTORING IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: ASSESSMENT OF
ACADEMIC STAFF MENTORING AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO STAFF
DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT
MANAGEMENT

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BY

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**THIS THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND
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DECLARATION

Candidate's declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere:

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: Mohammed Sulemana

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Supervisor's declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Dr. Jonas A. Akudugu



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my lovely wife and children

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ABSTRACT

The study assessed academic staff mentoring approaches in the University for Development Studies (UDS) and how it contributes to staff development. The Social Network Theory (SNT) was adopted to serve as a theoretical foundation for the study. Cluster, simple random and purposive sampling techniques were employed in selecting the respondents for the study. In all, 224 respondents were selected for the study. Tools employed for data collection were interview guide and questionnaire. Findings from the research show that informal approach to mentoring was commonly practiced. The findings show that the Nyankpala Campus was highest in the use of informal mentoring approaches followed by the Navrongo Campus. Although both formal and informal approaches are used, majority (32.2%) of the respondents see informal mentoring as the most effective approach. The study has also revealed that contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University was not significant, for instance, a chi-square test on mentoring a teaching skills shows 0.222 which is insignificant at 5%. Challenges in mentoring identified were lack of commitment by top management, absence of mentoring units in UDS, lack of incentives for senior members, unwillingness of mentees to avail themselves for mentoring in the University among others. The study concludes that mentoring in UDS has not greatly contributed to staff development. It was recommended that the Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) should fully implement the University mentoring policy to reap the full benefits of it. It was also recommended that steps be taken by the top management of the University to strengthen formal mentoring to compliment the informal mentoring of staff in the University.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xi
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Problem Statement.....	5
1.3 Research Questions.....	6
1.4 Research Objectives:.....	6
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	7
1.6 Scope of the Study.....	8
1.7 Organization of the Study.....	8
1.8 Limitations.....	9
CHAPTER TWO.....	10
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	10
2.1 Introduction.....	10
2.2 Mentoring.....	10
2.3 Mentoring and Coaching.....	14
2.4 Historical Perspective of Mentoring.....	16
2.5 Approaches /Forms of Mentoring.....	19
2.6 Benefits of Mentoring.....	25
2.7 Selection of Mentors and Mentees for Effective Mentoring.....	30
2.8 Mentoring in Higher Educational Institutions.....	34
2.9 Academic Staff Development.....	39
2.10 Empirical Links between Mentoring and Staff Development.....	42
2.11 Challenges of Mentoring.....	45





2.12 Theoretical Foundation	48
CHAPTER THREE	54
METHODOLOGY	54
3.1 Introduction	54
3.2 Profile of the University for Development Studies.....	54
3.3 Research Design	56
3.4 Target Population.....	58
3.5 Sampling Techniques	58
3.6 Sample Size	60
3.7 Sources of Data.....	61
3.8 Methods of Data Collection	62
3.8.1 Questionnaire Administration.....	62
3.8.2 Key Informant Interviews	64
3.9 Data Analysis	66
CHAPTER FOUR	70
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	70
4.1 Introduction	70
4.2 Demographic Characteristics	70
4.3 Mentoring Forms/Approaches.....	92
4.4 Utilization of the formal and informal approaches	99
4.5 Mentoring and academic staff development in the University.....	112
4.6 Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University	123
CHAPTER FIVE.....	129
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	129
5.1 Introduction	129
5.2 Summary of Findings	129
5.2.1 Mentoring Forms/Approaches in the University.....	129
5.2.2 Utilization of the formal and informal approaches.....	130
5.2.3 Contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University.....	130
5.2.4 Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University	130
5.3 Conclusions	131
5.4 Recommendations.....	131
Suggestions for Further Studies	133

REFERENCES.....	135
APPENDIX I	145
APPENDIX II	152

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



LIST OF TABLES

Table 4. 1: Gender and Religious Affiliation of Respondents 70

Table 4. 2: Age of Respondents 72

Table 4. 3: Length of service of staff in the University 73

Table 4. 4: Highest Academic Qualification at First Entry 74

Table 4. 5: Rank at First Entry 76

Table 4. 6: Current Highest Academic Qualification 77

Table 4. 7: Current Rank at the University 79

Table 4. 8: Awareness of the Mentoring Policy 84

Table 4. 9: Accessibility of the policy 86

Table 4. 10: Consideration of lecturers’ needs during the policy formulation 89

Table 4. 11: Agreement with Guidelines for the Implementation of the Policy 91

Table 4. 12: Policy implementation 92

Table 4. 13: Mentoring Approaches in the University 93

Table 4. 14: Mentoring Approach Commonly Practiced 97

Table 4. 15: Utilization of Formal Mentoring Approaches 100

Table 4. 16: Factors that influence formal mentoring in UDS 102

Table 4. 17: Effectiveness of the Mentoring Policy in achieving its objectives 103

Table 4. 18: Existence of informal mentoring in UDS 104

Table 4. 19: Timeline for informal mentoring relationship 105

Table 4. 20: Rating of informal mentoring relationships 106

Table 4. 21: Patronage of the informal Mentoring Approaches 108

Table 4. 22: Factors that influence informal mentoring relationship 109

Table 4. 23: Effectiveness of Formal and Informal Mentoring Approaches 110

Table 4. 24: Factors to consider in matching mentees to mentors 111



Table 4. 25: Involvement of potential mentees in the process	112
Table 4. 26: Impact of Mentoring on Research Output	113
Table 4. 27: Impact of Mentoring on Teaching Skills	114
Table 4. 28: Impact of Mentoring on Rapid Promotions	115
Table 4. 29: Impact of Mentoring on Further Studies.....	116
Table 4. 30: Impact of Mentoring on Community Service and Networking	117
Table 4. 31: Staff Development Models that respondents have been part of.....	120
Table 4. 32: Views on whether mentoring is well planned, guided and it provides training and networking opportunities for academic staff	121



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2. 1: Social Network.....50

Figure 2. 2: Conceptual
Framework.....502

Figure 4. 1: Schools and Faculties 81

Figure 4. 2: Respondents’ Understanding of Mentoring 82

Figure 4. 3: Stakeholder Engagements 87

Figure 4. 4: Major Stakeholders Engaged 88

Figure 4. 5: Participation in informal mentoring process 98

Figure 4. 6: Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University 127



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DAPQA	Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance
SNT	Social Network Theory
IHE	Institutions of Higher Education
FOA	Faculty of Agriculture
FRNR	Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources
FACS	Faculty of Agribusiness and Communications
SOE	School of Engineering
FAS	Faculty of Applied Sciences
FMS	Faculty of Mathematical Sciences
FIDS	Faculty of Integrated Development Studies
FPLM	Faculty of Planning and Land Management
SBL	School of Business and Law
SMHS	School of Medicine and Health Sciences
SAHS	School of Allied Health Sciences
FOE	Faculty of Education
ICEIR	Institute for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research
IIRaCS	Institute of Interdisciplinary Research and Consultancy Services
SRA	Senior Research Assistant
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
T&D	Training and Development



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The greatest asset of any university is its staff and there is always the need to develop the staff capabilities, especially the younger ones and the newly recruited, and one of the human resource development tools used by management, especially in recent times is mentoring (Murphy, 2014). As the saying goes “seedlings in an old forest, tend to grow better in the presence of old trees”, which implies that mentoring has both natural and scientific underpinnings. In the social world, mentoring has a continuous sustenance for value addition through participatory learning process (Wong and Premkumar, 2007). People experience mentoring at various life stages, and it is therefore not surprising that there are three distinct streams of mentoring scholarship—youth mentoring, workplace mentoring and academic mentoring (Eby et al., 2008), and any of these can either be formal or informal.

Corporate and educational institutions to a large extent are seen as symbolic figures in the mentoring process which contributes significantly to organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Naires and Ukpere, 2010). Organisations place much emphasis on mentoring programmes through training and development efforts in order to enhance employee’s knowledge, skills and ability, with the aim to improving employee’s work performance in order to achieve organisational goals (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004). Generally, when people join a new organization, “they need guidance





concerning the goals, values and expectations, as well as the hidden rules, and the day-to-day inner workings of the organization” (Pepper, 2014: p.2). This, therefore, borders on mentoring. Mentoring is therefore “a form of professional socialisation whereby a more experienced individual acts as a guide, role model, teacher and patron to a less experienced person (mentee) purposely to facilitate further development and refinement of the mentee’s skills, abilities, and understanding” (Moses, 1989: cited in Jacobi, 1991: p.508). According to Wong and Premkumar (2007), mentoring has three models – the apprentice, competency and reflective models. Unanimously among the foregoing models, mentoring is seen as an intentional, nurturing and insightful process that provides a powerful growth experience for both the mentors and mentees either in a formal or an informal way. Insightfully, to Blaber and Glazebrook (2006), mentoring can take several forms to include: traditional mentoring – one adult to one young person; group mentoring – one adult working with a small number of young people; team mentoring – several adults working with small groups of young people; peer mentoring – caring youth mentoring other youth; and e-mentoring – mentoring via email and the internet.

Mentoring is one of the best tools for the creation of better norms of collegiality, collaboration and it provides a structured system for strengthening and assuring the continuity of organisational culture (Sweeney, 2004). These all contribute to organisational success and effectiveness (Wilson and Elman, 1990). Naires and Ukpere (2010) and Dankwa and Dankwa (2013), argue that mentoring programmes in tertiary institutions for staff, especially the academic staff can reduce the shortcoming experiences by the institutions in terms of human resource capacity building needed to

attain academic excellence. This stems from the fact that mentoring as a social learning process places emphasis on learning from other people through models of expected behaviour and norms (Zachary, 2000).

In the academic circles, there have been growing concerns for the need to pass on knowledge from the experienced faculty members to the relatively inexperienced faculty members for competitive advantage in both the local and international arenas (Okurame, 2008). Public Universities in Ghana just like other universities across the globe have been making strenuous efforts to mentor their staff for greater efficiency (Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013; Kumi-Boateng, 2014). This rests on the fact that academic work in educational institutions is largely labour intensive, therefore, the staff, especially the academic staff need to be equipped with appropriate knowledge and skills to be able to discharge their duties efficiently and effectively.

Mentoring is not a new phenomenon, especially in the academia – be it student mentoring or staff mentoring; and it has even become more pronounced in recent times as the need to have superior quality staff for competitive advantage is gaining attention (Okurame, 2008). Research has revealed that mentoring relationships in the institutions of higher learning are either informal or formal or a combination of the two. Informal or passive mentoring relationship normally arises spontaneously and it is largely psychosocial in nature as it helps to enhance the mentee's self-esteem, confidence and self-image by providing emotional support and discovering the mentee's potentials (Nnaemeke, 2015; Wong and Premkumar, 2007). Informal mentoring is generally developed naturally where an experienced faculty member takes a less experienced member under his/her wings ostensibly to provide a long-term





career guidance. Formal or standardized mentoring on the other hand, is usually organized in the workplace where management identifies employees' needs and officially assign them to mentors with the sole aim of developing their career paths for personal and professional development of the mentees and that of the organization (Wong and Premkumar, 2007). The mentorship in this context is well planned, guided and it is supported with training and networking opportunities (Meschitti, 2016). Goals and timelines in formal mentoring are clearly spelt out so that at the end of the day, the success or otherwise of the mentoring relationship would be measured (Zachary, 2000). In whichever form the mentoring takes, literature reveals that the institution stands to benefit enormously if shoulders are put to the wheels, even though there may be structural challenges such as lack of funding and institutional commitments.

Studies have revealed that some public universities in Ghana have mentoring programmes guided by documented policies, while others proceed with their mentoring programmes without documented policy frameworks (Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013; Kumi-Boateng, 2014; Agalga and Thompson, 2016). The University for Development Studies (UDS) has a mentoring policy which embraces both formal and informal approaches with emphasis on the former.

Even though the concept of mentoring is embraced by institutions of higher education (IHE) as a tool for human resource development, literature on academic mentoring is quite fragmented (Meschitti, 2014; Okurame, 2008; Knippelmeyer and Torracco, 2007) as much attention has not been given to it by researchers. Owing to the seeming lack of research interest in the discipline, it is not very clear how mentoring is done the

IHE. This study, therefore, seeks to examine how the two mentoring approaches are used to develop the capabilities of the academic staff in the UDS.

1.2 Problem Statement

Mentoring which is as old as human history has been largely used as a strategic tool for developing human skills and capabilities in the corporate world and the academic environment, especially the corporate world due to its enormous benefits (Banerjee-Batist, 2014; Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013; Okurame, 2008). Mentoring is basically where a less experienced person is attached to a more experienced person for purposes of personal and professional development. Both the practitioner and research-based literature are full of anecdotal and factual importance of mentoring; whether formal or informal in career and psychosocial development of professionals in organisations including academic institutions (Blake-Beard, 1999).

Studies have revealed that early career development of the youth at workplaces, promotions, greater job satisfaction, and lower labour turnover among young and newly recruited staff in organizations are to a large extent attributable to mentoring (Hanover Research, 2014; Nick et al., 2012). In addition, mentoring young and newly recruited employees' amounts to leadership development and succession planning which means that the organization is grooming the young ones to occupy key positions in the organization when the old and the experienced staff eventually leave (Chesterman, 2001).

Despite the importance of mentoring, much attention has not been given to it in the area of research, especially in the IHE. As a result of the seeming lack of attention



giving to mentoring, it is not very clear as to how university staff are mentored – approaches being used and its impact on staff development. This study, therefore, seeks to assess the mentoring approaches being employed over the years to mentor the academic staff of the UDS and their impact on staff development as well as challenges associated with mentoring in the University. This will help us understand the strengths and weaknesses of these approaches and their overall contribution to staff development in the UDS.

1.3 Research Questions

The main research question: How are academic staff in UDS mentored and what is the contribution of mentoring to staff development in the institution?

The specific research questions include:

1. What are the mentoring approaches used in UDS?
2. How are the mentoring approaches utilized in UDS?
3. How does mentoring contribute to academic staff development in UDS?
4. What are the challenges associated with academic staff mentoring in UDS?

1.4 Research Objectives:

The main objective of the study is to assess academic staff mentoring approaches in the UDS and how it contributes to staff development.

The specific research objectives are:

1. To examine the mentoring approaches used in the University;
2. To ascertain how the mentoring approaches are utilized in the University;



3. To find out the contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University; and

4. To examine the challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to assess the formal and informal mentoring approaches in the UDS. Findings of the study would, therefore, be useful to the Training and Development Unit of the University in terms of human resource development for competitive advantage. Ghana in recent times has witnessed a surge in the number of tertiary institutions which makes the educational sector more competitive than ever. This, therefore, requires the universities to have the superior quality staff to favourably compete, and this can best be achieved through mentoring of the young and the newly recruited academic staff.

Findings of this study would also among other things help tertiary institutions in the country to roll out cutting-edge mentoring programmes to enable staff to develop their career paths for personal growth and for the overall development of the institutions.

Finally, the study would be contributing to the expansion of frontiers of knowledge on mentoring, particularly in Ghana. In effect, this study will cover the literature gap on approaches to academic staff mentoring in public universities and contribute to the ongoing debate on the effectiveness of mentoring (formal and informal) to improving employees' performance in both private and public institutions in Ghana for the overall attainment of the organizational goals.



1.6 Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study was conducted in the UDS. The UDS is a multi-campus university and the study therefore, covered all the four (4) satellite campuses in Northern Ghana which include: Nyankpala, Navrongo, Wa and Tamale Campuses. This is because the university achieves its success based on the performance staff at all the satellite campuses which mentoring should be at the heart of every staff.

The study assessed formal and informal approaches to mentoring of only academic staff of the University and its contribution to staff development. Also, there will be a critical examination of challenges in the mentoring process in the university. It is important to acknowledge that all staff of the university, ranging from administrative professionals to technical workers, and clerical workers need mentoring to develop their capabilities. However, the scope of this study does not include mentoring for all the full staffing categories of the university. It is limited to academic staff since they constitute majority of the university staff and also due to resource constraints



1.7 Organization of the Study

The thesis report consists of five (5) chapters. Chapter one (1) consists of the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, and the scope of the study. Chapter two (2) is devoted to the literature review. This covers the concept of mentoring, historical perspective of mentoring, forms of mentoring, benefits of mentoring, mentoring in higher educational institutions, academic staff development, empirical links between mentoring and staff development, and challenges of mentoring. The chapter also covers the theoretical and

conceptual frameworks. Chapter three (3) contains the research methodology – profile of the study institution, research design, target population, sample size and sampling approach, data sources, data collection instruments, validity and reliability. Chapter four (4) consists of presentation of results and discussions. Finally, Chapter (5) consists of summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

1.8 Limitations

A study of this nature should have covered a good number of both public and private tertiary institutions in the country and all the staff categories, but due to time and resource constraints, the study has been limited to only the academic staff of the UDS. The respondents also did not fully cooperate with the researcher as expected. It took much longer time than initially anticipated to persuade the respondents to respond to the questionnaires.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature. Scholarly works on mentoring in social, corporate and educational institutions are reviewed. The scholarly works include articles, books, journals, and other well-researched documents on mentoring. To best address the research questions and objectives, literature is reviewed on the following thematic areas: the concept of mentoring; the historical perspective of mentoring; approaches to mentoring, mentoring in academic institutions; academic staff development, contribution of mentoring to academic staff development, challenges faced by tertiary institutions in mentoring academic staff and theoretical foundation. Finally, based on the reviewed literature, a conceptual framework is constructed.

2.2 Mentoring

Mentoring just like many other disciplines has no concise definition. As Merriam (1983), cited in Jacobi (1991) notes, mentoring is not clearly conceptualized, thereby leading to confusion as to just what is being measured or offered as an ingredient in success. According to Merriam (1983), cited in Jacobi (1991), mentoring means different things to different people to developmental psychologists, business people, and those in the academia. Nnaemeka (2015) indicates that mentoring relationships are practiced in various facets of the society including corporations, governments, colleges and universities, schools, and communities, hence, the varying definitions.





The Center for Health Leadership and Practice (2003:1) defines mentoring “as a process in which an experienced individual helps another person develop his or her goals and skills through a series of time-limited, confidential, one-on-one conversations and other learning activities”. It can be deduced from the definition that mentoring is systematically carried out with deliberate and sustained efforts – it is not a one-time event. Also, mentoring relationship according to the Center for Health Leadership and Practice (2003) has a time-bound, which means that mentoring an individual cannot be done forever. The definition again suggests that there should be confidentiality in mentoring as well as the regular face-to-face interaction between the mentor and the mentee for the attainment of the mentoring goals.

Hall (2002) defines mentoring as an intentional relationship that is primarily focused on developing the capabilities and interpersonal relationship of a relatively inexperienced person (mentee) through interactions and reflection. Hall (2002) lays emphasis on the primary function of mentoring which has to do with developing the mentee’s learning capacity by transmitting knowledge, organizational culture, wisdom, and experiences.

From a sociological point of view, MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership (2005:11) sees mentoring as a situation whereby caring individuals, known as mentors who, “along with parents or guardians, provide young people with support, counsel, friendship, reinforcement and a constructive example”. According to MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership (2005:11), mentoring is not a one-size-fits-all concept, which means every young person who would benefit from a mentoring relationship has individual needs. This means that, for the mentoring programme to be

effective, it must be flexible enough to meet the unique needs of each and every mentee.

For people in the corporate world, mentoring is where a senior member in an organization shares values, norms, and provides career counseling and emotional support for a junior member in order to increase performance for the realization of the organisational goals and objectives (Olian et al, 1988). Olian et al (1988) indicate that, mentoring in organisations centres on sharing of organizational values, norms, and philosophy which is the bedrock of organizational success.

In learning institutions, Early Childhood and School Education Group (2016:3), refers to the term ‘mentor’ as “knowledgeable, experienced, highly proficient teacher who works with and alongside a beginning teacher or less experienced colleague – quite closely at first but closeness gradually diminishes as the new teacher becomes more capable and confident”. The Early Childhood and School Education (2016) emphasize that the mentor in this context is not an instructor and the beginning teacher is not also a student – they are colleague teachers. Mentors according to the Early Childhood and School Education Group (2016) have deeper knowledge about teaching and learning, and that this practical wisdom that cannot be printed in a book, yet, this knowledge and know-how are invaluable to new teachers. This suggests that new teachers can best perform if they are properly mentored by more experienced teachers.

Mentoring in tertiary educational institutions is seen as “a process whereby an experienced senior faculty member helps to develop a less experienced junior faculty member” (Dawn and Palmer, 2009:126). In this relationship, the experienced senior faculty member (mentor) will guide, advise, inspire, challenge, correct and also serves



as a role model to the less experienced junior faculty member (mentee) ostensibly to help develop the professional and academic career of the mentee. The mentor who is more knowledgeable, experienced, and highly proficient teacher works closely with the newly recruited teacher (mentee) at first, but as time goes on, the closeness gradually reduces as the novice teacher becomes more capable and confident on the job.

Similar to Dawn and Palmer's definition, Naris and Ukpere (2010:355) define mentoring as a "process whereby a senior staff member assists a junior member to understand the code of behaviour within academia and further supports and encourages them in developing a career as academics". Lester and Johnson (1981) added that mentoring is a function of educational institutions which basically has to do with a one-to-one learning relationship between an older person (mentor) and a younger person (mentee) that is based on modeling behaviour and extended dialogue between them. Dawn and Palmer's definition will, therefore, be used as the operational definition for academic staff mentoring in this study. In this context, the mentoring relationship is not a teacher-student relationship – the mentor is not an instructor, neither is the mentee a student, but colleague teachers in the academia.

From the foregoing definitions, what runs through is that, mentoring in whatever form or setting, basically concerns with developing the capabilities of the person that is being mentored for the ultimate good of the organization. It can also be inferred from the views of the various scholars that mentoring revolves around the transfer of knowledge, wisdom, experience, and values from the more experienced person, known as the mentor to less experienced person, the mentee. This is in line with the African





belief that wisdom stems from old age. It is also observed that in mentoring relationships, whether in spontaneous or assigned relationships, the mentors are often older and far more experienced compared to their mentees. What cuts across in any form of mentoring relationship is the unwavering allegiance and respect accorded to mentors by their mentees in order to get the full benefits of the mentor's experience, knowledge, and wisdom. Finally, mentoring according to the definitions is an unequal relationship in that one party (mentor) is considered to have more knowledge, experience, and skills than another person (mentee) which the mentor can offer the mentee for personal growth and development.

2.3 Mentoring and Coaching

Scholars have divergent views about mentoring and coaching. Some are of the view that mentoring and coaching are intertwined, while others argue that they are different concepts altogether and should not, therefore, be used interchangeably. In the Manchester Metropolitan University Mentoring Guidelines, coaching is regarded as a function of mentoring. In the guidelines, mentor's roles are broadly categorized into four (4) – networking, counselling, facilitating and coaching. The coaching role according to the Mentoring Guide entails the mentor working closely with the mentee to encourage him/her develop relevant skills and attitudes for the future. The coaching role in mentoring therefore centers on the ability of the mentor to help the mentee see beyond the prevailing situation and to identify an ideal future and what needs to be done now in order to achieve the envisaged ideal future – setting personal and professional goals and devising strategies and actions to be taken by the mentee for the attainment of the goals. Spiller (2011) and Pepper (2014) also see coaching and

supervision as activities of mentoring. This means that coaching is a subset of mentoring.

On the contrary, Chesterman (2001) sees mentoring and coaching as different disciplines used for personal and professional development of individuals. According to Chesterman (2001), coaching places much emphasis on organization and establishes clearly designed outcomes unlike mentoring which focuses more on individual needs and usually has vague objectives, especially informal mentoring. However, Chesterman (2001), indicates that proper formal mentoring programme fulfills similar objectives as a coaching scheme. Further, Vodák (2013) indicates that mentoring and coaching are often seen to be overlapping due to lack of knowledge of their real mission and purpose. According to Vodák (2013), mentoring and coaching are different tools used in employees' performance management in organizations.

