UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MENTORSHIP PROGRAMME OF THE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN GHANA: CENTRAL-WESTERN ZONE IN PERSPECTIVE

ERIC SEKYI

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BY

ERIC SEKYI

Thesis submitted to the Department of Sociology and Anthropology of the Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Sociology

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Signature …… Date……

Name: ……

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature…… Date…….....

Name: ……

Co-Supervisor's Signature…… Date…….....

Name: ……

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the teacher-trainee mentorship programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process, sources of conflict between mentors and mentees and the effects of financial cost on mentoring. A descriptive survey and phenomenology designs were adopted to answer the objectives for the study. Structured questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect data for the study. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for data analysis. The total sample size for the study was 1451 respondents. The outcome of the study was that, stakeholders had positive perception of mentoring and perceived it to be beneficial. Mentees and the college representatives generally felt that the duration of the mentoring process was too long. The mode of selection of mentors was less formal, and the mentors had less training in mentoring though they were predominantly trained teachers. The views of stakeholders on the competencies of the mentors were mixed, but in most cases, they still felt that the mentors were able to deliver relatively well on their job. Financial cost was found to be a binding constraint on all the stakeholders but the mentees were the most affected. Conflict was not a widespread phenomenon in the mentoring process though packets of it were identified. It was recommended that the colleges had to expand and formalise mentors training, remunerate the mentors and move for the introduction of mentoring as a full course at the college for the students. Schools of attachment need to provide decent accommodation for student-teachers on out segment programme.

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Vida Abena Arthur; my mother, Madam Mary Sekyi and Madam Esther Bruce, my uncle's wife.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CPD	Continuous Professional Development
GES	Ghana Education Services
GTEC	Ghana Tertiary Education Commission
IPD	Institute of Professional Development
IRB	Institutional Review Board
L M	Lead Mentor
LT	Link Tutor
MHB	Methodist Hymnal Book
MoE	Ministry of Education
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PURC	Public Utility Regulatory Commission
SIP	Student Internship Programme
ST	Student Teacher
T E D	Teacher Education Division
TPC	Teaching Practice Coordinator
UTDBE	Untrained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education
VP	Vice Principal
PRINCOF	Conference of Principals of Colleges of Education
IRB	Institutional Review Board

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Practical skill acquisition is an essential element of the teacher training process in both advanced and emerging economies. To ensure effective acquisition of such practical teaching skills, mentorship session, formerly known as teaching practice, has become annual ritual for final year students of Colleges of Education in Ghana. During the mentoring period, the student-teacher, henceforth called mentee, receives practical classroom nurturing from an experienced teacher, also henceforth termed mentor, for two semesters. The extant literature, however, suggests that the process needs holistic assessments on a number of topical areas such as duration, cost elements of the programme, competencies of the mentor, conflict and conflict resolution during the mentoring process and challenges that confront the mentoring process. The current study sought to investigate the mentoring programme of Colleges of Education using the Western-Central zone as study area. The study expanded on the scope and unit of analysis of existing study in terms of geography, used a whole zone, and subjects, includes mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals of the Colleges. Methodologically, the study expanded the predominantly qualitative research to include a triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches.

Background to the Study

Education is the act of transferring knowledge in the form of experiences, ideas, skills, customs and values from one person to another or from generation to generations (Adu-Gyamfi, Donkor & Addo, 2016). It is a

key ingredient in the training and development of the human resource of every nation. In the view of Asare-Danso (2014), education remains an active agent of production because it accumulates physical capital, exploits natural resources, builds and develops social, political and economic institutions and deals with the planning and implementation of national development programmes. Arguably, education is the fulcrum which a country's political, social and economic emancipation revolves.

Türkkahraman (2012) opined that, education affects not only the individual being educated, but also the larger community, beginning from the individual's family to the larger community. In other words, raising adequate number of efficient persons for the larger society is the responsibility of education and educational institutions which have certain functions in the community. The society and education are inseparable because society cannot carry on without education and vice versa.

Formal education in Ghana can be traced from the colonial era, when the European Merchants and Christian Missionaries made the initial attempt to introduce formal education to the then Gold Coast. Adu-Gyamfi, Donkor and Addo (2016) indicated that, the Portuguese started one of such schools at Elmina castle around 1529 and the Dutch, who later replaced them at the castle, were believed to have opened their own school in 1644. By 1874, when the British gained full authority of the Gold Coast colony, there had been a great strive in the educational sector courtesy of the missionaries (Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2016). Since then, formal education has been one of the priority sectors for both pre- and post-colonial governments.

Formal education corresponds to a systematic, an organised education model, structured and administered according to a given set of laws and norms, presenting a rather rigid curriculum with regard to objectives, content and methodology (Dib, 1987). Formal educational institutions are administrative, physical and curriculum organised and require from students, some minimum classroom attendance. There are sets of programmes that both teachers and students are required to observe, involving intermediate and final assessments, to promote students to the next learning stage. Formal education differs from informal education because the former requires the individual to follow a specified time table and duration to acquire some specific knowledge. To ensure that knowledge acquisition is uniform across time and space, formal education has syllabi based on curricula that must be followed, and also require an experienced individual or a teacher to impart its content to the students.

Due to this, Teacher Education becomes an integral part of formal education, and every country is required to take the training of its teachers seriously. In this respect, the teacher and for that matter, teacher education is very critical in the education system. According to Samsuj (2017), teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they need to effectively perform their tasks in the classroom, the school and the wider community. It relates to the development of teacher proficiency and competency that would enable the teacher to meet the requirements of the profession and face its challenges head on. Samsuj (2017) further reiterated

that, although ideally, it should be conceived of and organised as a seamless continuum, teacher education is often divided into the following stages:

1. Initial teacher training/education: A pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher;
2. Induction: The process of providing training and support during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school; and
3. Continuing professional development (CPD): An in-service process for practicing teachers.

Though teacher education has the same purpose of training new teachers for the classroom, it has different forms and structures across the globe and even within Africa. Riesa, Cabrerab and Carriedo (2016) reiterated that, it is true that educational policies in Europe have been designed to give significant weight to the teaching practice within the training of future teachers, but the practice still plays a different role in respective countries. Spain continues to give priority to the academic training while Iceland attempts to find a balance by implementing a mixed model. Craig (2016) also stated that, teacher education in Finland is deeply rooted in the teacher as a *researcher philosophy* and prepares teachers for a research-based orientation towards their practical teaching work in the classroom with guidance to 'learn -reflection', as a way of thinking and a tool for continuous professional development as well as the integration of moral qualities of teaching into their teacher education programme.

In the African context, most countries adopt the school-based approach involving mentoring teachers in their schools that gives greater opportunities in providing one-on-one support to mentee teachers in the classrooms

(Adeyanju, 2012). According to Katitia (2015), in Kenya, the training of teachers in the teacher training institutions for the primary level, takes a period of two years with three sessions of teaching practice. The first session is during the second term of the six terms in the programme, the second in the fourth term, and the third in the sixth term of three weeks or two depending on the institution. This implies that between any two academic semesters (terms), there is a practical teaching practice period. The duration for training of basic school teachers in