Vodák, (2013), adapted from Beevers and Rea (2010) made comparison between mentoring and coaching. According to the Beevers and Rea (2010) the differences are underpinned by; Context (in coaching, focus is on problems related to work, tasks and performance, while mentoring is concerned with issues related to work, career, and personality), Relationship (A coach is often a line manager, trainer or external coach, while in mentoring, usually a service-senior experienced colleague from the close work group), Expertise (A coach can and does not have to be experienced in the area where he is coaching, but mentor usually has more knowledge and experience on the issue than the mentee), Approach (A coach supports achieving of new goals, he wants the coached one to find his own solutions, while in mentoring bigger acceptance of the



mentor leads to bigger directiveness, role of a counselor and enables the mentee to share and learn from the mentor's experience).

From the foregoing views of scholars on mentoring and coaching, it can be deduced that the two concepts are really related, but they are not the same. Both are strategic human development tools used in organizations to develop the talents and capabilities of the employee. The researcher will therefore not use mentoring and coaching interchangeably in this study.

2.4 Historical Perspective of Mentoring

Mentoring has a historical antecedent believed to have originated from Greek mythology –Homer's story of the Odyssey (Scandura and Pellegrini, 2007). It narrates how King Odysseus entrusted his only son, Telemachus into the care of his trusted friend, "Mentor" when he was preparing to go and fight in the Trojan Wars which lasted for a decade.

Among other things, the Mentor was to serve as a friend, advisor, counsellor, supporter, and teacher to Telemachus in his father's absence ostensibly to prepare him to succeed his father as king. Because of the role played by the King's friend, Mentor, the term "mentor" is often associated with concepts like a friend, counsellor, teacher, advisor, and supporter in contemporary literature (Wilson and Elman, 1990).

This all-knowing and powerful figure that Homer describes as "Mentor" has shaped the modern-day expectations and perceptions of what a mentor does – or more importantly what a mentor should do. The legend that served as a mentor to Telemachus in his father's absence was a woman, and interestingly, the majority of people who



often volunteer to serve as mentors in formal mentoring programmes are women (Karla, 2006), suggesting that mentoring has bearing on gender role in the society.

Most of the earliest mentoring research utilized this Greek classical concept of mentoring, regarding mentoring as a foundational relationship that facilitates the development of young adolescents into adulthood (Eby et al., 2008). Giving the historical background of mentoring, Kolade (2015) and Ekechukwu and Horsfall (2015) unequivocally state that mentoring is as old as human history – it has been in existence several centuries ago. Naire and Ukpere (2010) add that learning process, and for that matter, mentoring begins right from the very day we were born, the first steps we took and it continues throughout our lives in order for us to be successful in our chosen endeavours.

Further, mentoring and outdoor education according to Owusu (2012) has been notable features of African societies from time immemorial. Owusu (2012: 21) indicates that “in the traditional setting for example, children are guided by their elders in the course of their daily activities to acquire the necessary skills and competencies for life. More importantly, future heads of clans and chiefs are mentored or coached in the courts of older ones”.

Mentoring has therefore been regarded as one of the learning methods used to enhance individuals’ learning and development in all spheres of life. Wood (1997), however, indicates that the term “mentor” did not formally become visible in common usage until it appeared in titles of books aimed at helping young people unearth their talents and potentials during the 18th and 19th centuries. Mentoring as it is known today is loosely modeled on the historical craftsman/apprentice relationship, where young



people learned a trade by shadowing the master artisan, and it was in the mid-70s, that corporate America redefined mentoring as a career development strategy (Metros and Yang, 2006).

In the late 1970s, the concept of mentoring was studied and started receiving attention in the professional literature and broadened over the years (Provident, 2005). Provident (2005), asserts that Levinson and Roche were among the pioneer researchers to study mentoring which greatly aroused people's interest in the subject thereby giving it the academic legitimacy. Scandura and Pellegrini (2007) add that, though mentoring is not a new phenomenon, organizational mentoring, however, gained the attention of practitioners and academicians only within the last three decades.

Chesterman (2001: 6) asserts that "mentoring is part of all our lives. As young people, we learn and take advice from parents, teachers, and friends. Throughout working life, people also may have many mentors, usually at different stages of their development". Mentoring is, therefore, part and parcel of human life which is either carried out consciously or unconsciously.

Right from birth through formative stages of childhood to adulthood, mentoring takes place. Since generations, it has been a belief that adults have an embedded responsibility in molding and grooming the younger ones to take up leadership positions in the society in future. From the foregoing literature, it is clear that mentoring is not a new phenomenon, only that it did not receive the professional attention until the late 1970s.



2.5 Approaches /Forms of Mentoring

Just like many other disciplines, mentoring is broadly categorized into two forms – informal and formal mentoring relationships (Meschitti, 2016; Nnaemeke, 2015; Wong and Premkumar, 2007; Karta, 2006; Metros and Yang, 2006; Ragins and Cotton, 1999). Informal mentoring is a voluntary mentoring relationship that is not assigned and basically lacks structure about how a mentor should work with a mentee (Lumpkin, 2011). This means that individual self-selects the person they would like to be mentored by either consciously or unconsciously – the relationship gradually and generally develops naturally and may not necessarily be identified as mentoring at the beginning.

This form of mentoring relationship normally occurs or arises spontaneously and it is largely psychosocial in nature– as it helps to enhance the mentee’s self-esteem, confidence and self-image by providing emotional support and discovery (Nnaemeke, 2015; Wong and Premkumar, 2007). Karta (2006), adds that natural or informal mentoring occurs within established, caring relationships which is often within extended families or the child’s existing support network, and it is often provided when someone reaches out to give support or offer direction.

According to Okurame (2008), mentoring relationships in most institutions are often developed spontaneously which sometimes hinge on the closeness of the people, hierarchical line of responsibility, ethnicity, admiration, competence, shared values, and gender considerations. Scandura and Pellegrini (2007) note that, in informal mentoring, people usually experience multiple mentoring. Thus, people often develop a number of mentoring relationships during their personal and career development.



Kram (1983) indicates that people do not usually have only one mentor, but multiple mentors for their personal and professional development. To Scandura and Pellegrini (2007), having multiple mentoring relationships brings about greater organisational commitment, job satisfaction, accelerated career development, and lowers ambiguity regarding one's work.

Informal mentoring relationships have loosely defined objectives and therefore not mandatory (Metros and Yang, 2006). In organisations and communities, informal mentoring relationships are very common, as people within the organizations and communities naturally get attracted to each other for varying reasons; religious and ethnic considerations, gender and other considerations (Okurame, 2008).

According to Blake-Beard (1999), informal mentoring relationships have received considerable attention in all spheres of life including the business organisations and the academic world. Further, studies on mentoring in African universities reveal that the mentoring relationships that exist are both formal and informal, but largely informal (Okurame, 2008; Naris and Ukpere, 2010). Organisations, particularly academic institutions in recent times have started formalizing mentoring relationships with the aim of getting the maximum benefits from informal mentoring (Okurame, 2008).

On the other hand, formal mentoring is where conscious efforts are made by management of an organisation to attach less experienced staff to more experienced staff in order to help develop their capabilities over a defined period of time (Lumpkin, 2011). Implying that formal mentoring programme is sanctioned and managed by the organisation, usually by the programme coordinator, who is tasked with a



responsibility of facilitating the mentor-mentee relationships and regularly measure outcomes against the specific goals.

Reimers (2014) also sees formal mentoring as a type of mentoring in which management of an institution deliberately pairs a senior faculty member with a junior faculty member, usually from the same department, for a specified time period; and during which the senior faculty member assumes the responsibility of helping the junior faculty member to grow and develop professionally.

Reimers (2014) posits that in informal mentoring, the mentor and mentee are matched based on the belief that the mentor has what it takes to help facilitate the mentee's career development. Unlike informal mentoring relationships, formal mentor relationships are usually organized in the workplace where management identifies employees' needs and officially assign them to mentors ostensibly to develop their career paths for personal growth and that of the organization (Wong and Premkumar, 2007).

The mentorship in this context is well planned, guided and it is supported with training and networking opportunities (Meschitti, 2016) as formal training may be provided to both parties; the mentor and the mentee just to ensure that roles and responsibilities are properly understood and accordingly agreed to. Goals and timelines in formal mentoring are clearly spelt out so that at the end of the day, the success or otherwise of the mentoring relationship would be measured (Zachary, 2000). Blaber and Glazebrook (2006) in their guide for youth mentoring in Victoria, explain formal or planned mentoring as a relationship that is purposefully created to help a young person



(mentee) who otherwise might not have had the access to the wisdom and support of a caring adult (mentor).

According to Blaber and Glazebrook (2006) and Nnaemeke (2015), formal mentoring can take several forms – traditional mentoring (one adult to one young person); group mentoring (one adult working with a small number of young people); team mentoring (several adults working with small groups of young people); peer mentoring (caring youth mentoring other youth); and e-mentoring (mentoring via email and the internet).

Formal mentoring and informal mentoring relationships have several important differences. Researchers over the years have differentiated these relationships along three dimensions: initiation, structure, and process (Blake-Beard and Murrell, 2006): The initiation of formal mentoring relationships is externally directed by management of the institution; management generally determines the matches between mentors and mentees.

In contrast, informal mentoring relationships are initiated when two people are drawn toward each other because of common needs, interests or perceived similarity (Okurame, 2008). The principle of similarity and attraction confirms that people usually form relationships with others whom they perceive to be like them. But in formal mentoring relationships, as the initiation is directed externally, the mentors and mentees may not have the same level of comfort and connection in the early phases as those that start their relationships informally (Blake-Beard and Murrell, 2006).

Studies have also revealed that the formal mentoring relationship structure differs considerably from that of informal mentoring relationship. Formal mentoring



relationships are generally contracted for a specific amount of time and often characterized by predetermined location and frequency of meetings between the mentor and the mentee, while informal mentoring relationships have less predetermined structure and last for a longer period of time – the meetings and activities take place as and when the need arises (Blake-Beard and Murrell, 2006; Zachary, 2000). This means that formal mentoring relationship is time-bound and the meetings between the mentee and the mentor are quite frequent and held at a designated place unlike informal mentoring relationship.

Another well noting difference in terms of the structure of formal and informal mentoring is the types of goals used in the relationship. In formal mentoring relationships, goals are often pre-set at the beginning of the relationship and these goals are determined by the institution rather than the mentee and mentor in the relationship (Zachary, 2000). In contrast, goals set in informal mentoring relationships change over time as opposed to being determined at the beginning of the relationship and are usually shaped by the needs and interactions that take place between the mentor and mentee (Blaber and Glazebrook, 2006). In effect, goals in an informal mentoring relationship are not determined by people other than the mentee and the mentor.

The last dimension of the differences between the formal and informal mentoring is how the interpersonal relationship could be influenced by the formalization of the mentoring process. In this case, two processes are paramount – the motivation of the mentor and the mentor's ability to act on behalf of the mentee. Blake-Beard and Murrell (2006), posit that in formal mentoring relationships, the mentors and mentees are brought together through external forces, and for that matter, the mentor's



motivation and willingness to commit to the relationship is most likely not be as vibrant as that of informal mentors.

This difference suggests that formal mentors may be more driven by their desire to act as a “good organizational citizen” who are supporting their organizations by participating in the mentoring initiative rather than supporting and guiding their assigned mentees. Another difference is that mentors in formal relationships may be more visible, and therefore less able to engage in career development behaviors that may be construed as favoritism by coworkers in the organization (Blake-Beard and Murrell, 2006).

There is an ongoing debate as to which of the forms is more effective in the academic circles. Clutterbuck (2004) asserts that formal mentoring is far more effective than informal mentoring, although most academics, particularly in the USA, suggest the opposite. Clutterbuck (2004) argues that when mentoring relationship is formalized, and goals are clearly defined with timelines, it gets organisational support and those involved in the relationship are also guided by the pre-determined goals as opposed to informal mentoring. Further, Formal mentoring increases job performance, enhances confidence, facilitates networking, and decreases labour turnover, thereby impacting positively on the entire department and by extension, the whole institution (Lumpkin 2011).

Reimers (2014) also argues that formal mentoring guarantees that every junior faculty member gets a mentor if paired formally unlike informal mentoring where some junior faculty members will get mentors (Reimers 2014). Naris and Ukpere (2010) also contend that informal mentoring is less rewarding and often not recognized by



institutions. But, Petersen and Walke (2012) and Blake-Beard and Murrell (2006) argue that mentoring relationships that are established voluntarily (informal mentoring relationship) tend to be more effective than those that are instructed (formal mentoring relationship). The argument is that when people willingly enter into a mentoring relationship, they are self-motivated to give of their best, unlike planned mentorship where the goals are determined by external forces.

Ragins and Cotton (1999) also argue that informal mentoring is largely egalitarian, lasts longer, and occurs with greater frequency than formal mentoring, thus making it more effective. Mentees in informal mentoring relationships also tend to have stronger connections and broader interactions with informal mentors as oppose to formal mentoring relationships (Sands et al., 1991). Lumpkin's (2011) study shows that mentees with informal mentors reported to have greater flexibility, higher satisfaction and greater benefits in most mentoring roles than those in formal mentoring relationships. In neutral perspective, the studies conducted by Haynes and Petrosko (2009) show that there is no definite conclusion on which of the forms is more effective.

2.6 Benefits of Mentoring

Benefits of mentoring are enormous. It is beneficial to the mentee, mentor, organization and the society as a whole (Ekechukwu and Horsfall, 2015; Robinson, 2014; Blaber and Glazebrook, 2006). As a result of the immense benefits of mentoring, it is fast becoming one of the easiest ways of developing the capabilities, skills, and talents of individuals in communities as well as many different organizations,



including universities (Wronka, 2012). Jucovy and Garringer (2008) affirm that both research and everyday life prove beyond any shred of doubt that young people need caring and consistent relationships with adults (mentors) in their day-to-day undertakings in order to navigate their way through the transition to a desirable state for their own good and that of the society.

These developmental transitions according to Ericson (1963) cited in Eby et al (2008) are critical turning points and that, if not navigated and managed successfully there are psychological and social consequences. Rhodes et al (2006) assert that mentoring benefits youth in three interrelated ways – enhancement of youth’s social relationships as well as emotional well-being, improving their cognitive skills, and promoting positive identity development. As the adults serve as models and advocates, the youth by observing and comparing the way of life of the adults to theirs will help shape their decisions and behaviours – they will emulate and internalize the attitudes, behaviors, and traits of individuals they wish to become in future (Rhodes et al, 2006).

In the academic institutions, Ryan (1986) cited in Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) says that new teachers are shrouded with a gamut of challenges which are attributable to their inexperience and the working environment. According to Ryan (1986) cited in Dankwa and Dankwa (2013), these challenges can easily be surmounted by attaching the novice teacher to a more experienced teacher who would serve as a guardian, counsellor, advisor, role model, and a trusted confidant to the beginning teacher. Blaber and Glazebrook (2006) also argue that mentoring improves mentees’ relationships with their families and peers, increases their overall communication skills with others, reduces feelings of isolation, reduces risky behaviours and stress. Blaber



and Glazebrook (2006) further indicate that mentoring enhances social and emotional development and career development of the mentees.

Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) find out that mentors encourage mentees on educational opportunities and career growth and development. According to these scholars, some of the personal benefits that accrue to the mentees from mentoring also include: increase in self-esteem, self-respect, and self-confidence. These benefits to a very large extent assist the mentee to identify and develop greatest determination and motivation to succeed in the chosen career.

Further, effective mentoring affords the mentee the opportunity to gain access to the mentor's years of accumulated knowledge, experience and expertise and this will certainly help the mentee to be more efficient and effective in the discharge of their duties in both private and public life. Studies also indicate that "mentoring assist mentees in acquiring such skills as technical, interpersonal, time management and self-organizational skills. These skills will ultimately provide the mentee with greater independence in terms of increased decision making, planning, and problem-solving skills" (Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013: 6). In the educational institutions, there is evidence from the literature that mentoring programmes help newly recruited teachers in schools to become seasoned teachers – learn school procedures and policies as well as classroom management strategies (Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013).

Studies have also revealed that early career development of the youth at workplaces, promotions, higher income, greater job satisfaction, and reduced turnover among young and newly recruited staff in organizations are to a large extent attributable to mentoring (Hanover Research, 2014; Nick et al., 2012). And all these will bring about



organisational effectiveness and efficiency – increase in productivity at least cost, enhancement of organisational socialisation and promotion of organisational culture. Mentoring young and newly recruited employees also amounts to succession planning which means that the organization is grooming the young ones to occupy key positions in the organization when the old and the experienced staff eventually leave (Chesterman, 2001).

Chesterman (2001) further argues that mentoring can enhance employees' morale and provide mechanisms for assisting with conflict resolution within the organization and as well provide a platform for building and extending knowledge of the organization's values and culture. Also, Nick et al., (2012) adds that staff mentoring leads to organisational commitment which is essential to organizational success. This implies that good mentorship, therefore, enhances mentees' psychological state and job satisfaction that increases their commitment to the organization and therefore has implications for continuous membership of the organization.

According to Naris and Ukpere (2010), investing in mentoring programmes for young academic staff ensures human resource capacity building which is a prerequisite for achieving academic institutions' visions and missions. With superior human resource base, Naris and Ukpere (2010) posit that tertiary institutions will be a prime centre for academic excellence. Related to this, research by Ekechukwu and Horsfall (2015) reveals that mentoring increases the profile of the institution as it places a high value on supporting and developing its academic staff and increases the reputation of the institution as a result of improved quality of research and teaching.





Aside the benefits of mentoring to the mentees and the organizations, mentors also benefit tremendously. By virtue of mentors' involvement in the mentoring process, they can also acquire new skills through training, experience career revitalization, social recognition within and outside the organization, personal satisfaction, self-fulfillment and satisfaction in seeing others grow (Ekechukwu and Horsfall, 2015; Zachary, 2000; Blaber and Glazebrook, 2006; Jacobi, 1991). Further, mentors have the opportunity to share their wisdom and experiences, evolve their own thinking, increases generational awareness, develop new relationships, and deepen their skills for greater efficiency (Robinson, 2014; Center for Health Leadership and Practice, 2003).

Benefits of mentoring to the society as a whole are also not farfetched. Research has revealed that when the youth are well mentored, it leads to emergence of dynamic and visionary leaders, and reduction in brain drain for an ultimate increase in the national productivity (Geber, 2013; Blaber and Glazebrook, 2006). In the light of this, the Ghana National Youth Policy (2010) under the auspices of the Ministry of Youth and Sports recognizes and recommends mentoring as a strategy for nurturing and grooming the youth of the country for the future as proper mentoring has the tendency of making the youth to eschew social vices. Moreover, teacher mentoring has the tendency of improving the professional knowledge and skills that teachers need to train students under their care, which means that the future labour force requirement of the country is well catered for (Geber, 2013).

Despite the numerous positive benefits that have been linked to mentoring as a human resource development tool, (Darwin, 2004) reveals that mentoring can as well have

negative consequences including jealousy, overdependence, and unwanted romantic or sexual involvement in mentoring relationships, be it formal or informal mentoring. Scandura and Pellegrini (2007) also argue that there may be dysfunctional mentoring relationships – the relationship is neither beneficial to the mentee nor the mentor.

When dysfunctional mentoring relationship occurs, it brings about negative effects on the performance and work attitudes of the mentee, which may culminate in increased stress, absenteeism and low turnover (Scandura and Pellegrini, 2007). The possibility of passing obsolescent organizational values through mentoring is also high (Wilson and Elman, 1990), especially when the mentors are not receptive to change.

It can be concluded from the foregoing that, benefits of mentoring in human endeavours cannot be overemphasized, despite the few setbacks identified and highlighted by Darwin; Scandura and Pellegrini; and Wilson and Elman. It is, therefore, not surprising that organisations in contemporary times, including the educational institutions, now consider mentoring as a tool and strategy for human resource development for competitive advantage.

2.7 Selection of Mentors and Mentees for Effective Mentoring

The success or otherwise of a mentoring programme is greatly influenced by the way and manner mentors and mentees are selected for the programme. This means that selecting appropriate mentors and mentees for mentoring programmes is non-negotiable if the aims and expected outcomes are to be achieved (Garringer et al., 2015).



Therefore, the selection of mentors and mentees is critical in achieving the effectiveness of mentorship. According to Fibkins and Drecher (2007), a good mentor is expected to possess listening skills, questioning techniques, strong interpersonal skills, and strong supervisory skills, be much interested in the mentee's career development and must be a person who is easily approachable and have the ability to provide constructive feedback.

In a typical academic environment, a mentor in a mentoring relationship is supposed to provide support and guidance for the mentee to develop core competencies in teaching, research and extension work (community service), publication and general professional development. Mentors in the academia are therefore expected to possess the above-mentioned skills to be able to carry out these functions satisfactorily. If a mentor is found to be deficient in one way or the other, Garringer et al. (2015) suggest that they can be trained before the start of the mentoring programme.

Further, Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) posit that effective mentoring brings about quality teaching and learning in institutions of higher learning, which can only be realized through mentor's ability to practice effective mentorship. By implication, faculty members that are to be chosen as mentors for the mentoring programme should have an in-depth knowledge of the work environment, work ethics and overall vision and mission of the department, faculty and the university as a whole.

Just as it is critical to choose the right calibre of people to serve as mentors, selection of mentees and assigning them to mentors is equally important, if the mentoring programme is to chalk success. Garringer et al (2015) indicate that mentees often selected for mentoring programmes frequently report not knowing what to expect in



the mentoring programmes. For this reason, they recommend that when mentees are selected for participation in a mentoring programme, it is imperative to provide them with information about the aims and objectives of the mentoring programme and how helpful it will be to them.

Knowing the expectations of the mentees as well in mentoring relationships is icing on the cake. Further to this, a thorough needs assessment of mentees is of great importance. This will afford management the opportunity to identify the individual and unique needs of the mentees and thereafter formulate customized mentoring programmes to cater for their needs. It is against this backdrop that MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership (2005) indicates that mentoring is not a one-size-fits-all approach. High degree of flexibility according to the MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership is the hallmark of effective mentoring programmes.

Aside selecting the appropriate mentees and mentors, matching them is equally important for the effectiveness of the mentoring programme (Chesterman, 2001; Darwin, 2004; Bozeman and Feeney, 2007). This means that when mentors and mentees are mismatched, it affects cooperation and commitment to the relationship which will negatively affect the mentoring outcome. To ensure full cooperation of mentees in mentorship, Jacobi (1991) and Petersen & Walke (2012) advocate active participation of mentees in choosing their mentors – if need be, mentees should be allowed to choose their preferred mentors. This, they say, will give the mentees a high sense of ownership and belonging, and therefore be committed to the mentoring relationship.



When mentees are involved in choosing their own mentors it will help them identify mentors they can work with thereby contributing to a fruitful mentee-mentor relationship. Evidence from vast literature (Okurame, 2008; Garringer et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2011) also shows that effectiveness or otherwise of a mentoring system is dependent on mutual interests of both the mentee and the mentor.

Okurame (2008) asserts that when mentoring relationship evolves out of common interest in the area of research teaching in the academia, its effectiveness is unparalleled. This, therefore, means that, when pairing mentors and mentees, the interest area of the mentee needs to be in consonance with that of the mentor for an effective mentoring relationship. The mentor ought to be well versed in the mentee's interest area as well as interested in having a relationship with the mentee.

Similar to Okurame's assertion, Garringer et al (2015) recommend matching mentors and mentees on the basis of similarities such as age, gender, race, and ethnicity, and mutual interests. They, however, indicate that research has found little impact on mentoring outcomes on the basis of cross-race and same-race matches, thereby positing that matching mentees and mentors based on race and ethnicity may not necessarily be a critical factor for a successful mentoring relationship.

Although research is not yet conclusive on which basis should be prioritized, Garringer et al (2015) suggest that matching based on common interests should take precedence over matching based on race, ethnicity, age, and gender. Though, Ismail et al (2011) research shows that interaction between same-gender and cross-gender in mentoring programmes creates caring and comfortable environments to discuss pertinent issues



and seek clarifications which will enhance mentees' career and psychosocial development in the organization.

2.8 Mentoring in Higher Educational Institutions

Research has revealed that mentoring is not a new phenomenon in the academia, yet it is less developed in the academic circles (Okurame, 2008). Even though mentoring is not a new concept in the academic circles, literature, however, reveals that there is a great deal of research being carried out on mentoring in the business world, as compared to the academia (Dankwa and Dankwa, 2013). The seeming lack of interest in the subject matter may be attributable to the fact that, university management generally might consider mentoring as unimportant with the perception that most of the faculty members are already knowledgeable in the research of their chosen fields (Sullivan and De Janasz, 2004).

Sullivan and De Janasz (2004) posit that, some university management ride on the assumption that the faculty members' research supervisors already served as mentors to them during their graduate studies (Sullivan and De Janasz, 2004), and there is, therefore, no need to mentor them again. Some tertiary educational institutions, however, admitted that mentoring is needed for staff development, yet they have not been able to implement mentoring programmes to that effect (Naris and Ukpere, 2010).

In recent times, however, institutions of higher learning are beginning to adopt the concept of mentoring as a tool for human resource development (Okurame, 2008). Mentorship programmes at some higher education institutions have embraced a variety of models, each designed to accommodate particular circumstances or address



particular development needs (Hanover Research, 2014). Mentoring of staff in institutions of higher education supports the personal and professional development of faculty members as they transition into new roles or seek to advance their careers (Hanover Research, 2014).

Hanover Research (2014) found out that professional development of staff in higher educational institutions is particularly important to the female faculty members – the minority group in the academia. Rockquemore (2013) adds that mentoring programmes in higher educational institutions basically gear towards providing new and young faculty members with professional development, emotional support, intellectual community, role models, sponsorship and access to opportunities.

Ekechukwu and Horsfall's (2015) research revealed that some higher educational institutions have put in place academic mentor management committees within the education system to promote academic mentoring to aid growth in the teaching profession and equally increase quality assurance in education. Ekechukwu and Horsfall (2015) note that the contemporary educational system having reached this level needs to embrace the concept of academic mentoring as a strategy for equipping teachers with functional and saleable skills.

According to Smith (2003), new teachers have awful experiences at the beginning which she says more than 40% of new teachers choose to leave the profession within the first three years; and that it is avoidable if proper mentoring is done at early stages of their career with more experienced teachers helping the novice teacher on a one-on-one basis. For effective mentoring in the educational institutions, mentors need to regularly meet and discuss with mentees the mentoring meetings are held regularly to



discuss progress made so far, and also highlight challenges being confronted with and devise strategies to surmount them (Smith, 2003).

Beevers and Rea (2010) recommend that academic mentoring needs to be carried out as soon as the teacher assumes duty since a mistake of a teacher has far-reaching effects on students, and the duration of the mentorship needs not exceed three (3) years. This means that the start date and the end date of the mentoring relationship needs to be clearly defined as soon as possible so that the mentee and the mentor will strategize to accomplish the goals within the timeframe. In contrast, Rhodes et al (2006) argue that full benefits of mentoring can only be obtained over a relatively long period of time since socioemotional, cognitive and identity development are complex and therefore need much time to unfold.

Most of the institutions of higher learning in recent times have developed mentoring policies to serve as a guide in the execution of their mentoring programmes. The University of Cape Coast (UCC) and UDS developed their mentoring policies in 2006 and 2012 respectively (Dankwa & Dankwa, 2013; Agalga & Thompson, 2016) after having seen the need to develop the competencies of their staff. These policies make the mentoring relationships formal and professional as the mentoring is carried out within the ambit of the policy framework.

According to Agunloye (2013), a number of institutions of higher learning in developing countries are faced with large student populations, yet, the institutions have limited resources to provide tailor-made professional development training for faculty members in the three essential domain – teaching, research and external services.





To provide faculty members training in these three (3) domains, Agunloye (2013) asserts that some African universities, especially in Nigeria have rolled out mentoring programmes which place emphasis on identification and articulation of gaps in the mentees' professional practice and prospects; identification and articulation of the strengths and weaknesses of both mentors and mentees; the development of goals and outcome expectations for each mentee in the mentoring program; clear articulation of the actions steps needed to achieve the goals; formal agreement of commitment between the mentor and each of their respective mentees to work on the actions steps; and professional development trainings in research methodology, pedagogy, research report writing, presentation, and publication. From the foregoing, formal mentoring programmes clearly spell out expected mentoring outcomes and guidelines for achieving goals. This will help avoid mentoring programmes being dead on arrival.

Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) indicate that mentors in institutions of higher learning share personal examples of difficulties they overcome to accomplish their career goals. Also, Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) posit that seasoned and experienced faculty members (mentors) provide practical suggestions and cutting edge guidance for improving the career of the young and newly recruited lecturers (mentees). Kumi-Boateng (2014), however, indicates that some academic mentors do not encourage mentees to discuss personal concerns or problems with them in mentoring relationships.

Petersen and Walke (2012) and Kolade (2015) argue that initiation of mentoring relationship in institutions of higher learning is sometimes preceded with mentoring training for both the mentees and the mentors. Kolade (2015) contends that mentoring

training gives the participants – mentees and mentors an in-depth understanding of the mentoring programme.

Petersen and Walke (2012) add that both the mentors and mentees who have the opportunity to attend mentoring training workshop get enormous benefits as it prepared them adequately for the mentorship, and also gained a clearer understanding of the purpose of the mentoring for the period under consideration. Also, Chesterman (2001) advocates for mentoring training, arguing that it affords mentors and mentees the opportunities to fully develop trust and mutual respect before the commencement of their mentoring relationships.

Studies have also revealed that the form of mentoring that is more pronounced in higher educational institutions in Africa is informal mentoring (Agalga and Thompson, 2016; Dankwa & Dankwa, 2013; Okurame, 2008). In the study conducted by Okurame (2008), most of the respondents that are not in favour of the establishment of formal mentoring programme in the faculty being studied. The reasons underpinning the rejection of establishment of formal mentoring programme according to Okurame (2008) among other things include uncertainties over its feasibility considering the different disciplines and research interests and a lack of mentor role tradition in the faculties.

Literature has also revealed that initiation of mentoring relationships in academia, especially in the African universities comes about in various ways and forms. Okurame (2008:49) finds that most of the existing mentoring relationships are often initiated as a result of “similarity of research interests, initial delegation of work activity by



mentors, delegation of conference/workshop attendance by the mentor, the inclusion of a protégé in research projects and supervision of the protégé's thesis”.

Okurame's (2008) study also indicates that ethnicity, admiration, competence, shared values, and gender issues trigger mentoring relationships in the institutions of higher learning. Kolade (2015) also reveals that the kind of assistance in mentorship that is mostly sought for in the institutions of higher learning is career and personal development of mentees. This is so because mentees in the university system are mainly young faculty members who need to get to the higher pedestal in the university hierarchy with time.

Knippelyemer and Torracco (2007) indicate that if huge sums of money and time are being invested on the staff of higher institutions of learning, then it is imperative for the institutions to encourage growth and development of faculty members through mentoring in order to maximize returns on their investment for competitive advantage. It is, therefore, clear that the need for developing faculty members' capabilities and competencies through mentoring has been long identified.

2.9 Academic Staff Development

Academic staff development is fundamental to the survival and growth of any institution of higher learning. This gives rise to the growing importance of academic developers in the universities. An academic developer is someone that is “explicitly expected to work with academics to assist them to reflect upon their academic role in relation to teaching, research, scholarship, leadership, funding applications and supervision of students”(Frazer, 2001;55; cited in Murphy, 2014). This definition of



the academic developer can be likened to academic mentoring which is the focal point of this study.

The academic environment is fast becoming competitive and the role of academic is also increasingly becoming complex and demanding which have triggered calls for staff development in recent times (Murphy, 2014). The competition is partly attributable to the annual global, continental and national rankings of universities in which put performances of the universities on display (Hazelkorn, 2009).

The ranking among other thing takes into account the teaching methodology, research output, consultancy, and social services (Hazelkorn, 2009). UNESCO, (1994) indicates that for any higher institution of learning to survive and function well, its personnel must be confident, competent and pro-active in three essential areas: field of knowledge; the pedagogical process; and managerial skills.

Murphy (2014) posits that the professional development of academic staff achieves two objectives simultaneously; the professional development of the individual and their improved performance which leads to the attainment of the university's objectives. Murphy (2014) advocates that universities should constantly identify the areas of weakness and where the development of staff will help to achieve better performance. This means that no university can be competitive when its personnel, especially the academic staff are not well developed.

To be competitive and deliver on their mandate in the increasingly dynamic academic environment, universities constantly roll out programmes to develop the skills and capabilities of the staff. The programmes include; seminars, workshops, conferences,





further studies and mentoring (Webb, 1996; Murphy, 2012). Similarly, Mizell (2010) identifies academic staff development models as individual reading/study/research; discussions among peers focused on a shared need; observation: teachers observing other teachers; coaching: an expert teacher coaching one or more colleagues; mentoring of new educators by more experienced colleagues; and conferences to learn from experts. According to Mizell (2010), staff development of professional development is said to be effective if the models are able to equip staff with the requisite knowledge and skills to perform their roles as expected.

In the beginning, academic staff development programmes were centred on teaching methodology and further studies, but in recent times, universities are as well taking much interest in research and publications, community service (Blackmore et al., 2010) as part of areas in staff development. Leadership development of academic staff is also gaining prominence in the academic circles which is linked to human resource function (Blackmore et al., 2010). Academic staff need to be groomed and equipped with managerial skills which will enable them to perform creditably well when they eventually occupy key positions in the universities (Fielden, 2009).

Most academics occupying managerial positions are being appointed without formal management development or training, thereby limiting their ability to function as expected (Fielden, 2009). Tourish (2012) identifies coaching, mentoring, 360-degree performance feedback, job assignments, formal courses (internally or externally provided), networking, and action learning as main forms of staff and leadership development.

The study of Burgoyne et al. (2009) and Murphy (2014) indicate that investment in staff and leadership development yields dividends, with coaching, mentoring and executive development believe to be the most effective forms of staff and leadership development. Thus, mentoring usually provides what cannot be provided by formal education of the academics.

From the foregoing, academic staff development in taking a centre stage in higher education institutions in order to remain competitive in the ever-changing academic environment. Staff development is no longer seen as a one-off activity, but a continuous process and multifaceted discipline in which mentoring plays a critical role.

2.10 Empirical Links between Mentoring and Staff Development

There is an ongoing debate among scholars on whether or not mentoring really has a bearing on mentees' development vis-a-vis job performance (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Wanberg et al., 2003). Some scholars argue that when mentoring is effectively carried out, it undoubtedly has a positive impact on employees' personal and professional development which ultimately leads to high output at the workplace. Banerjee-Batist (2014) and Eby et al (2008) argue that there is a direct relationship between mentoring and mentees' career development.

Banerjee-Batist (2014) further argues that there is a positive relationship between psychosocial support and mentees' job satisfaction – career and psychosocial support of novice of less experienced employees tend to help them develop their skills and capabilities better performance, hence job satisfaction. The findings of Banerjee-Batist



(2014) corroborate that of Cohen (1988), which suggests that there is a strong relation between mentee's development as well as performance and mentoring.

Cooke and Meyer's (2007) study also shows that employee's career development enhances in the workplace where he/she learns new skills over time. Mentoring is, therefore, use as one of the tools at workplace in developing the skills and capabilities of employees. Research has revealed that environment enriched with employees' learning capabilities tends to prepare them to be more goal oriented and producing healthy results (Cooke and Meyer, 2007). Ensher et al. (2001) and Ahmad and Shahzad (2011) also established that mentoring does not only support in the development of employees' skills and competencies, but also provides a positive change of employees' skills to their improved performance and organizational outcomes. Mentoring, therefore, nourishes and relaxes the employees' behaviour as it guides them to develop and adjust themselves in their working environment.

Tanoli (2016: 22) concludes on his findings that "employees' training has a positive and significant impact on their development and performance – timely and effective training not only polishes the employee skills but also prepare them to accomplish the current and future challenging assignments. Thus, attaching the employees to seniors or professionals in their field of endeavours help to improve their abilities and provide correctness to their mistakes in their routine activities". This implies that, mentoring which is a form of training has the effect of developing the core competence of employees for the attainment of organisational goals.

The study of Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) on academic staff mentoring reveals that mentoring has a positive impact on the personal and professional development of





novice or less experienced teachers in tertiary institutions. In the study of Dankwa and Dankwa (2013), the majority of the respondents who were mainly Lecturers and Assistant Lecturers acknowledged that mentors play a significant role in developing their skills and capabilities. The respondents among other things alluded that mentors are encouraging mentees on educational opportunities and career development, and also provide support for the work of mentees just to ensure successful job performance.

Similarly, Agunloye's (2013) study reveals that mentoring programmes help develop mentees in teaching, research and service domains. However, Agunloye (2013) finds that the mentees concentrate so much on the teaching domain, followed by research domain and lastly the service domain. What might have accounted for this could be the notion that novice teachers are more concerned about classroom delivery than the other two performance domains. Similar to Agunloye's (2013) findings, Petersen and Walke (2012) evaluation of mentoring outcomes suggest that mentoring has a positive impact on professional practice and development of mentees. According to Petersen and Walke (2012), the respondents' feedback clearly shows a number of the mentors and mentees have seen a drastic improvement in their professional practices and personal development as well.

In contrast, Sullivan and de Janasz, (2004), assert that mentoring is not as important as it is being branded, especially in the universities and colleges. Sullivan and de Janasz (2004) are of the view that university administrators sometimes do not prioritize mentoring of faculty members with the perception that the academic staff are already grounded in their chosen field and well-groomed by thesis supervisors. With this notion, mentoring is regarded as unwarranted, because the faculty members already

have what it takes to excel on the job. In conclusion, the empirical review on the contribution of mentoring to staff development shows that mentoring enormously contributes to staff development in organisations if it is properly carried out.

2.11 Challenges of Mentoring

Studies on mentoring have overwhelmingly proven how it impacts positively on personal and career development of mentees which translates into the achievement of organizational goals, yet institutions are confronted with challenges in carrying out this noble programme. Most of the mentoring programmes are often faced with a litany of operational challenges which to a large extent render the programmes ineffective. Banerjee-Batist (2014) and Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) identify lack of time on the part of mentors and lack of monetary incentive for mentors as barriers to the effectiveness of mentoring programmes.

Banerjee-Batist (2014) indicates that mentors who are mainly senior colleagues have very busy schedules within the university system, and therefore find it quite difficult to make enough time to mentor the young faculty members. Chesterman (2001) adds that mentees are sometimes also not committed to the mentoring relationship due to lack of time. Also, lack of monetary incentives makes mentors sometimes not inspired to have effective mentoring relationships (Banerjee-Batist, 2014)

The seeming lack of commitment to staff mentoring by top management in organizations has also been identified as a hindrance to effective mentoring. Handover Research (2014) posits that some managers see mentoring as an unnecessary concept in human resource development, and therefore do not commit financial resources to



mentoring programmes. This implies that some mentoring programmes are ineffective due to lack of funding as the spending officers do not commit resources to it.

Also worth noting challenge in staff mentoring is the unwillingness of the youngsters to avail themselves for mentoring as revealed by Okurame (2008) and Agalga & Thompson (2016). Okurami (2008) states that some young and less experienced staff see themselves as being groomed already in their academic pursuits and therefore do not see the need to avail themselves for mentoring at the workplace. The mentees' unwillingness to participate in mentorship is also attributable to the fact that mentees are not often involved in the programme design as well as not educated on the need to participate in mentoring programmes (Meschitti, 2016). The mentees, therefore, do not have a deeper understanding of the expected mentoring outcome. However, some mentees may participate, but not receptive to criticisms or lack the listening and questioning skills that are critical to effective mentoring (Knippelmeyer and Torracco, 2007).

In addition, institutions sometimes fail to define the goals and objectives of mentoring programmes thereby making it difficult to conduct an evaluation to really measure the effectiveness or otherwise of the mentoring programmes (Okurame, 2008). When objectives are vague, monitoring and evaluation cannot be carried out in order to take correctives measures, if deviations are detected. In a study conducted by Dankwa and Dankwa (2013), the respondents, mainly mentees cited the absence of periodic evaluation of mentoring programmes as one of the challenges being faced with in the academia.



Improper needs assessment of mentees has also been identified as one of the reasons why some mentoring programmes do not achieve desired outcomes – mentoring being used as a one-size-fits-all concept. Generic mentoring programmes are ineffective unlike customized mentoring programmes (MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership, 2005).

Okurame (2008) and Agalga and Thompson (2016) cited paucity of mentors as a factor militating against mentoring in institutions of higher learning. Mentors are expected to possess some special attributes as shown in the literature to be able to play their roles creditably well. But in some cases, the institutions do not just have such calibre of people to serve as mentors. With this challenge, institutions either do not undertake staff mentoring at all or engage mentors that are not knowledgeable, experienced and proficient in their profession in the mentoring programme. This often leads to ineffective mentoring. Some of the African universities are faced with this challenge partly due to the brain drain that has bedeviled some of the developing countries (Geber, 2012).

Matching mentees and mentors in mentorship is critical to its success. More often than not, mentees and mentors are mismatched – they do not have mutual interests in terms of research, course area and other domains (Wilson and Elman, 1990). Studies have revealed that when mentoring relationship is not founded on mutual interests, challenges are bound to occur (Garringer et al., 2015; Okurame, 2008). There is also evidence from the literature that matching male mentors with female mentees in mentorship more often than not leads to unwarranted romantic relationships and sexual harassments (Darwin, 2004; Knippelmeyer and Torracco, 2007).





Again, some mentoring relationships hit a snag in the process due to lack of mutual respect as asserted by Chesterman (2001). Mentors being more experienced and in most cases older than the mentees, expect the mentees to treat them with utmost respect in mentorship (Chesterman, 2001). But this ingredient is sometimes missing thereby creating despondencies in the process. Knippelmeyer and Torraco (2007) and Darwin (2004) also assert that mentors sometimes see mentees as potential competitors in the institutions. The thinking has been that if the mentees are well groomed, they will take up their positions in no distant future. With this at the back of the minds of the mentors, they will not be fully committed to the mentorship.

2.12 Theoretical Foundation

The study implores Social Network Theory (SNT). Borgatti and Halgin (2011) describe network as a set of actors or nodes along with a set of ties of a specified type which may be triggered by an array of factors that link them. The ties interconnect through shared endpoints to form paths that indirectly link nodes that are not directly tied (see figure 2.1). Social Network Theory, therefore, seeks to explain the processes of formal and/or informal socialisation which occurs within an organisational context or social network (Ehrich et al, 2001). Network theory according to Borgatti and Halgin (2011:1) refers to “mechanisms and processes that interact with network structures to yield certain outcomes for individuals and groups”.

Scott (1991), cited in Liu et al (2017) sees Social Network Theory as interpersonal relations tradition, which has to do with the formation of cliques within a group of individuals in an organisation; and an anthropology tradition, which explores the

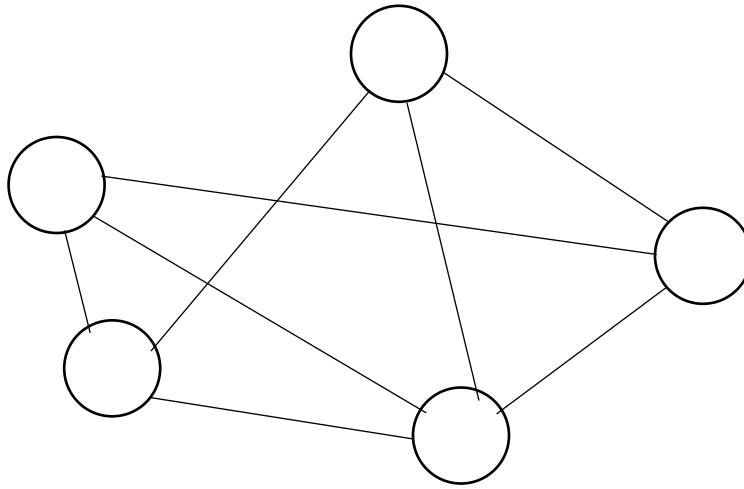
structure of community relations in less developed societies. These traditions have been significantly advanced and synthesized by sociologists over the years to better understand both formal and informal social relations in organisational and social contexts (Liu et al, 2017). The social relation can either have positive or negative outcomes.

The social network theory, therefore, focuses on how relationships between or among actors are formed and the outcomes of those relationships (Borgatti, 2005). In the field of management research, social networks have been used to understand job performance, turnover, promotions, innovation, creativity, and unethical behaviours in organisations (Borgatti and Halgin, 2011). Network theorists posit that in any form of social network, some actors imitate or are influenced by or are given opportunities by other actors within the network (Borgatti and Halgin, 2011).

In social network, there is a fundamental shift from monadic variables (attributes of individuals) to dyadic variables (attributes of pairs of individuals) which constitute binary relations among a set of actors. The dyadic ties link up through common nodes to form a field or system of interdependencies known as a network (Borgatti, 2005):



Figure 2.1 Social Network



Source: Borgatti and Halgin, 2011

From the foregoing, the form of socialisation that takes place in a social network can be situated in mentoring relationships – how the relationships are formed and the outcomes of those relationships. The formation of social network relationship as the sociologists describe it can either be formal or informal just like a mentorship. The social network relationship in an organisation is formal when it is guided by a policy framework of the organisation and vice versa.

In social network relationships, outcomes are expected; networks are not just formed, but to achieve a goal; the goal may be latent or clearly stated as in the case of informal and formal network relationships respectively. This forms the basis of mentoring in organisations where the mentee and the mentor, as well as the organisation are expected to mutually benefit from the mentorship – personal growth, career development, improved job performance or productivity and job satisfaction.



Dysfunctional social relationship can also occur – there may be negative outcomes in social network relationships as well just like dysfunctional mentorship.

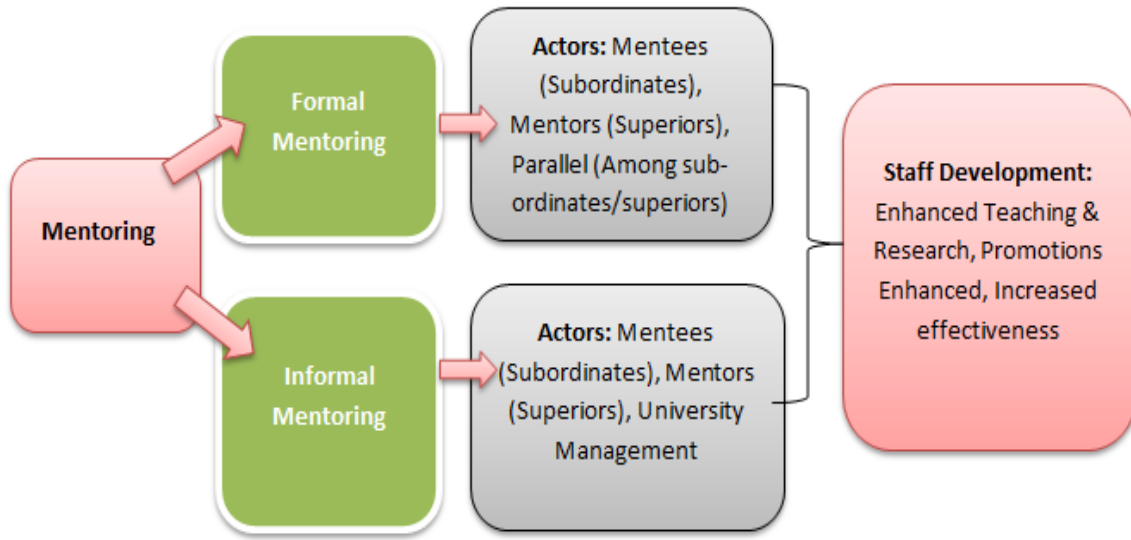
In addition, social network analysis, an actor may be dealing with a number of people in the network depending on what they seek to achieve. This, therefore, explains the basis for multiple mentoring in organisations, especially in informal mentorship. From the foregoing, the Social Network Theory, therefore, serves as a useful theoretical framework for the analysis of the data from the study, as the study seeks to examine how formal and informal socialisation (mentoring) occur in higher education institutions and how these forms of socialisation contribute to academic staff development. The theory, therefore, enables an understanding of the mentoring approaches and how they influence academic staff development in public universities in Ghana.

2.13 Conceptual Framework

From the review, a conceptual framework has been constructed by the researcher to illustrate linkages between critical variables in the study. Figure 2.2 presents the conceptual framework.



Figure 2.2 Conceptual Framework



Source: Author's Construct, 2018

It can be observed from the figure that formal and informal approaches [through the policy] to academic mentoring both impact on staff development. Thus, enhanced teaching and research, enhanced promotions and increased effectiveness. Actors in formal mentoring are mentees (sub-ordinates) and mentors (superiors). Actors in informal mentoring are also mentees, mentors and among mentees and mentees (parallel). A well-structured formal mentoring policy where actors undertake their duties as expected will enhanced teaching and research and overall effectiveness of staff. On the other hand, an informal mentoring approach where actors perform the roles well will also lead to enhanced teaching and research and overall effectiveness of staff. This can be achieved when there is active networking among academic staff as explained by the Social Network theory. For instance, Social networking advances interpersonal relations tradition, which has to do with the formation of cliques within



a group of individuals in an organisation (Scott; 1991; Liu et al, 2017). These groups fundamentally form the basis for initiating mentorships most especially the informal ones. Thus, the concept of networking postulated by the Social Network theory plays an important role in achieving the mentoring goals of public Universities.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods adopted by the researcher to gather data and information in order to achieve the objectives of the study. This chapter consists of the profile of study area, research approach, research design, target population, sample size and sampling approach, sources of data, data collection instruments/techniques, tools and techniques for data analysis as well as validity and reliability.

3.2 Profile of the University for Development Studies

The University for Development Studies (UDS) was established in 1992 by the Government of Ghana to blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole (PNDC Law 279, Section 279). The University by its mandate and constituency has a pro-poor focus. This is reflected in its methodology of teaching, research and outreach services.

The specific emphasis on practically-oriented, research and field-based training is aimed at contributing towards poverty reduction in order to accelerate national development. UDS unlike other universities in the country operates a trimester system, where the third trimester is entirely devoted to field practical training for students to spend eight (8) weeks in rural communities in Ghana. The field practical programme offers students the opportunity to experience the actual work environment and real



living conditions of the rural folk and to adapt to them (UDS Website, 2017; www.uds.edu.gh).

Also, the university runs a multi-campus system and it operates in Northern Ghana – Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions specifically located in Tamale, Nyanpkala, Navrongo, and Wa respectively. The Tamale Campus serves as the Central Administration of the university with oversight responsibility of coordinating the activities of all the satellite campuses. The university has ten (12) faculties/schools with the Faculty of Agriculture (FOA) being the foundation faculty. Nyankpala Campus has three (4) faculties – Faculty of Agriculture (FOA), Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources (FRNR), Faculty of Agribusiness and Communications Sciences (FACS) and School of Engineering (SoE).

Navrongo Campus has two (2) faculties – Faculty of Applied Sciences (FAS) and Faculty of Mathematical Sciences (FMS). Wa Campus consists of three (2) faculties and a school – Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS), Faculty of Planning and Land Management (FPLM), and School of Business and Law (SBL). Finally, the Tamale Campus has two schools and a faculty. They include; the School of Medicine and Health Sciences (SMHS), School of Allied Health Sciences (SAHS) and the Faculty of Education (FOE). UDS has a staff strength of one thousand five hundred and seventy-three (1,573); which is made up of six hundred (600) Senior Members, three hundred and forty-four (344) Senior Staff, and six hundred and twenty-nine (629) Junior Staff (UDS Basic Statistics, 2016).

To enhance the knowledge and skills of the staff to deliver on its mandate, the university established a Training and Development Unit. In addition, the Institute for





Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research (ICEIR) now Institute of Interdisciplinary Research and Consultancy Services (IIRaCS) of the University for Development Studies in 2012 developed a mentoring policy as well as a mentoring handbook to help develop the capabilities of the young and newly recruited staff. The University for Development studies was selected because of its multi-campus nature and the fact that the institution has a mentoring policy in place. This was to enable the researcher to ascertain whether or not successes have been chalked over the years in terms of academic staff development through mentoring - formal and informal mentoring. The UDS is pretty young and seems to have a myriad of operational difficulties, particularly in the area of human resource development for competitive advantage.

3.3 Research Design

The study was guided by the mixed-method research approach. Creswell (2014) indicated that there are three main approaches to mixed methods and these are; exploratory sequential mixed method, explanatory sequential mixed method and convergent mixed methods.

The purpose of a convergent (concurrent) mixed methods design is to simultaneously collect both quantitative and qualitative data, merge the data, and use the results to understand a research problem. A basic rationale for this design is that one data collection form supplies strengths to offset the weaknesses of the other form, and that a more complete understanding of a research problem results from collecting both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2014). Explanatory sequential mixed



method on the other hand is “one in which the researcher first conducts quantitative research, analyses the results and then builds on the results to explain them in more detail with qualitative research” (Creswell, 2014:44). In exploratory sequential mixed methods, the researcher “first begins with a qualitative research phase and explores the views of participants” (Creswell, 2014). The data are then analysed, and the information used to build into a second, quantitative phase. Specifically, the study employed the convergent mixed method design. This design was used in order to integrate quantitative and qualitative data to understand the phenomenon under study. The researcher used a survey – questionnaire for the quantitative aspect of the study which allowed for a gathering of large data. The data gathered from the survey was been analyzed statistically to provide concise and relevant information relating to the outcome of the study (Babbie, 2010).

This helped to properly assess the academic staff mentoring approaches in respect of how formal and informal mentoring are carried out, its impact on staff development and the challenges faced in mentoring academic staff in the University. Additionally, the qualitative component, which involves key informant interviews added more detailed perspectives to better inform the inferences from the quantitative aspect (Bryman, 2012). The key informant interviews centred on issues of mentoring approaches in the University, staff perception about mentoring in terms of its contribution to staff development and the challenges faced by the university in mentoring the academic staff. The mixed method, therefore, allowed the researcher to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches in tandem to complement each other’s strengths and weaknesses (Creswell, 2014).

This design allowed for the integration of both qualitative and quantitative techniques in the design of the research instruments, selection of research respondents and data analysis. For instance, both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered using a questionnaire made up of both open and closed ended questions. The data gathered was also analysed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques such as chi-square and content analysis.

3.4 Target Population

The target population for the study is limited to the academic staff (Senior Members) of the University for Development Studies. The researcher believes that is imperative to assess academic staff mentoring approaches as well as its contribution to staff development in public universities in Ghana. The UDS has academic staff strength of five hundred and eleven (511) made up of 154, 102, 140 and 116 Senior Members in Nyankpala, Navrongo, Wa and Tamale Campuses respectively (UDS Basic Statistics, 2016).

3.5 Sampling Techniques

The researcher employed cluster sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques to draw respondents from the target population to administer the questionnaires and to conduct the key informant interview since data could not be collected from the entire target population. The researcher used cluster sampling technique to select the academic staff (Senior Members) of the University for the study as the units of the target population have homogeneous characteristics, but in discrete geographical clusters.



According to Saunders et al (2009), cluster sampling is suitable for a study if the study population is geographically dispersed. The four (4) campuses of the University in this study are considered as clusters and simple random sampling was used to objectively select the respondents from the target population in each cluster using the lottery method. The selection of the respondents was done proportionately to the staff strength of each cluster to ensure reliability of choosing the right number of participants for the study (Babbie, 2010; Bryman, 2012). Cluster sampling just like the other probability sampling, usually results in a sample that best represents the study population (Saunders et al, 2009), therefore, statistical inferences could be made from the sample.

Purposive sampling was also used to choose the respondents for the key informant interview – i.e. the Pro-Vice-Chancellor, the Head of Personnel and the Director of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) of the University. The key informants were purposively selected based on their in-depth knowledge in mentoring of staff in the University. The informants have the utmost responsibility for ensuring that the academic staff of the University are well groomed and developed to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties, for which mentoring is key. According to Saunders et al (2009), purposive sampling (judgmental sampling) is a qualitative sampling technique that allows the researcher to use his/her discretion to select respondents that will best answer the research questions in order to achieve the research objectives. It is therefore on the basis of the foregoing, that the informants were contacted for the key informant interviews.



3.6 Sample Size

For lack of resources and time, the researcher could not study the entire population, but a sample. From the foregone target population, the sample size for the study was derived using Yamane (1967) sample size formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N (\alpha)^2}$$

Where n=sample size=?, N= target population = 511 and α =margin of error = 0.05 with confidence level of 95%.

Therefore:

$$n = \frac{511}{1 + 511 (0.05)^2}$$

This means that n (sample size) = 224

After getting the sample size, a proportionate sample size formula: i.e. $n_j = \frac{N_j}{N} \times n$; where n_j is the proportionate sample size = ?, N_j is the target population for each Campus, N is target population for the study, and n is the total sample size for all the four campuses was used to proportionately determine the sample size for each Campus (Al-hassan, 2015: 59) as illustrated below:

The proportionate sample size for Nyankpala Campus:

$n_j = ?$; $N = 511$; $N_j = 153$; and $n = 224$

Therefore; $n_j = \frac{153}{511} \times 224$

This means that the proportionate sample size (n_j) for Nyankpala Campus = 67.



The proportionate sample size for Navrongo Campus:

$$n_j = ?; N = 511; N_j = 102; \text{ and } n = 224$$

$$\text{Therefore; } n_j = \frac{102}{511} \times 224$$

This means that the proportionate sample size (n_j) for Navrongo Campus = 45.

The proportionate sample size for Wa Campus:

$$n_j = ?; N = 511; N_j = 140; \text{ and } n = 224$$

$$\text{Therefore; } n_j = \frac{140}{511} \times 224$$

This means that the proportionate sample size (n_j) for Wa Campus = 61.

The proportionate sample size for Tamale Campus:

$$n_j = ?; N = 511; N_j = 116; \text{ and } n = 224$$

$$\text{Therefore; } n_j = \frac{116}{511} \times 224$$

This means that the proportionate sample size (n_j) for Tamale Campus = 51.

3.7 Sources of Data

This study made use of data from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data collected centred on the socio-demographic characteristics of the staff, policy framework for mentoring in the University, formal and informal approaches to academic, staff development among others through questionnaires and key informant interviews in order to achieve the research objectives.



Additionally, secondary data had been obtained from departments such as the Training and Development Unit of the University; i.e. Human Resource Department, and the Directorate of Academic Planning Quality Assurance (DAPQA). These data included information that spell out how academic staff mentoring is been carried out in university, be it formal or informal. Notwithstanding this, secondary data such as literature on mentoring had also been obtained from books, brochures, journals in hard and soft copies through the internet. This has been appropriately acknowledged as scholarly references at the bibliography. These primary and the secondary data enabled the researcher to draw valid conclusions from the findings that reflect the state of academic staff mentoring in the Ghanaian public universities using the University for Development Studies as Study University.

3.8 Methods of Data Collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered through the application of the following instruments and techniques for the study:

3.8.1 Questionnaire Administration

Questionnaire has been widely used to collect data in social science research. According to Kumekpor (2002), a questionnaire is a document which contains a number of questions on a specific problem, theme or issue to be investigated which are meant to be answered by individuals considered to have a considerable knowledge about the answers to the questions. In this study, a set of questionnaire of open and close-ended format was designed for the academic staff of the university to elicit their views on the University's mentoring policy framework, formal and informal

mentoring approaches as well as the contribution of mentoring to academic staff development.

The questionnaire is formulated taking into the account the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the research objectives. Basically, the content of the questionnaire centred on assessing the formal and informal mentoring of the academic staff of the university which seeks to draw similarities as well as differences, if any, and how effective each has been in terms of staff development. The questionnaire had been self-administered by the researcher to the respondents for their independent responses. This is possible because, the respondents are elite who can read, interpret and draw an understanding of their own. For effective administration of the questionnaires, the researcher made several trips to the four satellite campuses of the University for the data collection. The respondents were picked at random from all the campuses of the UDS and were given the questionnaires to administer.

To achieve validity of the questionnaire, the researcher consulted other persons who are grounded in research to vet it. They vetted the questionnaire to ensure that the questions are in consonance with the research objectives, research questions and the literature review. Validity and reliability of research instrument are key technical factors in quantitative research (Golafshani, 2003). According to Joppe (2000), cited in Golafshani (2003) indicates that validity determines whether the research truly measures what it was intended to measure or how trustworthy and reliable the research results are.

Therefore, validating the research instrument has ultimately achieve reliable results, such that when the same instruments and processes are used in a different setting,



similar or the same results would be obtained (Babbie, 2010). During the questionnaires distribution, the researcher briefed the respondents on the topic to arouse their interests so as to get high response rate. It is believed that when respondents are properly briefed, non-response rate is drastically reduced (Bryman, 2012) and as such, response rate was 100%.

Vetting the research instruments alone will indeed not result in validity and as such, the instruments were also piloted. The pilot study helped fine-tuned the instruments for final data collection.

3.8.2 Key Informant Interviews

The researcher also used key informant interviews to solicit the views of the respondents who in the judgment of the researcher had in-depth knowledge in the subject area. Lisa (2008) defines interview as a form of person-to-person interaction between two or more people with an intention of achieving an objective in mind. An interview has two forms - structured and unstructured. A structured interview also known as a standardized interview is where the interviewer designs a framework known as interview guide within which he/she follows to conduct the interview. With this, the researcher simply asks a pre-determined set of questions, using the same wording and order of questions for all the interviewees as specified in the interview guide.

On the other hand, an unstructured interview is where the interviewer does not involve any specific type of sequence of questions or any particular form of questioning (Bryman, 2012). An unstructured interview is more or less a casual conversation and



very informal. Thus, in this study, the researcher adopted a structured interview where the Pro-Vice-Chancellor, the Head of Personnel and the Director of the Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) were interviewed. The goal of this type of research interview is to ensure that interviewees' responses are aggregated, and this can be achieved reliably only if those responses are in response to identical cues as in structured interview guide (Bryman, 2012).

A study of this nature, therefore, calls for a structured interview as the researcher intends assessing the University's mentoring policy framework, formal and informal mentoring and its impact on academic staff development in all the campuses as it might be problematic to achieve this using the unstructured interview. The questions are mainly open-ended and consistent with the research objectives. To collect the data, the researcher conducted face-to-face interview where the responses were documented and also, electronically recorded.

Before conducting the key informant interviews, the interview guide was sent to the respondents prior to the interview date. This was to afford the interviewees the opportunity to adequately prepare for the interview. Just like the questionnaire, the interview guide was also subjected to thorough scrutiny by the supervisor and other knowledgeable people in research for purposes of validity and reliability. Also, the researcher ensured validity and reliability of the results from the interview by using respondent validation – that is seeking for confirmation of answers provided to questions by the respondents.

Maxwell (2005) indicates that respondent validation is a sure way of eliciting feedback or drawing conclusions from research participants which to a very large extent rules



out the tendency of misconstruing what a participant says. Finally, an independent auditor was used to audit the analyzed data. Smith (2003) is of the conviction that one of the surest ways to ensure validity in research is to allow for an independent audit. The use of independent audit was to allow the independent auditor to establish whether or not the conclusions drawn from the data analysis are founded on the data collected from the respondents through the interviews.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis is critically important in research since raw data is meaningless. It is a systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing and interpreting data to provide explanations of the single phenomenon of interest (Pope et al, 2000). The data collected from the field through the questionnaire and the interviews was therefore processed and collated in a meaningful way for easy comprehension. The researcher thoroughly edited the raw data to remove all inconsistencies and errors that had arisen. After doing the editing to remove all mistakes, the data was then coded for processing. The coding enabled the researcher to group the responses into a limited number of categories for easy analysis. Since the research is to assess the University's mentoring policy framework, formal and informal mentoring approaches, and its impact on academic staff development, the analyzed data was compared and contrasted to know the effectiveness or otherwise of each approach. The researcher analyzed both the qualitative and quantitative data using content analysis and chi-square test with the help of SPSS.



Techniques for Analysing Qualitative Data

Qualitative data collected from the field was analysed using content analysis. This technique allows the researcher to make meaning out of the data collected based on defined themes. The qualitative data was first transcribed and interpreted. In specific terms, transcription and interpretations seeks to analyze responses of the respondents in order to establish a pattern based upon it a conclusion is drawn without any scientific basis. In this study, transcription and interpretations has been used to analyse qualitative data from the key informants from which inferences are drawn.

Techniques for Analysing Quantitative Data

The chi-square test was the main analytical technique used in analyzing the quantitative data gathered. It was used to test for significant relationships between mentoring and critical indicators of academic staff development.

In particular, the chi-square test of independence was determined to establish the relationship between the independent variable (mentoring) and the dependent variable (academic staff development in the University). An alternative non-parametric measure of the relationship between these two categorical variables would have been the Spearman Rank Correlation Co-efficient which requires the data to be organised in ranks. However, the nature of the dataset collected in this study did not meet that requirement and therefore limited its use. Hence the use of the Chi-square test of independence, which test for independence between variables, and in effect the relationship, is indeed appropriate. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of categorical nature of variables, randomisation,



independence assumption and all expected cell frequencies being much larger than 5 in order to confirm the use of the non-parametric correlation measure (the chi-square test of independence). The question to address is whether mentoring is independent of university staff development. The hypothesis tested is stated as follows, where H_0 and H_1 denote null and alternate hypothesis respectively.

H0: There is independence between mentoring and staff development

H1: There is no independence between mentoring and staff development

Theoretically, the measure is specified as:

$$X^2 = \sum_{\text{all cells}} \frac{(Obs - Exp)^2}{Exp} \dots\dots\dots (3.1)$$

The $(Obs - Exp)^2$ represents the differences between the Observed Frequency and the Expected Frequency.

Where the Expected Frequency (Exp_{ij}) is computed by:

$$Exp_{ij} = \frac{TotalRow_i \times TotalCol_j}{Table Total} \dots\dots\dots (3.2)$$

The degrees of freedom for the Chi-square test of independence is given by the formula:

$(R - 1)(C - 1)$ where R is the number of Rows and C is the number of columns.

Decision Rule

The decision rule for testing the significance of X^2 is to compare the chi-square critical value to the chi-square calculated value. If the chi-square calculated value is greater than chi-square critical value, then we reject the null hypothesis and rather accept the



alternative hypothesis. This means that there is no independence between mentoring and academic staff development and that the two variables are related. Consequently, this study used the chi-square analysis in-built in SPSS and so the software is able to estimate whether the model is significant or not.

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was also used to analyse the quantitative data that had been collected through the questionnaire. With this, descriptive statistics in a form of cross-tabulation, frequencies, percentages, tables, and charts had been presented. These were done by coding the responses in the questionnaire and inputting them into the SPSS.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussions of data obtained from the field. The results and discussions have been organised along the lines of the research questions. The results have been presented under the following subheadings: demographic characteristics of respondents; the nature of policy framework for mentoring in the University; formal and informal approaches to academic staff mentoring in the University; the contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University and challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

This section presents findings on the demographic characteristics of respondents. Specific areas are gender and religious affiliation of respondents.

Table 4. 1: Gender and Religious Affiliation of Respondents

			University Campus				
			Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
<i>Gender</i>	Male	<i>f/%</i>	53(24.1%)	36(16.4%)	53(24.1%)	38(17.3%)	180(81.8%)
	Female	<i>f/%</i>	13(5.9%)	9(4.1%)	5(2.3%)	13(5.9%)	40(18.2%)
<i>Religious Affiliation</i>	Christian	<i>f/%</i>	45(20.1%)	40(17.9%)	55(24.6%)	31(13.8%)	171(76.3%)
	Muslim	<i>f/%</i>	22(9.8%)	5(2.2%)	6(2.7%)	20(8.9%)	53(23.7%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018



Table 4.1 shows the demographic characteristics of gender and religious affiliations of respondents from the four (4) campuses of the University for Development Studies. Males constitute the majority of respondents representing 81.8%. Females also constitute 18.2%. This implies that there are more male staff than females in the University which has the tendency of affecting mentoring relationship among staff. A blend of experiences from both genders can help complement the knowledge one gains from mentoring. On religious affiliation, the findings show that majority of the respondents (76.3%) are Christians while 23.7% are Muslims. As all the respondents are affiliated to one religion or the other, it can foster mentoring relationships as indicated by Okurame's (2008) that religious affiliations, shared values, and gender issues trigger mentoring relationships in the institutions of higher learning. It can also be observed from the table that staff from the Nyankpala Campus are highest respondents in terms of numerical strength and this confirms reports from the UDS Basic Statistics (2016) that the Nyankpala Campus of the University has the highest number of staff as compared to the other campuses.

Age of Respondents

Having discussed the gender and religious affiliations of respondents, this section presents findings on the age of respondents from the Nyankpala, Tamale, Wa and Navrongo campuses. The findings are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Age of Respondents

Age	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
25-29yrs	f/%	2(0.9%)	0(0.0%)	6(2.7%)	4(1.8%)	12(5.4%)
30-34yrs	f/%	3(1.3%)	12(5.4%)	5(2.2%)	10(4.5%)	30(13.4%)
35-39yrs	f/%	36(16.1%)	18(8.0%)	30(13.4%)	14(6.3%)	98(43.8%)
40-44yrs	f/%	12(5.4%)	5(2.2%)	6(2.7%)	15(6.7%)	38(17.0%)
45-49yrs	f/%	8(3.6%)	5(2.2%)	11(4.9%)	4(1.8%)	28(12.5%)
50-54yrs	f/%	0(0.0%)	5(2.2%)	0(0.0%)	4(1.8%)	9(4.0%)
55-59yrs	f/%	1(0.4%)	0(0.0%)	3(1.3%)	0(0.0%)	4(1.8%)
60yrs and above	f/%	5(2.2%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(2.2%)
Total	f/%	67(29.9%)	45(20.1%)	61(27.2%)	51(22.8%)	224(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

As shown in Table 4.2, the majority of the respondents (62.6%) are between the ages of 25 and 39 with the average age being 34 across the four satellite campuses. By implication, the academic staff of the University is mainly youth who certainly need to be groomed to take up leadership positions in the near future when the elderly eventually leave the University. This is line with the view of Chesterman (2001) view that the elderly have an embedded responsibility in molding and grooming the younger ones to take up leadership positions in the society. It can also be seen that respondents that are 50 years and above constitute only 8%, which presupposes that there would be overbearing pressure on mentors in the University as Okurame (2008) asserts.



Okurame (2008) posits that most of the African universities are faced with a paucity of mentors.

Length of service of staff in the University

Assessing the number of years that respondents have spent with the University was important. This will enable the researcher to understand the context and level of experience with which they guide or mentor newly recruits. Table 4.3 presents findings on this.

Table 4. 3: Length of service of staff in the University

		University Campus				
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
0-5yrs	<i>f/%</i>	33(14.7%)	12(5.4%)	18(8.0%)	24(10.7%)	87(38.8%)
6-10yrs	<i>f/%</i>	21(9.4%)	28(12.5%)	32(14.3%)	27(12.1%)	108(48.2%)
11-15yrs	<i>f/%</i>	8(3.6%)	5(2.2%)	11(4.9%)	0(0.0%)	24(10.7%)
21-25yrs	<i>f/%</i>	5(2.2%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(2.2%)
Total	<i>f/%</i>	67(29.9%)	45(20.1%)	61(27.2%)	51(22.8%)	224(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.3 shows findings on how long respondents have worked in the University. Having established the University in 1992, it was imperative to explore the duration of service of staff in order to establish whether or not there is any association between their length of service and mentoring experience in the University.

The study revealed that majority of the respondents (48.2%) have worked with the University between six (6) and ten (10) years. This implies that, since the inception of the University, only a few (2.2%) have stayed on till now while the majority joined after ten (10) years.



Since a good number of the respondents were found to be staff that have worked with the University for 6 to 10 years, it presupposes that most of them have adequate on-the-job training and can guide junior colleagues or new entrants in the University to develop their capabilities. As indicated by Blake-Beard and Murrell (2006), the longer the duration in an institution or job, the more the experience to mentor others.

Highest Academic Qualification at First Entry

The researcher also found the need to investigate the highest academic qualification for staff at first entry into the University as presented in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4. 4: Highest Academic Qualification at First Entry

Qualification		University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Bachelor's Degree	<i>f/%</i>	7(3.1%)	13(5.8%)	24(10.7%)	15(6.7%)	59(26.3%)
Master's Degree (MPhil/MSc/MBA/MA)	<i>f/%</i>	42(18.8%)	30(13.4%)	28(12.5%)	27(12.1%)	127(56.7%)
PhD	<i>f/%</i>	18(8.0%)	2(0.9%)	9(4.0%)	9(4.0%)	38(17.0%)
Total	<i>f/%</i>	67(29.9%)	45(20.1%)	61(27.2%)	51(22.8%)	224(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.4 shows that majority of the respondents (56.7%) entered the University with a master's degree. In relation to this finding, the researcher enquired from focal persons why applicants with a bachelor's degree and Master's Degree were considered at first entry. Responding to this, some respondents indicated that the University had to pick a lot of master's holders because there were not enough Ph.D. holders, especially at the time of its (UDS) establishment. For instance, one of the respondents had this to say,



“my brother [referring to the researcher] it is very difficult to get people with PhD to employ as lecturers in the University. Most of them prefer universities like KNUST, UCC and University of Ghana. We simply don’t have enough facilities be it accommodation or funds like the other Universities. The University, especially at the start had to rely on those who have prospects of moving on for terminal degrees and still had to do same”. Another respondent lamented “...you know it is impossible to look for only those with PhDs. You can’t get enough of them. In fact, I don’t think they are even enough in this country. For example, those with PhDs in Finance, Accounting, and other related fields are limited. So it should be progressive”.

This implies that it will take the University sometime before having most of its staff possess Ph.D. Degrees. Besides the entry point qualification, the study also sought to find out staff rank at first entry, and the findings are presented in Table 4.5.



Table 4. 5: Rank at First Entry

Rank	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Senior Research Assistant	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	12(5.5%)	12(5.5%)	20(9.1%)	19(8.6%)	63(28.6%)
Principal Research Assistant	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Chief Research Assistant	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.9%)	0(0.0%)
Assistant Lecturer	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	32(14.5%)	14(6.5%)	14(6.4%)	4(1.8%)	64(29.0%)
Lecturer	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	22(10.0%)	19(8.7%)	24(10.9%)	28(12.7%)	93(42.4%)
Senior Lecturer	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Associate Professor	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Full Professor	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Total	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	66(30.0%)	45(20.5%)	58(26.4%)	51(23.2%)	220(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.5 shows the rank of respondents at first entry. Majority representing 42.4% entered as lecturers for all four campuses with the Wa Campus being the highest representing 10.9% of respondents. Following this, are those that entered as Assistants Lecturers (ALs) constituting 29%. About 28.6% entered as Senior Research Assistants. None of the respondents entered the University as a Principal Research Assistant, Chief Research Assistant, Associate Professor, and full Professor. The study



revealed that most of the respondents who entered the University with ranks such as Assistant Lecturer and Lecturer were at the Nyankpala Campus of the University. This means that one will expect most staff from the Nyankpala Campus to rise through the ranks faster than colleagues in other campuses.

Current Highest Academic Qualification

Having assessed the rank at first entry for respondents, it is imperative to investigate the current highest academic qualification for respondents. This will enable the researcher to compare previous and current highest qualifications. The reason for this comparison is to assess how the staff of the University has progressed through the ranks owing to support systems such as mentoring.

Table 4. 6: Current Highest Academic Qualification

Current Qual.	University Campus					Total
	Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale		
Bachelor's Degree	<i>f/</i> 0(0.0%) <i>%</i>	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Master's Degree (MPhil/MSc/MBA/MA)	<i>f/</i> 48(21.4%) <i>%</i>	48(21.4%)	35(15.6%)	49(22%)	36(16%)	168(75%)
PhD	<i>f/</i> 19(8.5%) <i>%</i>	19(8.5%)	10(4.5%)	12(5.4%)	15(7%)	56(25.0%)
Total	<i>f/</i> 67(29.9%) <i>%</i>	67(29.9%)	45(20.1%)	61(27%)	51(22%)	224(100%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

From Table 4.6, among others, the current highest qualification for respondents was Master of Philosophy (MPhil), Master of Science (MSc), Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Master of Arts (MA) representing 75%. The next is those with PhDs. They constitute 25%. No respondent indicated that their current



qualification was bachelor's degree. This implies that all those that were recruited with bachelor's degree have upgraded themselves academically over the years. Most of them are at the Nyankpala Campus of the University. It can also be seen from the table that, the campus with the least qualification is the Navrongo campus. This implies as compared to other campuses, academic staff from the Nyankpala campus can mentor new recruits well based on their academic progression.

The researcher also asked the respondents to indicate their current rank in the University. Findings are presented in Table 4.7.



Table 4. 7: Current Rank at the University

Current Rank	<i>f</i> /%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Senior Research Assistant	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Principal Research Assistant	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Chief Research Assistant	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.4%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Assistant Lecturer	<i>f</i> /%	25(11.1%)	11(4.9%)	15(7.1%)	9(4.5%)	61(27.6%)
Lecturer	<i>f</i> /%	27(12.1%)	23(10.3%)	30(13.4%)	25(11.2%)	105(47.0%)
Senior Lecturer	<i>f</i> /%	15(6.7%)	11(4.8%)	15(6.7%)	17(7.6%)	57(25.8%)
Associate Professor	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	1(0.4%)	0(0.0%)	1(0.4%)
Full Professor	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Total	<i>f</i> /%	67(29.9%)	45(20.1%)	61(27.2%)	51(22.8%)	224(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Having entered the University as staff, it is expected that staff will either be promoted or upgraded to the next higher rank after serving for some years. Table 4.7 shows the current rank of respondents in the University. The current ranks in the University range from Senior Research Assistant, Principal Research Assistant, Chief Research Assistant, Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor, and Full Professor. From the Table, the rank of a lecturer and assistant lecturer are highest in terms of current qualification. These constitute 47% and 27.6% respectively.



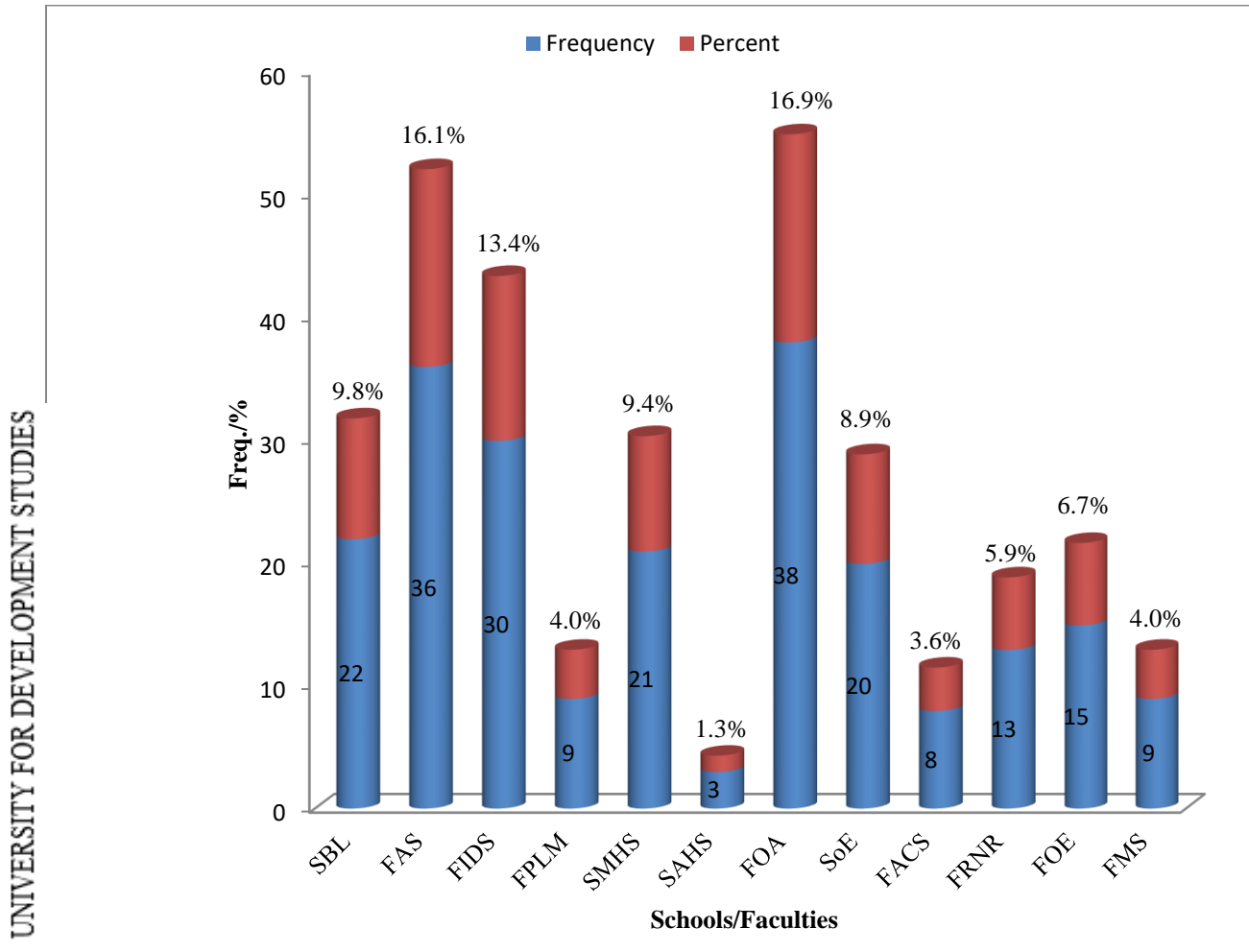
Comparing these ranks to findings in Table 4.5 on other qualifications, lecturers who entered as the new staff were 93(42.4%) but currently, lecturers are 105(47%). The rank of an assistant lecturer has also decreased to 61 from the previous 64 assistant lecturers. This shows that some of the assistant lecturers have been promoted to the rank of lecturers in the University. This can partly be attributed to new intake, promotions, upgrades, retirements among others. Promotions to a higher rank have positive implications on mentoring irrespective of the form that it takes (Hazelkorn, 2009). Overall, this is also good for the University as higher qualifications also contribute to the quality of programmes and research output.

Distribution of Respondents in the University

Like other Universities in Ghana, the University for Development Studies has a number of Schools and Faculties. The researcher collected data from all schools and faculties in all the four (4) satellite campuses (Nyankpala, Navrongo, Wa and Tamale campuses). Figure 4.1 illustrates findings on this



Figure 4. 1: Schools and Faculties



Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Figure 4.1 presents findings on the distribution of respondents in the four campuses (Wa, Tamale, Navrongo, and Nyankpala) in relation to a number of respondents that participated in this study. From the figure, it can be observed that the Faculty of Agriculture at the Nyankpala Campus has the largest respondents per the sample distribution and population. This represents 16.9%. This was followed by staff at the Faculty of Applied Science (16.1%). The least respondents were at the SAHS (1.3%). The implication of the differences in staff participation is that the academic staff of the

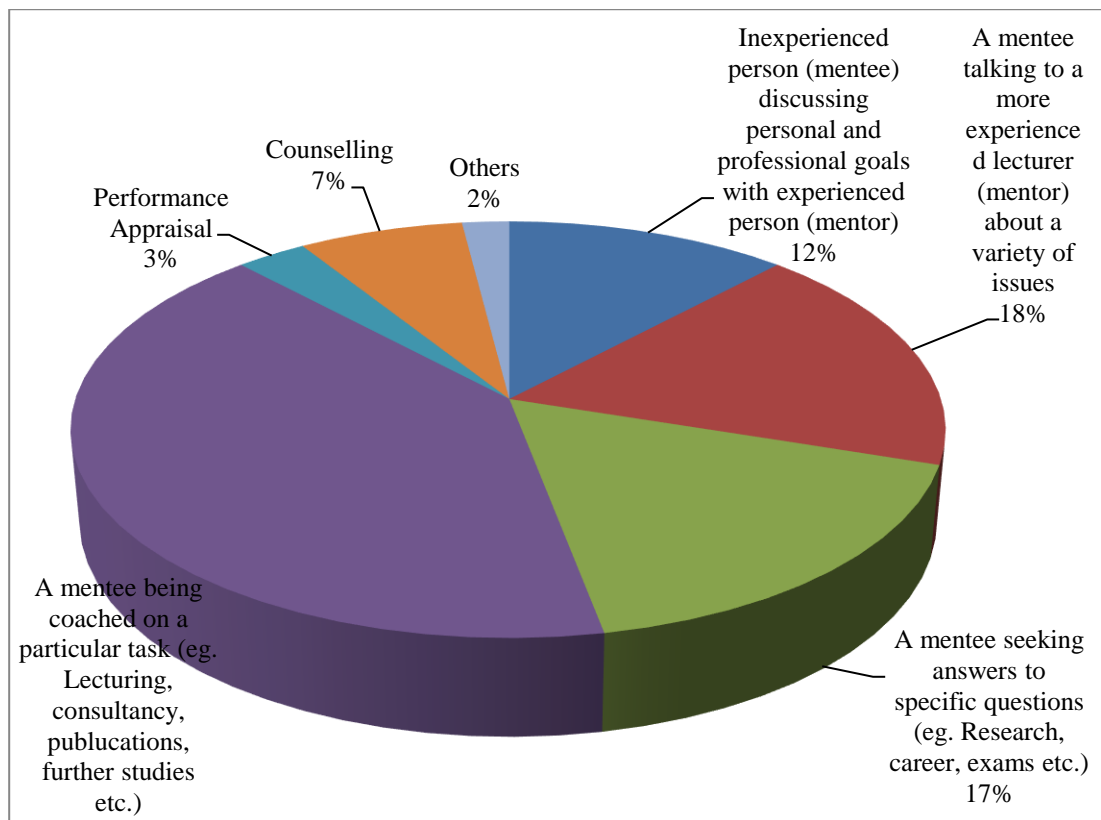
Faculty of Agriculture have a higher chance of guiding each other be it formal or informal mentoring.

Staff Understanding of Mentoring

The researcher asked the respondents to indicate their understanding of mentoring.

Figure 4.2 presents views on respondents' understanding of mentoring in the University for Development Studies.

Figure 4. 2: Respondents' Understanding of Mentoring



Source: Field Survey, 2018

From figure 4.2, the respondents' views have been summarized as follows; mentoring means inexperienced person (mentee) discussing personal and professional goals with experienced person (mentor), a mentee seeking answers to specific questions (For



instance, Research, career, exams etc.), a mentee being coached on a particular task (eg. lecturing, consultancy, publications, further studies among others), performance appraisal and counseling among others.

Majority of the respondents (41%) expressed their views as a mentee being coached on a particular task (For example; lecturing, consultancy, publications, further studies etc.). Furthermore, about 12% said it is an inexperienced person (mentee) discussing personal and professional goals with the experienced person (mentor), while the least 2% attributed their understanding to other factors. This implies that all the respondents have an idea or some level of understanding on the concept of mentoring, but with different perspectives. This understanding by staff also has positive implications for the success of the University mentoring process. This, therefore, confirms the assertion that mentoring means different things to different people as indicated by Murphy (2012) that there are diversities in the understanding of mentoring.

Policy Framework for Mentoring

Mentoring in the University for Development Studies is guided by a formulated policy known as the Mentoring Policy. This framework guides mentoring in whatever form be it formal or informal in the University and it is expected that academic or administrative staff comply with its guidelines. In relation to this study, the researcher investigated the policy awareness, its formulation as well as implementation and evaluation. This was undertaken in order to place within the right context the compliance level of the policy vis-à-vis circumstances surrounding its formulation, implementation, and evaluation in the University.



Policy Awareness

This section presents findings on the awareness of the mentoring policy in the University. As this study seeks to assess the mentoring approaches being deployed over the years to mentor the academic staff of the UDS and their impact on staff development, it was considered imperative to investigate whether or not respondents are actually aware of the policy. Table 4.8 presents these findings.

Table 4. 8: Awareness of the Mentoring Policy

		University Campus				
Awareness		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
I heard about it	<i>f</i> /%	6(2.7%)	4(1.8%)	1(0.5%)	8(3.7%)	19(8.7%)
I have read it	<i>f</i> /%	4(1.8%)	5(2.3%)	13(5.9%)	1(0.5%)	23(10.5%)
I have heard about it, but I have not seen it	<i>f</i> /%	6(2.7%)	11(5.0%)	6(2.7%)	15(6.8%)	38(17.4%)
I have heard about it, but I have never read it	<i>f</i> /%	0(0.0%)	4(1.8%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(1.8%)
I have never heard about it	<i>f</i> /%	50(22.8%)	21(9.6%)	37(16.9%)	27(12.3%)	135(61.6%)
Total	<i>f</i> /%	66(30.1%)	45(20.5%)	57(26%)	51(23.3%)	219(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Majority of the respondents representing 61.6% reported that they have never heard about the mentoring policy in the University. Out of the total respondents who maintained this position, the study found that most of them were staff based at the Nyankpala Campus. This was very surprising to the researcher because the Nyankpala Campus is the foundation campus of the University and it is therefore expected that



staff from that campus will be better informed about the institution's mentorship policy than those at Navrongo, Wa and Tamale Campuses. However, as shown in the table, only 10.5% of respondents indicate that they have actually read the policy. Contrary to the views from the Nyankpala Campus, the respondents from the Wa Campus are highest (5.9%) in terms of those who have actually read the policy. Although some respondents indicated that they have read the policy, the numbers albeit, are not encouraging at all. The implication of this is that mentoring in the University is most likely to be carried out without due reference to the policy, thus making it difficult for the University to achieve its stated goal and objectives expressed in the policy document.

In light of this, the researcher asked the respondents to express their views on how accessible the policy is. The study found that 54.3% of respondents indicated that the mentoring policy is highly inaccessible. Some of the respondents indicated that copies are with the HODs, while other maintained that copies of the policy are with the Deans. This the study found to be worrying because very few of the respondents have already indicated that they have actually read through the policy. Furthermore, 31.7% reported that it is not accessible, while 9.1% asserted that the policy is less accessible. Some respondents reported that since they have not been taken through the policy through workshops or seminars, they cannot say that they can access it or not. However, the least 4.9% maintained that the policy is highly accessible. Findings are presented in Table 4.9.



Table 4. 9: Accessibility of the policy

Accessibility	<i>f/%</i>	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Highly Accessible	<i>f/%</i>	5(3.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(1.8%)	0(0.0%)	8(4.9%)
Less Accessible	<i>f/%</i>	4(2.4%)	3(1.8%)	5(3.0%)	3(1.8%)	15(9.1%)
Not Accessible	<i>f/%</i>	6(3.7%)	14(8.5%)	18(11.0%)	14(8.5%)	52(31.7%)
Highly Inaccessible	<i>f/%</i>	20(12.2%)	22(13.4%)	20(12.2%)	27(16.5%)	89(54.3%)
Total	<i>f/%</i>	35(21.3%)	39(23.8%)	46(28.0%)	44(26.8%)	164(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

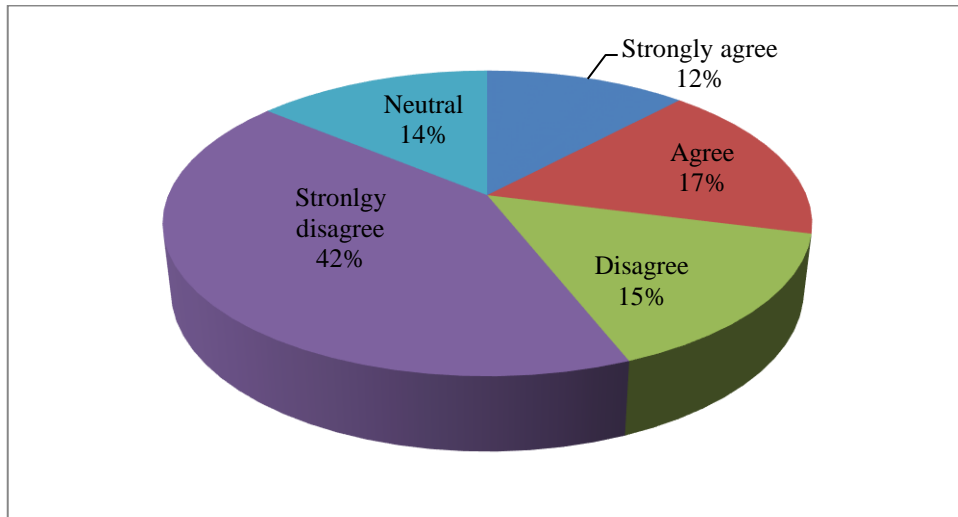
For those who posited that the policy is accessible, the study found that all of them are at the Nyankpala Campus and this explains why earlier findings in Table 4.10 reveal that most of those at the Nyankpala Campus have gone through the policy. Accessibility of the mentoring policy to staff is very important in order to achieve its aim. The more accessible the policy is, the less the ignorance and the less accessible, the more the ignorance by way of what is expected from every staff. Therefore, the study realizes the need for it to be made accessible by management.

Policy Formulation

Having investigated the awareness level of the policy, the researcher enquired on how the mentoring policy was formulated in the University as a whole. This is because every policy will have to go through critical stages before its acceptance and implementation as opined by Dankwa and Dankwa (2013).



Figure 4. 3: Stakeholder Engagements



Source: Field Survey, 2018

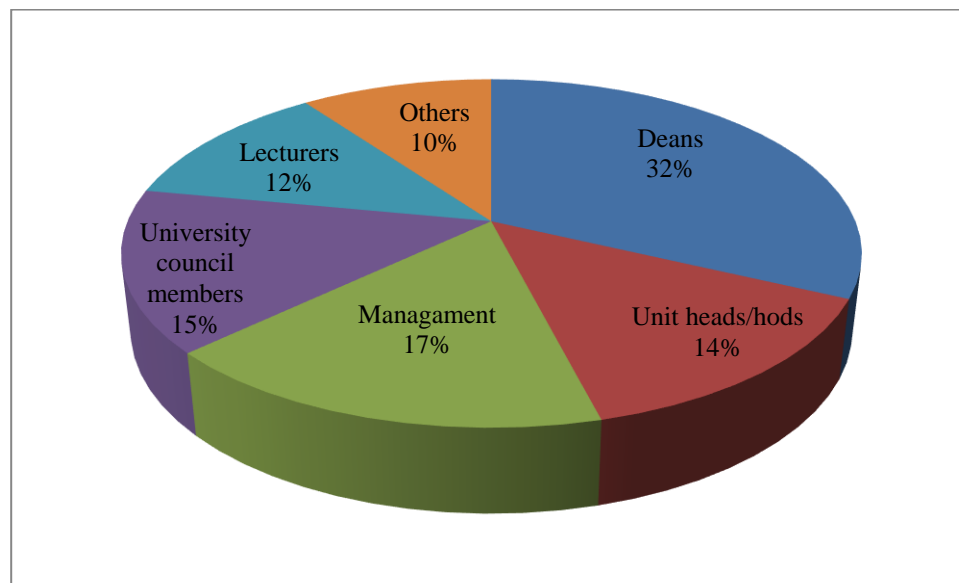
From Figure 4.3, the majority of the respondents (42%) strongly disagree that there were stakeholder engagements in the policy formulation. The study found that most of these respondents were from Nyankpala Campus and the least from the Tamale Campus of the University. Stakeholder engagements play a critical role in the success of every policy and hence, one can deduce the likelihood of challenges for the success of the policy in the University. This, probably also explains the reason why a good number of staffs interviewed from the various campuses are not aware of the policy as highlighted in table 4.8. Some respondents further indicated that they heard of some consultations at the time but to the best of their knowledge no formal meetings were organized.

A staff from the Tamale Campus reiterates: *“in fact, nothing was done, I did not hear or receive any circular at the time”*. Another respondent from the Wa Campus reported, *“...the policy is good, but none of us heard of stakeholder engagements like*



coming round to solicit our inputs”. However, 17% agree that that were stakeholder engagements. For this group of respondents, the study found that they were those who joined the University earlier and actually took part in some of the consultations. They strongly oppose the notion that no engagements were done as reported by some respondents. A Senior Lecturer from the Nyankpala Campus indicated that some engagements took place before implementation. As a result of this controversy, it was considered important to solicit respondents’ views on the major stakeholders engaged and the results are presented in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4. 4: Major Stakeholders Engaged



Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Figure 4.4 indicates the stakeholders that were specifically engaged in the formulation of the policy. Majority of the respondents (32%) indicate that the Deans were consulted or engaged. One respondent said, “...the University currently runs a multi-campus system and that is what it has been since its inception. I was HOD at the time of the



implementation and was consulted duly. No one can deny this fact, except that they may have different opinions on its effectiveness which I agree but not engagements”.

The study also found that although some staff were engaged at the time, they simply cannot recall that those engagements were on the policy. From the figure, 12% assert that lecturers were engaged. Some of the respondents from this group indicated that indeed lectures were engaged in the absence of their Deans.

Consideration of Staff Needs

This section presents findings on whether or not the needs of the academic staff were taken into consideration during the formulation of the policy. Table 4.10 presents this finding.

Table 4. 10: Consideration of lecturers’ needs during the policy formulation

		University Campus				
Views		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
Yes	f/%	1(0.6%)	2(1.1%)	0(0.0%)	1(0.6%)	4(2.3%)
No	f/%	8(4.5%)	6(3.4%)	13(7.4%)	11(6.3%)	38(21.6%)
Don’t Know	f/%	29(16.5%)	32(18.2%)	39(22.2%)	34(19.3%)	134(76.1%)
Total	f/%	38(21.6%)	40(22.7%)	52(29.5%)	46(26.1%)	176(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

From the table, 76.1% of the respondents indicated that they do not know whether their needs were taken into consideration during the policy formulation phase. Some of the needs according to them were limited knowledge in research publications, exposure in teaching, and consultancy among others. This agrees with Okurame (2008) assertion that mentoring relationships in most institutions are often developed spontaneously



which sometimes hinge on the closeness of the people, a hierarchical line of responsibility, ethnicity, admiration, competence, shared values, and gender considerations. For some respondents, because they did not participate in the stakeholders' engagement stage, they couldn't see how their needs could have been considered. A Senior lecturer from the Wa Campus indicated, "...we have various needs as lecturers and I can assure you none of those needs are factored into the policy. I have seen the policy and I think it should be revised".

Other needs that they expressed are job upgrades, promotions, delivery styles, research in general, retirement opportunities, and leave periods among others play a very important role in the development of the University. Imperatively, findings from this study show that, overall, a good number of the staff felt their needs were not catered for. Some indicated they were not consulted when drafting the policy while others simply think it wasn't done well. This calls for staff needs assessment and revision of the policy to incorporate and reflect the current professional needs of the University staff. This will largely make the policy relevant to staff development.

Policy Implementation and Evaluation

The implementation and evaluation of the mentoring policy are very vital. Findings on whether or not guidelines were adhered to for the implementation of the mentoring policy are presented in Table 4.11.



Table 4. 11: Agreement with Guidelines for the Implementation of the Policy

		University Campus				
Views		Nyankpala Campus	Navrongo Campus	Wa	Tamale	Total
Strongly Agree	<i>f/%</i>	10(8.4%)	0(0.0%)	1(0.5%)	0(0.0%)	11(8.9%)
Agree	<i>f/%</i>	3(1.5%)	2(1.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(2.6%)	10(5.1%)
Neutral	<i>f/%</i>	26(10.0%)	17(8.7%)	15(7.7%)	25(12.8%)	83(39.0%)
Strongly Disagree	<i>f/%</i>	15(7.7%)	21(10.7%)	35(17.9%)	21(10.7%)	92(46.9%)
Total	<i>f/%</i>	54(27.6%)	40(20.4%)	51(26.0%)	51(26.0%)	196(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

From the table, the majority of the respondents (46.9%) maintained they strongly disagree that guidelines were followed or adhered to in the implementation of the mentoring policy in the University. About 9% (8.9%) strongly agree while 39% of respondents were neutral as to whether or not guidelines are followed before or during the implementation of the Mentoring Policy.

The study found that the majority of those who strongly agree to the guidelines on the implementation policy were at the Nyankpala Campus of the University representing 8.4% out of 8.9%. However, 17.9% out of 46.9% of the respondents from the Wa Campus strongly disagree that guidelines were followed. Against this backdrop, the researcher further asked respondents to indicate whether they are satisfied with the mentoring policy implementation. Table 4.12 presents this finding.



Table 4. 12: Policy implementation

Views	University Campus					Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Very Satisfied	<i>f</i> %	4(2.4%)	0(0.0%)	2(1.2%)	4(2.4%)	10(6.0%)
Somehow Satisfied	<i>f</i> %	9(5.4%)	21(12.6%)	9(5.4%)	17(10.2%)	56(33.5%)
Not Satisfied	<i>f</i> %	24(14.4%)	18(10.8%)	32(19.2%)	27(16.2%)	101(60.5%)
Total	<i>f</i> %	37(22.2%)	39(23.4%)	43(25.7%)	48(28.7%)	167(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Responding to this, 60.5% were not satisfied with the policy, 33.5% were somehow satisfied while 6% indicated that are very satisfied. The study found that for those who indicated that they are very satisfied with the policy, they are those staff that have been with the University since its establishment. This confirms Blaber and Glazebrook (2006). For those who are not satisfied with the implementation of the policy, most of them are at the Wa Campus constituting 19.2% out of 60.5%. Considering the percentage of the respondents that are not satisfied with the implementation of the mentoring policy, it means that policy has been poorly implemented. This confirms Blaber and Glazebrook (2006) assertion that most of the mentoring policies in institutions of higher learning are not properly implemented, hence, the benefits are often not enormous.

4.3 Mentoring Forms/Approaches

As both formal and informal approaches are accepted in the University per the mentoring policy, the researcher considered it necessary to first, examine respondents'



opinions on the existence of the mentoring forms or approaches. Findings are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4. 13: Mentoring Approaches in the University

Opinions	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Formal Mentoring Approach	f/%	10(4.8%)	5(2.4%)	2(1.4%)	4(1.9%)	19(10.5%)
Informal Mentoring Approach	f/%	45(21.3%)	26(12.3%)	31(14.7%)	18(8.5%)	120(56.9%)
Both	f/%	10(4.8%)	9(4.3%)	22(10.0%)	29(13.7%)	72(33.0%)
Total	f/%	65(30.8%)	40(19.0%)	55(26.1%)	51(24.2%)	211(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

The study found that formal and informal forms of mentoring are practiced in the University. The findings show that 10.5% agree that formal mentoring exists. For some of them, this type of mentoring is where conscious efforts are made by the University Management to attach less experienced staff or newly recruited to more experienced staff or faculty member in order to help develop their skills and capabilities. Majority of those who indicated that formal mentoring exists are from the Nyankpala Campus as shown in table 4.13. Some respondents from the Wa Campus recognized that formal mentoring does exist and added that it must be done within a time frame as opined by Lumpkin (2011). An assistant lecturer in the School of Business and Law said, *“for an effective mentoring, you cannot do it forever, because there are other activities to focus on. I think there must also be a senior faculty that should be responsible for guiding the less experienced staff or faculty over a period of time”*.





Another staff from Navrongo reiterated, “*Time is important in this and someone who is more experienced should do the mentoring job*”. This finding is consistent with Reimers (2014) postulation that in formal mentoring, management of an institution deliberately pairs a senior faculty member with a junior faculty member, usually from the same department, for a specified time period; and during which the senior faculty member assumes the responsibility of helping the junior faculty member to grow and develop professionally. This, the researcher found was very necessary for the success of the programme. Also, the study found that formal mentor relationships are usually organized in the workplace where management identifies employees’ needs and officially assign them to mentors in the University.

Alternatively, the majority of the respondents representing 56.9% are of the opinion that informal mentoring approach exists in the University and more pronounced than formal mentoring. The respondents indicated that they are more used to guiding each other than following the pre-planned procedure for mentoring. Some respondents from the Wa Campus of the University reported that due to the multi-campus nature of the University, it is difficult to practice the formal approach that is why the informal looks quite simpler.

For instance, a Senior Lecturer in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS), Wa Campus indicated that “*formal approach is in place, but its practice among colleagues is the issue*”. Furthermore, an Assistant Lecturer with the same Faculty indicated that “*...as lecturers we already have more work to do, and we only have to help ourselves through the informal way*”. Some also asserted that no rules are needed in this type of mentoring as maintained by Metros and Yang (2006) that

informal mentoring relationships have loosely defined objectives and therefore not mandatory.

Furthermore, some respondents from the Tamale Campus reported that as colleagues they do not need to follow any laid down rules in informal mentoring. For instance, a lecturer from the Navrongo campus had this to say, “..no objectives or rules are needed. I think it is all about the relationship with that staff. Sometimes there can be challenges, but it is faster than following rules”. This means that staff in the University self-selects the person they would like to mentor by either consciously or unconsciously based on their convenience. This agrees with Lumpkins (2011) assertion that informal mentoring is a voluntary mentoring relationship that is not assigned and basically lacks structure about how a mentor should work with a mentee.

The findings further reveal that the majority of those who said informal mentoring exist are the staff of the Nyankpala Campus. This was not surprising at all as the Faculty of Agriculture (FOA) is the foundation faculty of the University and hence, it is expected that they may have most (21.3%) of views regarding the two mentoring policies. However, some staff were also of the opinion that both approaches exist. The University for Development Studies is a public University in Ghana and recognizes such as indicated in the policy. As indicated by Okurame (2008) and Naris and Ukpere, (2010) that mentoring in African universities reveal that the mentoring relationships that exist are both formal and informal, but largely informal. Due to this, the researcher asked respondents on their views on the two approaches.

Responding to this, 33% of respondents expressed opinions on both the formal and informal approaches of mentoring. To them, since the University recognizes both and



admitted they have experienced both as the staff of the University. Supporting this, a lecturer from the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (Environment and Natural Resource Department) asserted that, *“for this department, postgraduate students are assigned two supervisors that is a main and supporting supervisor. This is to enable assistant lecturers and lecturers who are not Senior lecturers or Ph.D. holders to learn from their senior colleagues. I think this is one of the ways my department practice it”*.

The key informants also indicated that UDS is practicing both formal and informal mentoring. The study found that most respondents representing 4.8% from the Nyankpala Campus have opinions on the formal approaches to mentoring. The least respondents on this from the four campuses [Nyankpala, Navrongo, Wa and Tamale Campuses] were from the Wa Campus where only two respondents expressed opinions on this. Again, this was not surprising as the Wa Campus is the second youngest (following Tamale) among the four campuses hosting the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS), Faculty of Planning and Land Management (FPLM) and the School of Business and law (SBL).

The researcher found that most academic staff of the Wa Campus have spent less than 8 years working with the University and hence, expressed limited knowledge on this. In light of this, the researcher proceeded to ask respondents the most commonly practiced approach, be it formal or informal. Table 4.14 presents these findings.



Table 4. 14: Mentoring Approach Commonly Practiced

Approaches	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Formal Mentoring Approach	f/%	4(2.0%)	6(3.0%)	0(0.0%)	14(6.9%)	24(11.9%)
Informal Mentoring Approach	f/%	55(27.2%)	33(16.3%)	53(26.2%)	37(18.3%)	178(88.1%)
Total	f/%	59(29.2%)	39(19.3%)	53(26.2%)	51(25.2%)	202(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

The study found that the informal approach to mentoring was commonly practiced in the University relative to formal mentoring. A key informant also confirmed that informal mentoring in the University is more pronounced. He says that

“...as to which of the approaches is commonly practiced in UDS, I will go for the informal. At the department level, lecturers have unofficial mentoring relationships with senior colleagues. It is only recently that we have started implementing the formal mentoring”

This finding is in conformity with that of Okurame (2008) and Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) where it was established that an informal approach to mentoring is more pronounced in the African universities.

Supporting the above findings, a respondent from the Tamale Campus reported that,

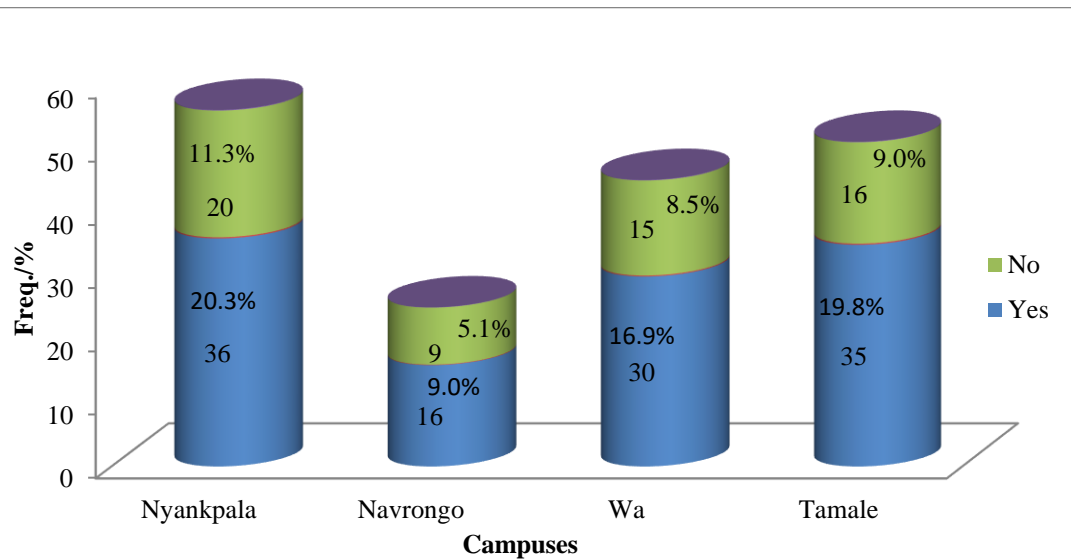
“...it is natural and almost by default to socialize with one another. As this goes on, colleagues within the departments can help mentor other colleagues who are inexperienced”.



This confirms Burgoyne et al. (2009) and Murphy (2014) findings on investment in staff, leadership development and socializations, where the researchers draw a linkage between informal mentoring and normal socialization that takes place in organisations.

Additionally, the study assessed actual participation in the informal mentoring process from the four campuses. This was necessary because, as staff expressed views on the approach that is commonly practiced it was expected that they indicate whether or not they actually participated in it. Figure 4.5 presents findings on this.

Figure 4. 5: Participation in informal mentoring process



Source: Field Survey, 2018

It can be seen from Figure 4.5 that 19.8% of respondents from the Tamale Campus have ever taken part in the informal mentoring process and 20.3% (constituting 36 respondents) from the Nyankpala Campus. Although the respondents answered this question, some raised questions on the nature of the informal mentoring process which they have no knowledge about. They also contend that informal mentoring



relationships mostly arise spontaneously. This confirms Metros and Yang (2006) assertion that the informal mentoring sometimes take place at the unconscious level of the mentee and the mentor.

However, 9% of the respondents from the Tamale Campus indicated that they have not taken part in the informal mentoring process. Also, 8.5% of respondents from the Wa Campus said that they had not taken part. Some of them indicated that they do not want to be seen as doing the wrong thing like gossip or doing what is unacceptable that is why they do not participate. Further, 5.1% from the Navrongo Campus and 11.3% from the Nyankpala Campus express similar views. However, the study found that for some respondents, it was simply due to their understanding of mentoring that made them not to answer this question. Some are of the view that whether or not a staff follows a guide or not, the objectives of mentoring are achieved. Others also decided not to say anything due to the fact that they joined the University recently and have not been taken through any procedure, hence the inability to express their views on this.



4.4 Utilization of the formal and informal approaches

Examining the utilization of the formal and informal approaches to academic staff mentoring in the University is the second objective that the study sought to achieve. Patronage was used as the basis to assess the utilization of the formal and informal mentoring approaches in the University. Findings on this are presented below.

Formal Mentoring

Table 4.15 presents findings on how formal mentoring is patronized by respondents with their views ranging from very high patronage to very low patronage.

Table 4. 15: Utilization of Formal Mentoring Approaches

		University Campus				
Utility		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
Very High	<i>f</i> %	1(0.7%)	5(3.4%)	2(1.4%)	0(0.0%)	8(5.5%)
High	<i>f</i> %	4(2.8%)	1(0.7%)	12(8.3%)	11(7.6%)	28(19.3%)
Low	<i>f</i> %	20(13.8%)	13(9.0%)	11(7.6%)	10(6.9%)	54(37.2%)
Very Low	<i>f</i> %	13(9.0%)	9(6.2%)	6(4.1%)	27(18.6%)	55(37.2%)
Total	<i>f</i> %	38(26.2%)	28(19.3%)	31(21.4%)	48(33.1%)	145(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Findings from the table show only 5.5% of the respondents from the four campuses (Nyankpala, Navrongo, Wa and Tamale) indicated that formal mentoring is highly utilized. The study found that most of those who hold such view are from the Navrongo Campus. The implication of this is that, although some respondents have earlier indicated their awareness on the formal mentoring as captured in the policy document, the majority do not patronize it. This revelation is most likely to affect the achievement of the university formal mentoring policy goals if appropriate measures are not put in place.

Some indicated that the lack of interest is as a result of youngsters that are not willing to avail themselves for mentoring, lack of incentives for senior members, lack of commitment by top management, improper needs assessment of mentees by the



University Management and the paucity of mentors among others. For instance, an assistant lecturer from the Faculty of Planning and Land Management, Wa Campus maintained that *“it is always difficult getting someone to assist you, everyone seems busy”*. This makes it difficult for staff to go through the formal approach and benefit from peer or group experiences as opined by Borgatti and Halgin (2011) in Social Network Theory (SNT).

As a result of this finding, it was considered necessary to examine the factors that influence formal mentoring in the University for Development Studies (UDS). As shown in Table 4.16, 37.2% from the four campuses reported that mentees are selected based on their needs, 37.2% maintained that mentees are selected based on the availability of mentors. Also, 19.3% asserted that they are selected based on the length of service, while 5.5% reported that they are selected based on their age.

Some respondents indicated that if a Senior Lecturer or superior staff is 55 years and a new staff who is 35 years is recruited to the same department, the chance of the new recruit learning a lot of things under the Senior lecturer or Superior staff is high. For those who indicated that it was based on length of service, the majority were found to be at the Wa Campus of the University representing 8.3% out of 19.3%. For them, it is the length of service that determines one’s experience level.

For instance, a respondent explained, *“...if my superior has served the University for more than 10 years and I the mentee have not served at all but ready to serve, I will surely be picked based on my years of service”*. This explains why most mentors have more years of experience than mentees (Mizell, 2010). This also confirms Robinson (2014) assertion that through this relationship, mentors have the opportunity to share



their wisdom and experiences, evolve their own thinking, increases generational awareness, develop new relationships, and deepen their skills for greater efficiency.

Table 4. 16: Factors that influence formal mentoring in UDS

Factors	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala Campus	Navrongo Campus	Wa	Tamale	
Based on Age	f/%	1(0.7%)	5(3.4%)	2(1.4%)	0(0.0%)	8(5.5%)
Based on Length of Service	f/%	4(2.8%)	1(0.7%)	12(8.3%)	11(7.6%)	28(19.3%)
Based on the availability of mentors	f/%	20(13.8%)	13(9.0%)	11(7.6%)	10(6.9%)	54(37.2%)
Based on their needs	f/%	13(9.0%)	9(6.2%)	6(4.1%)	27(18.6%)	55(37.9%)
Total	f/%	38(26.2%)	28(19.3%)	31(21.4%)	48(33.1%)	145(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

The study found that it is not only mentees that benefit from mentoring. As indicated by Ekechukwu and Horsfall (2015) that by virtue of mentors’ involvement in the mentoring process, they can also acquire new skills through training, experience career revitalization, social recognition within and outside the organization, personal satisfaction, self-fulfillment and satisfaction in seeing others grow.

Moreover, the researcher asked respondents to indicate the effectiveness of the current mentoring policy in achieving its own objectives (formal approach). Table 4.17 presents this finding.



Table 4. 17: Effectiveness of the Mentoring Policy in achieving its objectives

		University Campus				
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
Effective	<i>f/%</i>	3(1.9%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	3(1.9%)	6(3.9%)
Not effective	<i>f/%</i>	22(14.3%)	31(20.1%)	31(20.1%)	37(24.0%)	121(78.6%)
Very ineffective	<i>f/%</i>	9(5.8%)	0(0.0%)	10(6.5%)	8(5.2%)	27(17.5%)
Total		<i>f/%</i> 34(22.0%)	31(20.2%)	41(26.6%)	48(31.2%)	154(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Findings from Table 4.15 show that 78.6% of the respondents from the four campuses reported that the mentoring policy is not effective. This agrees with MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership (2005) report that generic mentoring programmes for institutions are ineffective, unlike customized mentoring programmes. Some respondents re-emphasized on the challenge of paucity or scarcity of mentors. Also, 17.5% maintained that it is very ineffective.

This group also shared similar views like the first. For them, most lecturers are scarce and always busy attending to students. This agrees with Banerjee-Batist (2014) position that mentors who are mainly senior colleagues have very busy schedules within the university system, and therefore find it quite difficult to make enough time to mentor the young faculty members. However, 3.9% asserted that it is effective in achieving its objectives. Imperatively, 1.9% of respondents from both the Nyankpala and Tamale Campuses of the University attested to this fact, while Navrongo and the Wa Campuses did not point to the option that it is effective (0.0%). Majority of those from the Nyankpala Campus (14.3%) asserted that it is not effective, followed by those



from the Tamale Campus (24%). This finding is particularly imperative to the study, given that majority of the respondents who alludes the University formal mentorship system is not effective are coming from the foundation campus (Nyankpala) who are expected to have in-depth knowledge about the University mentorship policy, the youngest campus (Tamale campus).

Informal Mentoring

This section presents findings on the patronage of informal mentoring. Research by Petersen and Walke (2012) and Blake-Beard and Murrell (2006) argue that mentoring relationships that are established voluntarily (informal mentoring relationship) tend to be more effective than those that are instructed (formal mentoring relationship). Based on this, the researcher asked respondents to indicate whether staff patronize or utilize informal mentoring in the University and its associated impact. First, their knowledge on its existence was solicited. Table 4.18 presents findings on this.

Table 4. 18: Existence of informal mentoring in UDS

Views	<i>f</i> /%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
I have knowledge of its existence	<i>f</i> /%	45(22.2%)	19(9.4%)	28(13.8%)	41(20.2%)	133(65.5%)
I have no knowledge of its existence	<i>f</i> /%	13(6.4%)	14(6.9%)	24(11.8%)	6(3.0%)	57(28.1%)
I don't know	<i>f</i> /%	3(1.5%)	0(0.0%)	6(3.0%)	4(2.0%)	13(6.4%)
Total	<i>f</i> /%	61(30.0%)	33(16.3%)	58(28.6%)	51(25.1%)	203(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018



It can be observed from the table that 65.5% of the respondents attested to the fact that they have knowledge of its existence. Also, 28.1% reported that they have no knowledge of its existence, while 6.4% reported that they simply don't know whether or not it exists in the four (4) campuses of the University. For those who said it exists, they attributed this largely to socialization, friendship and the fact that it is an everyday issue. For instance, a respondent from the Navrongo Campus said, *"I am always with my colleagues. We learn from each other, share information together. So for us, it is normal and it happens all the time"*. Another respondent from the Wa Campus reiterated, *"Usually when school is in session, we are always together so this happens naturally"*. This confirms Naires and Ukpere (2010) assertion that mentoring happens unconsciously.

Duration of Informal Mentoring

This section presents findings on whether there is a time limit or deadline for informal mentoring in the University.

Table 4. 19: Timeline for informal mentoring relationship

		University Campus					
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total	
Yes	f/%	4(2.4%)	5(3.0%)	9(5.4%)	13(7.8%)	31(18.6%)	
No	f/%	44(26.3%)	19(11.4%)	40(24.0%)	33(19.8%)	136(81.4%)	
Total		f/%	48(28.7%)	24(14.4%)	49(29.3%)	46(27.5%)	167(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Findings from the Table show that 81.4% of respondents said there is no time bound in relation to informal mentoring. One of the key informants also shared a similar view. According to him, a mentoring relationship should not have a time frame. He posits

that “I don’t share the view that a mentoring relationship should have a well-defined time period. Just as learning has no end, mentoring has no end”. This means that once the process starts, it has no deadline attached to it. However, 18.6% of the respondents reported that there are time bounds to informal mentoring. To them, once a staff is transferred or retires the process ceases. This means informal mentoring to some respondents is indefinite. This is contrary to Metros and Yang (2006) assertion that informal mentoring goes on all the time in an institution. The respondents were also made to rate informal mentoring relationships in the University and the results are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4. 20: Rating of informal mentoring relationships

Ratings	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Very effective	f/%	15(7.5%)	9(4.5%)	13(6.5%)	12(6.0%)	49(24.6%)
Effective	f/%	18(9.1%)	8(4.0%)	17(8.5%)	21(10.5%)	64(32.2%)
Not Effective	f/%	13(6.5%)	8(4.0%)	20(10.0%)	13(6.5%)	54(27.1%)
Very ineffective	f/%	15(7.5%)	4(2.0%)	8(4.0%)	5(2.5%)	32(16.1%)
Total	f/%	61(30.7%)	29(14.6%)	58(29.1%)	51(25.6%)	199(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.20 presents findings on respondents’ ratings of informal mentoring relationships in the University. Majority of the respondents (32.2%) indicated that informal mentoring is effective in the University. However, 27.1% reported that it is not effective, while 16.1% indicates that it is very ineffective. For those who said it is



very effective, the study found that most of them are in the Nyankpala (7.5%), Wa (6.5%) and Tamale (6.0%) Campuses.

For them, the ability to interact with other colleagues and share information is all part of the process. Some also reported that they derive a lot of benefits from informal mentoring in the University. This is contrary to findings of Naris and Ukpere (2010) that informal mentoring is less rewarding and often not recognized by institutions. This is mainly because of the relationships between mentees and mentors as opined by Reimers (2014) who argued that formal mentoring guarantees that every junior faculty member gets a mentor if paired formally unlike informal mentoring where some junior faculty members will get mentors. The finding is, however, in line with that of Ragins and Cotton (1999) and Lumpkin (2011) where informal mentoring is adjudged to be very effective.



Patronage of Informal Mentoring

Findings on respondents’ patronage of informal mentoring are presented in table 4.21.

Table 4. 21: Patronage of the informal Mentoring Approaches

Patronage	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala Campus	Navrongo Campus	Wa	Tamale	
Very High Usage	f/%	13(9.0%)	7(4.8%)	6(4.1%)	10(6.9%)	36(24.8%)
High Usage	f/%	20(13.8%)	11(7.6%)	11(7.6%)	10(6.9%)	52(35.9%)
Low Usage	f/%	1(0.7%)	7(4.8%)	2(1.4%)	17(11.7%)	27(18.6%)
Very Low Usage	f/%	4(2.8%)	3(2.1%)	12(8.3%)	11(7.6%)	30(20.7%)
Total	f/%	38(26.2%)	28(19.3%)	31(21.4%)	48(33.1%)	145(100.0%)

Source: Author’s Field, Survey, 2018

From the table, the majority of the respondents (37.9%) reported that they utilize or patronize informal mentoring more. From the interview, most of them attributed this to the benefits they derive from it. A lecturer from the Faculty of Applied Science said, “...it is fast [referring to informal mentoring] and simple. You get your feedback properly and without delays”. Another lecturer from the Tamale campus also said, “informal mentoring for me is good. You are always assured of timely feedback”. This enhances the social capital and networking of staff as opined by Borgatti and Halgin (2011) in their Social Network Theory (SNT).



Factors that influence informal mentoring

Varied factors affect or influence informal mentoring and as such, this section presents findings on factors that influence informal mentoring in the University.

Table 4. 22: Factors that influence informal mentoring relationship

	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Closeness of the Person	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	43(21.8%)	27(13.7%)	20(10.2%)	31(15.7%)	121(61.4%)
Hierarchical line of responsibility	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	2(1.0%)	0(0.0%)	7(3.6%)	5(2.5%)	14(7.1%)
Ethnicity	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	1(0.5%)	1(0.5%)	3(1.5%)	5(2.5%)	10(5.1%)
Admiration	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	2(1.0%)	0(0.0%)	2(1.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(2.0%)
Competence	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	4(2.0%)	8(4.1%)	12(6.1%)	0(0.0%)	24(12.2%)
Shared Values	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	5(2.5%)	0(0.0%)	3(1.5%)	2(1.0%)	10(5.1%)
Gender Considerations	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	1(0.5%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(2.0%)	5(2.5%)
Religion	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	6(3.0%)	1(0.5%)	2(1.0%)	0(0.0%)	9(4.6%)
Total	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	64(32.5%)	37(18.8%)	49(24.9%)	47(23.9%)	197(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Factors that influence informal mentoring per the context of this study were; closeness of the person, a hierarchical line of responsibility, ethnicity, admiration, competence, shared values, gender considerations, and religion. Findings from Table 4.19 show that 61.4% reported closeness of a person whether mentee or mentor as a major factor that influences informal mentoring relationship. Also, the least 2% reported that admiration plays a vital role in the informal mentoring process. They attributed this to the “grapevine effect” that exists in most organization.





Most organizations and educational institutions are aware of this mentoring process (Blake-Beard, 1999). The study also found that a combination of these factors largely influences informal mentoring than formal mentoring. Studies on mentoring in African universities reveal that the mentoring relationships that exist are both formal and informal, but largely informal (Okurame, 2008; Naris and Ukpere, 2010). This is the main reason why organizations, particularly academic institutions including UDS in recent times have started formalizing mentoring relationships (Okurame, 2008) with the aim of getting the maximum benefits of informal mentoring.

Based on this finding, the researcher examined the ratings of both the formal and informal approaches to mentoring by asking respondents to rate them as very effective, effective, ineffective and very ineffective. The findings revealed that 62.3% indicated that both the formal and informal approaches to mentoring are not effective in the University. The study found that although most of them agreed on the utilization of the two approaches, they have divergent views on their effectiveness. Also, 33.6% reported that the formal and informal mentoring approaches are ineffective.

Table 4. 23: Effectiveness of Formal and Informal Mentoring Approaches

		University Campus				
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
Very Effective	<i>f/%</i>	4(2.7%)	2(1.4%)	1(0.7%)	4(2.7%)	11(7.5%)
Effective	<i>f/%</i>	11(7.5%)	7(4.8%)	12(8.2%)	8(5.5%)	38(26.0%)
Ineffective	<i>f/%</i>	9(6.2%)	6(4.1%)	9(6.2%)	7(4.8%)	31(21.2%)
Very Ineffective	<i>f/%</i>	10(6.9%)	16(10.0%)	13(8.9%)	27(18.5%)	66(45.2%)
Total	<i>f/%</i>	34(23.3%)	31(21.2%)	35(24.0%)	46(31.5%)	146(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Only 7.5% of respondents attested that the formal and informal mentoring approaches are very effective. The respondents from the Tamale Campus attributed this to personal observation rather than how the two really benefit other staff. Conversely, those who said it is ineffective (45.2%) pointed to the absence of the policy itself, lack of mentoring units among others. Findings are shown in Table 4.16.

Factors to be considered in matching Mentees to mentors

The study found factors such as similarities in the area of specializations (75.4%), Gender (4.3%), Age differences (4.7%), Faculty affiliation (4.3%) and Departmental affiliation as major factors to be considered in matching Mentees to mentors. Table 4.24 illustrates this finding.

Table 4. 24: Factors to consider in matching mentees to mentors

Factors	<i>f</i> /%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Similarities in area of specialization	<i>f</i> /%	51(24.2%)	28(13.3%)	44(20.9%)	36(17.1%)	159(75.4%)
Gender	<i>f</i> /%	1(0.5%)	4(1.9%)	3(1.4%)	1(0.5%)	9(4.3%)
Age differences	<i>f</i> /%	1(0.5%)	0(0.0%)	4(1.9%)	5(2.4%)	10(4.7%)
Faculty	<i>f</i> /%	5(2.4%)	4(1.9%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	9(4.3%)
Being in the same Department	<i>f</i> /%	8(3.8%)	1(0.5%)	6(2.8%)	9(4.3%)	24(11.4%)
Total	<i>f</i> /%	66(31.3%)	37(17.5%)	57(27.0%)	51(24.2%)	211(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

The findings show that, principally, when pairing potential mentees with mentors in the various campuses, their professional or academic backgrounds (areas of specialty)



are mostly considered to ensure that the mentee’s area of specialty is in line with her/his potential mentor. This makes the mentoring process easy and relevant to both the mentee and the mentor.

Also, the researcher asked respondents to indicate whether it is appropriate for potential mentees to be involved in the process of mentoring. Majority of them (71.1%) maintained that they agreed with this, 18% did not agree, while 10.9% were not too sure whether or not this should happen. Table 4.25 presents this finding. This is the stance of the Social Network Theory (SNT) by Borgatti and Halgin (2011) on the networking between the actors of every institution for effective mentoring to take place.

Table 4. 25: Involvement of potential mentees in the process

Views	University Campus					Total
	Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale		
I think so	<i>f/%</i> 44(20.9%)	33(15.6%)	36(17.1%)	37(17.5%)	150(71.1%)	
I don't think so	<i>f/%</i> 9(4.3%)	3(1.4%)	12(5.7%)	14(6.6%)	38(18.0%)	
Not too sure	<i>f/%</i> 13(6.2%)	1(0.5%)	9(4.3%)	0(0.0%)	23(10.9%)	
Total	<i>f/%</i> 66(31.3%)	37(17.5%)	57(27.0%)	51(24.2%)	211(100.0%)	

Source: Field Survey, 2018

4.5 Mentoring and academic staff development in the University

As part of this study, the researcher also considered it necessary to investigate the contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University. Indicators utilized were High Research output, Teaching Skills, Rapid Promotions, Further



studies as well as Community Service and Networking. Tables 4.26, 4.27, 4.28, 4.29 and 4.30 present findings on these.

High Research Output

Table 4.26 presents views on whether high research output hinges on mentoring.

Table 4. 26: Impact of Mentoring on Research Output

Views	University Campus					Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Strongly agree	<i>f</i> %	9(5.4%)	1(0.6%)	6(3.6%)	5(3.0%)	21(12.6%)
Agree	<i>f</i> %	7(4.2%)	6(3.6%)	15(9.0%)	2(1.2%)	30(18.1%)
Disagree	<i>f</i> %	45(27.1%)	18(10.9%)	25(15.1%)	27(16.3%)	115(69.3%)
Total	<i>f</i> %	61(36.7%)	25(15.1%)	46(27.7%)	34(20.5%)	166(100.0%)

$\chi^2=3.777, df=1, Sig. 0.707$

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Majority of the respondents (69.3%) disagree that mentoring impact positively on their research. These views are consistent with Sullivan and de Janasz, (2004), assertion that mentoring is not as important as it is being branded, especially in the universities and colleges because it does not aid research. It can be concluded from the finding that mentoring over the years has not enormously contributed to staff development in the area of research in the University.

However, 12.6% of respondents strongly agree that mentoring has impacted positively on their research output. This finding is in consonance with Agunloye’s (2013) position that mentoring programmes help develop mentees research and service domains. The chi-square test from table 4.26 reveals that at the 5% significant level,



High research output was 3.777 (*df*, 1). The chi-square test revealed that there is no significant relationship between mentoring and high research output as asserted by Sullivan and de Janasz, (2004)

Teaching Skills

Teaching skills is key to academic staff development in both public and private Universities and thus, Table 4.27 presents views on whether enhanced teaching skills hinges on mentoring or not.

Table 4. 27: Impact of Mentoring on Teaching Skills

		University Campus				
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	Total
Strongly agree	<i>f</i> %	7(3.8%)	3(1.6%)	7(3.8%)	5(2.7%)	22(12.0%)
Agree	<i>f</i> %	18(9.8%)	13(7.1%)	6(3.3%)	15(8.2%)	52(28.4%)
Disagree	<i>f</i> %	48(26.3%)	16(8.8%)	18(9.8%)	27(14.8%)	109(59.6%)
Total		<i>f</i> % 73(39.9%)	32(17.5%)	31(16.9%)	47(25.7%)	183(100.0%)

$\chi^2=5.745, df=1, Sig. 0.222$

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Majority of the respondents (59.6%) disagree that enhanced teaching skills hinge on mentoring. Most of these respondents from the four campuses indicated that they hardly get advice and guidance from colleague and superior staff on how to teach effectively. This finding is at variant with that of Ensher et al. (2001) and Ahmad and Shahzad (2011) that mentoring does not only support in the development of employees’ skills and competencies but also provides a positive change of employees’ teaching skills to their improved performance and organizational outcomes. This



implies that mentoring which is a form of training develops core competencies of employees for the attainment of organizational goals. From the table, the significant value of the chi-square test is 0.222 which is above the 5% significant level. This means that there is no significant relationship between mentoring and teaching skills of the academic staff.

Rapid Promotions

Findings on the impact of mentoring on rapid promotions of the staff are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4. 28: Impact of Mentoring on Rapid Promotions

Views		University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Strongly agree	f/%	3(4.1%)	2(0.0%)	4(3.1%)	1(2.6%)	10(6.9%)
Agree	f/%	5(4.1%)	4(3.6%)	6(13.8%)	9(9.2%)	24(16.4%)
Disagree	f/%	37(23.2%)	20(9.2%)	26(12.8%)	29(14.4%)	112(76.7%)
	f/%	45(30.8%)	26(17.8%)	36(24.7%)	39(26.7%)	146(100.0%)
Total						

$\chi^2=0.925$, $df=2$, $Sig. 0.631$

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.28 presents views on the impact of mentoring on rapid promotions of staff. Majority of the respondents (76.7%) disagree that rapid promotion of staff in the University hinges on mentoring. As few as 6.9% of the respondents indicate that mentorship has contributed to their promotions. A staff from the Tamale campus asserts, "*It has really helped me to get promoted to Senior Lecturer...I think a senior colleague whom I associated myself with played a critical role in this*". However, the overwhelming majority of the respondents (76.7%) are of the view that mentoring has



played no role in their promotions. From the table, the significant value of the chi-square test is 0.631 which is above the 5% significant level. This means that there is no significant relationship between mentoring and rapid promotions of University staff.

Further Studies

Staff who wish to pursue further studies will in a way need some guidance from more experienced faculty colleagues, and this is where mentoring becomes essential to staff further education. Based on this understanding, the study seeks to establish whether or not mentoring has any impact on staff further studies. Findings on the impact of mentoring on further studies by staff are presented in table 4.29.

Table 4. 29: Impact of Mentoring on Further Studies

Views	University Campus					Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Strongly agree	f/%	13(6.4%)	0(0.0%)	6(2.9%)	5(2.6%)	24(11.8%)
Agree	f/%	6(2.9%)	7(3.5%)	27(13.2%)	18(8.8%)	58(28.4%)
Disagree	f/%	51(24.6%)	18(8.9%)	25(12.3%)	28(13.7%)	122(59.8%)
Total	f/%	70(34.2%)	25(12.4%)	58(28.4%)	51(25.0%)	204(100.0%)

$X^2=0.112, df=1, Sig. 0.738$

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Majority of the respondents (59.8%) disagree that mentoring has impacted positively on further studies of the staff of the University. This is contrary to views of Cooke and Meyer’s (2007) and Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) who reported that mentoring as a tool at the workplace helps employees in times of further studies. According to Dankw



and Dankwa (2013), mentoring also helps new lecturers in developing their skills and capabilities. They also indicated that it encourages mentees on educational opportunities and career development, and also provide support for the work of mentees just to ensure successful job performance. From the table, the significant value of the chi-square test is 0.738 which is above the 5% significant level. This means that there is no significant relationship between mentoring and further studies of the University academic staff.

Community Service and Networking

One of the core duties of an academic staff is community service hence, the need to assess whether or not mentoring has impacted positively on community service and networking within and outside the University. Table 4.30 presents findings on the impact of mentoring on community service and networking.

Table 4. 30: Impact of Mentoring on Community Service and Networking

Views	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Strongly agree	f/%	8(4.1%)	5(2.6%)	6(3.1%)	0(0.0%)	19(9.7%)
Agree	f/%	8(4.1%)	18(9.2%)	27(13.8%)	7(3.6%)	60(30.8%)
Disagree	f/%	45(23.1%)	28(14.4%)	25(12.8%)	18(9.2%)	116(59.5%)
Total	f/%	61(31.3%)	51(26.2%)	58(29.7%)	25(12.8%)	195(100.0%)

$X^2=0.963, df=1, Sig. 0.326$

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

Majority of the respondents (59.5%) disagree that mentoring has impacted on community service and networking positively. Only 9.7% strongly agree that





mentoring has impacted staff development positively. The researcher asked respondents from the four (4) campuses why they strongly disagree on the impact of mentoring on community service and networking in the University. Responding to this, a respondent from the Wa Campus [Faculty of Integrated Development Studies] indicated that, “...some of us have not heard of it [mentoring]. I, for instance, I don’t think it has impacted on my work in any way”. Another respondent from the Nyankpala Campus reported that “It has no impact me in any way. It can be strengthened, but as it is now, it has not achieved its purpose in the area of community service and networking”. These views were reiterated by a respondent who was a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Education that the policy is there but has just not achieved its intended purpose. This implies that more work needs to be done to address these and make the policy fully operational. From the table, the significant value of the chi-square test is 0.326 which is above the 5% significant level. This means that there is no significant relationship between mentoring and community service and networking of University staff.

However, through this mentoring relationship, the reputation of the UDS will be enhanced and the capacities of staff will also be enhanced. As indicated by a respondent, “...we can together promote the UDS brand with one voice as information flow in this relationship”. This agrees with Ekechukwu and Horsfall (2015) assertion that mentoring increases the profile of the institution as it places a high value on supporting and developing its academic staff and increases the reputation of the institution as a result of improved quality of research and teaching.

Although the majority of the respondents downplayed the contribution of mentoring to community service and networking, some, mainly those who started as SRAs insisted that its contribution to staff development, in general, is enormous. Most of them within the space of 15 years have risen to the rank of Senior Lecturer with PhDs. The study found that most of the respondents who indicated that mentoring has impacted positively on staff development were from the Nyankpala Campus. Most of these respondents attributed it to efforts by the previous management of the University about 15 years ago. This means all those who have spent less than 15 years may not have benefited from this mentoring programme.

Other benefits of mentoring that the study found were; enhances promotions, effective networking, enhances lecturing, career development, and social services provisioning. For instance, a staff from the Nyankpala campus said, *“I have benefited a lot from mentoring. It has helped me network effectively, enhance my lecturing, career development, and even life goals and other social services”*.

Another respondent also indicated how it has helped him develop his skills and capabilities. He asserts, *“At first, standing in front of people was difficult, but through my boss’s assistance I can now do it with ease”*. This confirms Wronka’s (2012) assertion that mentoring helps in developing the capabilities, skills, and talents of individuals in communities as well as many different organizations, including universities.

A respondent from Tamale also indicates that mentoring has helped him get access to lots of educational opportunities both in Ghana and abroad. This confirms Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) finding that mentors encourage mentees on educational opportunities

and career growth and development. Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) indicated that some of the personal benefits that accrue to the mentees from mentoring also include: increase in self-esteem, self-respect, and self-confidence.

Most of the respondents from the Nyankpala and Tamale campuses indicated that mentoring has assisted mentees in acquiring such skills as interpersonal, time management and self-organizational skills in the University. As indicated by Naris and Ukpere (2010), investing in mentoring programmes for young academic staff ensures human resource capacity building which is a prerequisite for achieving academic institutions' visions and missions.

Staff Development Models

Table 4. 31: Staff Development Models that respondents have been part of

	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Conferences	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	5(2.6%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	5(2.7%)
Workshop/Seminars	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	27(14.2%)	11(5.8%)	21(11.1%)	15(7.9%)	74(38.9%)
Further Studies	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	6(3.2%)	16(8.4%)	4(2.1%)	10(5.3%)	36(18.9%)
Mentoring	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	15(7.9%)	2(1.1%)	28(14.7%)	26(13.7%)	71(37.4%)
Collaborations	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	1(0.5%)	0(0.0%)	3(1.6%)	0(0.0%)	4(2.1%)
Total	<i>f</i> / <i>%</i>	54(28.4%)	29(15.3%)	56(29.5%)	51(26.8%)	190(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.31 presents findings on staff development models that respondents have been part of. The study found that 38.9% maintained that they have been part of workshops and seminars organized by their department or the school. 2.7% reported that they have



been part of conferences, 18.9% of respondents from the four campuses indicated that they have been beneficiaries of scholarships for further studies.

In addition, 37.4% and 2.1% of respondents assert that they have been part of mentoring and collaborations respectively organized by the University in the various campuses. This means that the majority of the staff in the University have been part of these staff development models to enhance their performance.

Furthermore, the study found that respondents from the Wa Campus have benefited (29.5%) more in these programmes than the staff in the other campuses. This was followed closely by those at the Nyankpala Campus constituting 28.4% of respondents. Those from Tamale are third with 26.8%, while those from the Navrongo Campus are the least respondents representing 15.3%. The implication of this finding is that although respondents have expressed little knowledge on the mentoring policy, they do not deny haven partaken in seminars, workshops, conferences among others organized by the University.



Table 4. 32: Views on whether mentoring is well planned, guided and it provides training and networking opportunities for academic staff

Views	f/%	University Campus				Total
		Nyankpala	Navrongo	Wa	Tamale	
Highly agree	f/%	11(5.5%)	6(3.0%)	11(5.5%)	15(7.5%)	43(21.6%)
Agree	f/%	8(4.0%)	3(1.5%)	4(2.0%)	7(3.5%)	22(11.1%)
Not Agree	f/%	22(11.1%)	19(9.5%)	23(11.6%)	7(3.5%)	71(35.7%)
Highly Disagree	f/%	18(9.0%)	5(2.5%)	18(9.0%)	22(11.1%)	63(31.7%)
Total	f/%	59(29.6%)	33(16.6%)	56(28.1%)	51(25.6%)	199(100.0%)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2018

Findings from Table 4.32 indicate that majority of respondents from the four campuses (35.7%) reported that they did not agree that mentoring in the University is well planned, guided and provides training and networking opportunities for academic staff. Following this, 31.7% of respondents indicated that they highly disagree that mentoring in the University is well planned, guided and provides training and networking opportunities for academic staff.

In addition, minority (11.1% and 21.6%) of the respondents from the four campuses agree and highly agree that mentoring in the University is well planned, guided and provides training and networking opportunities for academic staff. The majority of those who highly disagree that mentoring is well planned and guided and it is supported with training and networking opportunities for academic staff were at the Nyankpala Campus.

This study found that it was due to the number of staff that work there and familiarity with the policies in the University. The minority of these respondents (those who answered this question) were found at the Navrongo Campus. It was not too surprising as staff numerical strength in this campus was low and hence, knowledge in the mentoring process will also be affected. This means that more work is required from the University authorities to organize, plan and guide how mentoring is undertaken in the University to provide network opportunities for staff as espoused by the social network theory.



4.6 Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University

This section presents challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University. Having realized variances in the years spent by the staff of the University and experiences per Faculty, it was imperative to inquire of the challenges that staff face in relation to academic mentoring in the University. Findings are shown in figure 4.3. The findings show that 15% of respondents reported that youngsters are unwilling to avail themselves for mentoring in the University, 20% lamented of lack of incentives for senior members, while 30% indicated lack of commitment by top management. Only 5% asserted that there is improper needs assessment of mentees by the University Management. Other challenges identified were a busy schedule for experienced faculty members, the paucity of mentors and poor mentoring structure.

The study found that a lack of commitment by top management is a major challenge of mentoring in the University. The key informants however disagreed. One of them indicated that “... *management is committed to staff mentoring in the University. Out of the University Management’s commitment, a mentoring policy has been put in place, but the HoDs are not committed to its implementation. When I was head of the department, I mentored a lot of lecturers in the department, but now the same thing cannot be said about most HoDs we have today*”.

The research also showed unwillingness of mentees to avail themselves for mentoring as a challenge. For instance, some respondents indicated that they usually do not allocate enough time for this. Some young and less experienced staff see themselves as being groomed already in their academic pursuits and therefore do not see the need





to avail themselves for mentoring at the workplace. The mentees' unwillingness to participate in mentorship is also attributable to the fact that mentees are not often involved in the programme design as well as not educated on the need to participate in mentoring programmes. A key informant also indicated that *"some of the young lecturers simply don't regard mentoring as an important tool for career development, and for that matter, they on their own"*. The unwillingness of the youngsters to avail themselves for mentoring may also affect the mentoring relationship negatively. As pointed by Chesterman (2001) that mentees are sometimes also not committed to the mentoring relationship due to lack of time.

Following this challenge was the absence of incentives for Senior Members. For instance, a respondent from the Wa Campus (specifically the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies) said, *"some of us have the desire to assist new entrants. We help and guide them, but we do not receive any incentive from the University for this. Even when you want to organize seminars or workshops, the general saying is that there is no money. It's a great challenge"*.

Another respondent from the same campus said, *"...sometimes the University also needs to reward those who do such works [referring to those who mentor colleague lecturers]"*. Some of the respondents from the four campuses (Wa, Tamale, Nyankpala, and Navrongo) were of the opinion that incentives for mentoring should be part of the conditions of service for Senior Members. This challenge confirms Handover (2014) assertion that some managers see mentoring as an unnecessary concept in human resource development, and therefore do not commit financial resources to mentoring programmes. One of the key informants, however, dismissed

the claim that there are no incentive packages for mentors in the University. According to him, when it comes to promotion of academic staff, the University considers the number of people mentored by the applicant. He states that “...*the number of people you mentor gives you points when it comes to promotion....that in itself is an incentive*”. The key informant, however, admitted that the University has no monetary reward for mentors.

Yet, another challenge is improper needs assessment of mentees. Conducting an effective needs assessment of mentees will enable Heads of Department (HODs) to match mentees to mentors. Some respondents indicated that the unit heads and departmental heads also fail to match mentees and mentors due to lack of knowledge on the specific needs of mentees. This is a serious challenge because matching mentees and mentors in mentorship is critical to an organizational success. As indicated by Knippelmeyer and Torracco (2007) that more often than not, mentees and mentors are mismatched they do not have mutual interests in terms of research, course area, and other domains. These challenges to a large extent have the tendency of rendering the mentoring policy ineffective.

Some respondents from the four (4) campuses also blamed the seeming ineffectiveness of mentoring in the University on the absence of a policy. A section of respondents from the Navrongo Campus reported that since they have not seen copies of the policy that means, no policy exist. For some, it is not only the absence of a policy, but relevant workshops on mentoring in the University as well. Yet, some respondents from the Wa Campus attributed this to the neglect of formal mentoring programmes by the University in general. Some respondents from the Wa Campus shared similar views



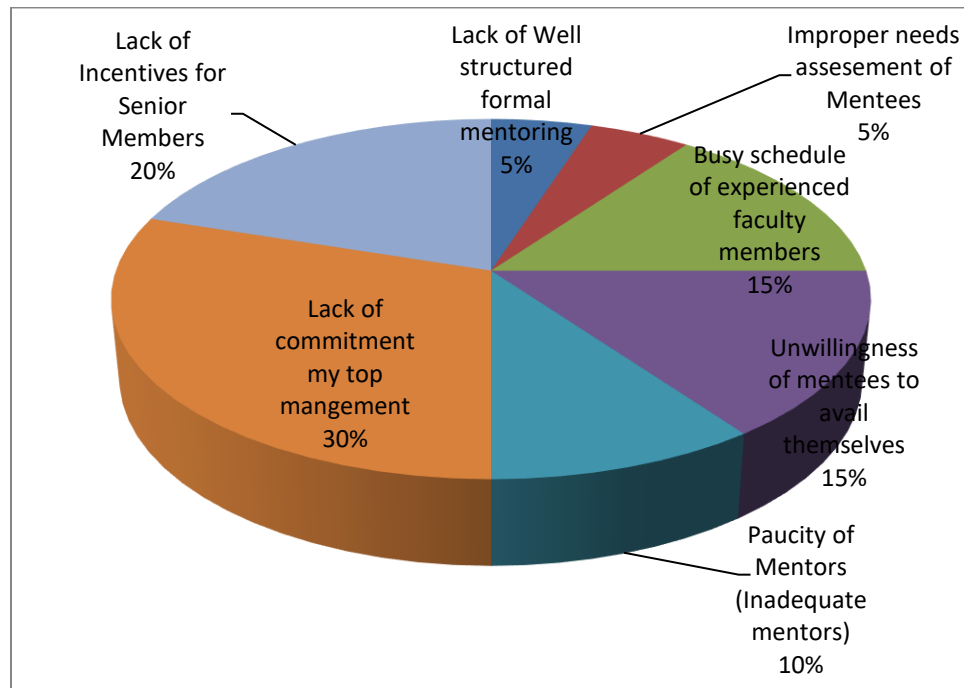
with those from the Navrongo Campus that, a detailed programme on mentoring is currently not in place. This, the researcher realized they are just not informed about it or have not seen it. The University for Development Studies (UDS) has a mentoring policy which embraces both formal and informal approaches with emphasis on the former. As indicated by Meschitti (2014), Okurame (2008), Knippelmeyer and Torracco (2007), the ignorance of a mentoring policy can be blamed on the absence of information or fragmented information on it in the area of research.

From the findings, another challenge of academic staff mentoring identified by the respondents is the limited knowledge on mentoring. As indicated earlier, the study found that most Senior Members are not aware of the mentoring policy of the University. A staff from the Tamale Campus said, “...*I have heard of it, but the truth is I haven't seen it before nor read it*”. A female lecturer at the Nyankpala Campus reiterated that, “*colleagues talk about it sometimes, but I haven't read through it. I will try and go through it when I get one*”. Some, however, agreed that they all partake in the informal approach since no proper procedure is required for that (Meschitti, 2014). Against this backdrop, one can only assume the effects of this on staff development in the University.

Furthermore, some respondent in addition to the absence of needs assessment by management also pointed to weak appraisal system in the University and lack of well-structured formal mentoring by the University (5% each) as presented in Figure 4.6. They attributed this to the overall University system which has a mentoring policy, but no appraisal system in place to actually monitor mentoring programmes. Improper needs assessment of mentees is very critical if any serious mentoring is to be done.



Figure 4. 6: Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University



Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018

The study also identified a busy schedule on the part of experienced faculty members to mentor new staff or the inexperienced staff. Mentors who are mainly senior colleagues have very busy schedules within the university system (UDS) and therefore find it quite difficult to make enough time to mentor the young faculty members. This may affect the mentoring process in the University negatively. As indicated by Banerjee-Batist (2014) and Dankwa and Dankwa (2013) that lack of time on the part of mentors serve as barriers to the effectiveness of mentoring programmes.

Others also said no serious mentoring can be done without a well-structured system. In relation to this, the researcher asked focal persons at the University’s Central Administration in Tamale and this is what they said, “...*We have plans to review the current mentoring policy. Hopefully, this will be done soon* [one of the key informants



noted]. Another key informant said, “...pretty soon, mentoring would be a major tool for staff development. We will surely make mentoring more effective in the coming years. In the recent academic staff recruitment, the University carried out, the Appointments and Promotion Committee (APC) appointed mentors for the new lecturers”. This exposes the challenges the University faces in its efforts to make mentoring an effective tool for academic staff development.

For those who indicated that the major challenge is the absence of mentoring Units or well-structured system, they attributed this to total negligence on the part of the University management especially the Human resource section. A respondent had this to say;

“a well- structured section or unit on mentoring in every faculty or department is important. As it stands now, we do not have that and that affects current staff performance. For instance, when I joined the University, I was told to prepare and submit course outlines within a short time. I couldn’t get anyone to consult since the University was on vacation at the time. It is really a challenge and needs to be looked at”.

Another respondent who was a Head of Department (HOD) from the Nyankpala Campus supported this view by making reference to other sister Universities in Ghana where these units exist. He asserts, “...when you go to places like Legon and UCC they have it and I don’t see why we can’t do same or even better”. This indicates the desire for Units to be established for staff mentoring and other purposes.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the results and discussions of the study. This chapter presents the summary and conclusions on the research findings and recommendations that would help address the problems identified. Suggestions for further studies have also been stated in this chapter.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study assessed the academic staff mentoring approaches in the UDS and how it contributes to staff development. Having reviewed related literature, the methodology was linked to the theoretical framework which is hinged on Social Network Theory (SNT). Respondents were selected through a cluster, simple random and purposive sampling procedures. The data were collected through questionnaire and interview guides. Analyzed data were presented in tables and figures, while cross-tabulations were used to present quantitative data with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v. 20.0). The main findings are summarized as follows:

5.2.1 Mentoring Forms/Approaches in the University

Majority of the respondents contend that the university has both formal and informal mentoring. The study also found that the informal approach to mentoring was commonly practiced. The findings show that the Nyankpala Campus was highest with regards to the recognition of the two approaches.



5.2.2 Utilization of the formal and informal approaches

The findings revealed that both the formal and informal approaches to mentoring are not very effective in the University, especially the formal approach. The study found that although most of them agreed on the utilization of the two approaches, they have divergent views on their effectiveness.

It was observed that only few of the respondents have knowledge about the existence of the University mentoring policy. Some reported that they simply do not know whether or not it exists in the four (4) campuses of the University. Majority of the respondents indicated that informal mentoring is more effective than the formal mentoring in the University.

5.2.3 Contribution of mentoring to academic staff development in the University

On the contribution of mentoring to academic staff development, the study found that, some of the academic staff have developed their capabilities in terms of high research, teaching skills, rapid promotions, further studies as well as community service and networking. However, based on the chi-square test, mentoring in UDS has largely not impacted positively on staff development.

5.2.4 Challenges of academic staff mentoring in the University

Some respondents reported of the unwillingness of youngsters to avail themselves for mentoring, while others lamented of lack of incentives for mentors. Others are busy schedules of experienced faculty members and lack of commitment by top



management of the University. Again, respondents from the four (4) campuses reported paucity of mentors, while others lamented on the lack of well-structured formal mentoring. The main challenge that this study found was lack of commitment by the top University Management.

5.3 Conclusions

Informal approach to mentoring is commonly practiced in the University. Though not significant, some benefits derived are high research output, enhanced teaching skills, rapid promotions, further studies as well as community service and networking. There is a low level of awareness of the mentoring policy among the academic staff in the University. Although both formal and informal approaches to mentoring are practiced, the informal is more pronounced. In relation to these, the researcher concludes that mentoring over the years has not significantly contributed to academic staff development in the University. The unwillingness of youngsters to avail themselves for mentoring, busy schedules of experienced faculty members, lack of commitment by top management of the University and the paucity of mentors are issues of concern. These need urgent attention to achieve the objective of the mentoring policy.

5.4 Recommendations

From the findings, the following recommendations are proffered:

- a. The Directorate of Academic Planning Quality Assurance (DAPQA) should fully implement the University mentoring policy to reap the full benefits of it. The findings reveal that very little effort has been made since its formulation in 2012 to operationalize the policy as 62% of the respondents are not aware of its existence.



There is also the need to make available the copies of the policy to the Deans and the Directors for onward distribution to all staff in their respective faculties schools and directorates;

- b. Steps should be taken by the top management of the University to strengthen the formal mentoring to complement the informal mentoring of staff in the University. This is the surest way for the University to develop the skills and capabilities of the staff for competitive advantage;
- c. Senior faculty members engage as mentors need to be incentivized to give of their very best in the mentoring relationship. The incentive package should not be limited to promotions, but could also be in a form of monetary rewards, conferences among others;
- d. The needs of the mentees should be rigorously assessed by Heads of Department before they are assigned to mentors for effective mentorship. Mentoring is not a one-size-fits-all concept since individual mentees have different mentoring needs, and for that matter, rolling out a customized mentoring programme will be more rewarding;
- e. The mentoring goals and objectives should be clearly defined by the University Management in consultation with the Deans and Heads of Department. This would enable the mentees and the mentors to know what is to be achieved in the mentorship. With clear-cut objectives, periodic evaluation can be conducted to ascertain whether the objectives are being achieved or not.
- f. The University Management should institute mentoring units in all the Faculties/Schools to promote academic staff mentoring. For purposes of effectiveness, coordinators, with a rank not less than a Senior Lecturer should be appointed to man



the units. The coordinators would serve as liaison officers between the Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPAQ) and their respective faculties/schools on matters bordering on mentoring. In this case, the central coordinating unit would be the DAPQA.

- g. When matching mentees and mentors in formal mentoring, the Heads of Department should base it on similarities of interests for better mentoring experience. It is, therefore, imperative allow prospective mentees to propose their preferred mentors before they are initiated. This will not only, promote cooperation, but developing the skills and capabilities of the mentees appropriately;
- h. Experienced faculty members should be equipped with the needed mentoring skills to better groom the younger ones. The training should be organized by the Training and Development (T&D) Unit of the University where topnotch academic mentors would be invited to serve as resource persons; and
- i. The University Management should continue to encourage recruitment of Senior Research Assistants (SRA) since this gives them an obvious opportunity to be mentored by the senior faculty members. The academic staff that started as SRAs in the University quickly rose through the ranks to become Senior Lecturers, with most of them being Ph.D. holders.



Suggestions for Further Studies

The researcher conducted the study in four campuses of the University for Development Studies namely; Wa, Tamale, Nyankpala, and Navrongo. It is suggested that a similar study is carried out in other sister Universities in the country so that a comprehensive research document highlighting the overall impact of mentoring can

be developed for purposes of planning and staff developing. Further research into the correlation between mentoring and students output also demands attention. There is also a need for future research to be conducted to critically examine the University mentoring policy. For instance, further research may seek to find out why the mentoring policy seems not to be in full operation since its inception in 2012.

Finally, although the findings of this study confirm the impact of mentoring on staff development, its impact on the final outcomes of such indicators such as lecturer delivery, student-lecturer relationship, and graduate employment are less definite and inconclusive. Thus, further research is needed to be able to ascertain if the mentoring policies impacts on any of such final outcomes and especially its influence on new recruits.



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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ACADEMIC STAFF OF THE UNIVERSITY

This is an MPhil thesis on academic staff mentoring in UDS. You are kindly informed that participation in this research is voluntary and there is no risk involved in taking part in this study. As a voluntary participant, you are not required to answer any question you do not wish to respond to. Please be assured that your responses are confidential and anonymous.

Please, for each question in the various sections, indicate the chosen option by ticking or circling the most appropriate answer and fill in (where applicable).

A. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Q1. Gender: Male Female

Q2. Age: 25-29years 30-34years 35-39years 40-44years 45-49years 50-54years 55-59years 60 and above

Q3. Religious Affiliation: Christian Muslim Traditional Others

Q4. How long have you been working in the University?
0-5years 6-10years 11-15years 16-20years 21-25years

Q5. Which of the following Campuses do you work at?
Nyankpala Navrongo Wa Tamale

Q6. What is the name of your Faculty/School?
SBL FAS FIDS FPLM SMHS SAHS FOA SoE
FACS FRNR FOE FMS

Q7. What was your highest academic qualification at first entry?
Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree (MPhil/MSc/MBA/MA) PhD
] Others

Q8. What was your rank at first entry?
Senior Research Assistant Principal Research Assistant Chief Research Assistant Assistant Lecturer Lecturer Senior Lecturer Associate Professor Full Professor

Q9. What is your current highest academic qualification?
Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree (MPhil/MSc/MBA/MA) PhD
] Others

Q10. What is your current rank?



Senior Research Assistant [] Principal Research Assistant [] Chief Research Assistant [] Assistant Lecturer [] Lecturer [] Senior Lecturer [] Associate Professor [] Full Professor []

B. STAFF UNDERSTANDING OF MENTORING

Q11. What is your understanding of the concept mentoring? Multiple choice is allowed.

	Tick
Inexperience person (mentee) discussing personal and professional goals with experienced person (mentor)	
A mentee talking to a more experienced lecturer (mentor) about a variety of issues	
A mentee seeking answers to specific questions (e.g. research, career, exams etc.)	
A mentee being coached on a particular task (e.g. lecturing, consultancy, publications, further studies etc.)	
Performance appraisal	
Counselling	
Others (specify):	

Q12. In your view, which of these mentoring approaches exist in UDS?

1. Formal mentoring approach [] 2. Informal mentoring approach [] 3. Both []

Q13. Which of the two approaches is most commonly practiced in UDS?

1. Formal mentoring approach [] 2. Informal mentoring []

Q14a. Which of the mentoring approaches do you highly recommend for the University?

1. Formal mentoring [] 2. Informal mentoring [] 3. Both []

Q14b. Please, give reason(s) for your answer

.....

C. POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR MENTORING IN UDS

C-1. Policy Awareness

Q15. Are you aware of any mentoring policy in UDS?



1. I heard about it []
2. I have read it []
3. I have heard about it but have not seen it []
4. I have heard about it but have never read it []
5. I have never heard about it []

Q16. How accessible is the policy to staff?

1. Highly accessible []
2. Less accessible []
3. Not accessible []
4. Highly inaccessible []

Q17. If you have never read it, what do you think is the reason?

1. Not interested []
2. No time to read it []
3. It is too voluminous []

C – 2. Policy Formulation

Q18. There was active stakeholder engagement at the policy formulation stage.

1. Strongly agree []
2. Agree []
3. Disagree []
4. Strongly Disagree []
5. Neutral []

Q19. Who were the major stakeholders? Multiple choice is allowed.

1. Deans []
2. Unit Heads/HoDs []
3. Management []
4. University Council members []
5. Lecturers []
6. Others (specify)

Q20. Were individual lecturers’ needs assessed during the policy formulation stage?

1. Yes []
2. No []
3. Don’t know []

C-3. Policy Implementation and Evaluation

Q21. There are guidelines for the implementation of the policy. To what extent do you agree with this statement?

1. Strongly Agree []
2. Agree []
3. Neutral []
4. Disagree []
5. Strongly Disagree []

Q22. Is the policy implemented in accordance with the plan/guidelines?

1. To a large extent []
2. To an extent []
3. To a less extent []

Q23. How effective is the policy in terms of achieving its objectives?

1. Very effective []
2. Effective []
3. Not effective []
4. Very ineffective []

D. FORMAL APPROACHES TO MENTORING IN THE UNIVERSITY

Formal mentoring relationships are organized in the workplace where management identifies employees’ needs and officially assign them to mentors ostensibly to develop their career paths for personal growth and that of the organization.



D-1. Staff Knowledge and Awareness

Q24. Are you aware of any formal mentoring programme in UDS?

1. I am aware of it [] 2. I am not aware of it [] 3. I don't know []

Q25a. If not aware in Q24, is there a need to introduce formal mentoring programme in the University?

- Yes [] No []

Q25b. If you are aware as in Q24, have you ever been part of the UDS formal mentoring process?

1. Yes [] 2. No []

Q26. How do you rate the formal mentoring programme in terms of patronage?

- Very effective [] Effective [] Ineffective [] Very ineffective []

D-2. Selecting and Matching of Mentees and Mentors

Q27. How are mentees selected for formal mentoring in UDS?

1. Based on age [] 2. Based on length of service [] 3. Based on the availability of mentors [] 4. Based on their needs [] 4. Others [].....

Q29. Which of the following factor(s) often influence formal mentoring relationship in the University? Multiple choice is allowed.

1. Closeness of the person [] 2. Hierarchical line of responsibility [] 3. Ethnicity [] 4. Admiration [] 4. Competence [] 5. Shared values [] 6. Gender considerations [] 7. Religion [] 8. Others (specify)

Q30. What factor(s) should be considered when matching mentees and mentors in the university?

1. Similarities in area of specialization [] 2. Gender [] 3. Age differences [] 4. Faculty [] 5. Being in the same Department [] 6. Others (specify).....

Q31. Is it appropriate for potential mentees to be involved in the process of assigning them to mentors? 1.I think so [] 2. I don't think so [] 3. Not too sure []

E. INFORMAL MENTORING APPROACHES TO MENTORING IN THE UNIVERSITY

Informal mentoring relationship normally arises naturally or spontaneously and it is largely psychosocial in nature. The youngster associates him/herself with experienced person for personal professional development.

E-1. Staff Knowledge and Experience



Q31a. Does informal mentoring exist in UDS?

- 1. I have knowledge of its existence []
- 2. I have no knowledge of its existence []
- 3. I don't know []

Q31b. If you have knowledge of it, have you ever been part of the university informal mentoring process?

- 1. Yes []
- 2. No []

Q32. Is there time bound for informal mentoring relationships? Yes [] No []

E-2. Selecting mentors and mentees under informal mentoring

Q33. Which of the following factor(s) often influence informal mentoring relationship in the University? Multiple choice is allowed.

- 1. Closeness of the person []
- 2. Hierarchical line of responsibility []
- 3. Ethnicity []
- 4. Admiration []
- 4. Competence []
- 5. Shared values []
- 6. Gender considerations []
- 7. Religion []
- 8. Others (specify)

Q34. Overall, how would you evaluate or rate the university formal and informal mentorship in terms of patronage?

- 1. Very effective []
- 2. Effective []
- 3. Not effective []
- 4. Very ineffective []

F - UTILIZATION OF THE MENTORING APPROACHES

Q35. To what extent do you think formal mentoring is utilized in the University in terms of patronage? 1. Very high [] 2. High [] 3. Low [] 4. Very low []

Q36. To what extent do you think informal mentoring is utilized in the University in terms of patronage? 1. Very high [] 2. High [] 3. Low [] 4. Very low []

G. CONTRIBUTION OF MENTORING TO STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Q37. Staff development hinges on rapid promotions, further studies, high research output, teaching skills, community service and networking.

- 1. Strongly agree []
- Agree []
- Disagree []
- Strongly disagree []

Q38. Which of the following staff development models in the University have you been part of? Multiple choice is allowed.

- 1. Conferences []
- 2. Workshops/Seminars []
- 3. Further Studies []
- 4. Mentoring/Coaching []
- Collaborations []
- others (specify).....

Q39. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that; mentoring in UDS has significantly contributed to your development over the years on a scale of 1-3. 1 = strongly agree, 2 = Agree and 3 = Disagree.





Staff development indicators	1	2	3
High research output			
Improved teaching skills			
Rapid promotion			
Further studies			
Community service and networking			

Q40. What has been the contribution of the University mentoring policy to staff development in the following areas?

Areas/Indicators	Highly Significant	Significant	Less Significant	Insignificant	Highly insignificant
Rapid Promotion					
Research output					
Further studies					
Networking					
Teaching skills					

Q41. Overall, how would you evaluate or rate the university formal mentorship in terms of staff development?

2. Very effective [] 2. Effective [] 3. Not effective [] 4. Very ineffective []

Q42. Overall, how would you evaluate or rate the university informal mentorship in terms of staff development?

3. Very effective [] 2. Effective [] 3. Not effective [] 4. Very ineffective []

F. CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH MENTORING IN THE UNIVERSITY

Q43. Be it formal or informal mentoring, challenges are bound to arise. In your view, which of the following are serious challenges confronting mentoring in the University?

Challenges	Tick
Paucity of mentors (inadequate mentors)	
Lack of commitment by top Management	

Lack of incentives for mentors	
Busy schedule of experienced faculty members	
Unwillingness of the youngsters to avail themselves for mentoring	
Vague mentoring objectives	
Improper needs assessment of mentees	
Unwarranted romantic relationships and sexual harassments	
Lack of mutual respect	
Improper matching of mentees and mentors	

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!



APPENDIX II

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE

This is an MPhil thesis on academic staff mentoring in UDS. You are kindly informed that participation in this research is voluntary and there is no risk involved in taking part in this study. As a voluntary participant, you are not required to answer any question you do not wish to respond to. Please be assured that any information you make available would be used solely for academic purposes.

A. Contribution of Mentoring to Staff Development

1. How are the capabilities of the academic staff developed in the University?
2. Is mentoring one of the tools used by the University Management to develop staff capabilities, especially the young and the newly recruited staff?
3. How important is mentoring regarded in the University in term of staff development?

B. Mentoring Policy in UDS

4. Is there a policy framework or guideline for staff mentoring in the University?
5. If yes as in Q4, how was it formulated and how operational is the policy?
6. Are they implementation challenges, if yes, what are they?

C. Forms of Mentoring in UDS

7. What form(s) does mentorship take in UDS – Formal or Informal?
8. Describe how it works as in Q8.
9. How have these approaches contributed to academic staff development over the years – teaching, research, networking, career guidance?
10. If there is no formal mentoring programme in place now, are they plans to introduce it?
11. If Yes or No as in Q11, kindly give reason(s).



D. Effectiveness of Mentoring Approaches in UDS

12. In your opinion, which of the mentoring approaches is more effective and should be encouraged by the University Management?
13. In your view, is academic staff mentoring been effective in the University over the years?
14. If ineffective as in Q14, what are the strategies the University Management intends deploying to arrest the situation?

E. Challenges of Mentoring in UDS

15. What are the challenges facing academic staff mentoring be it formal or informal in the University?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

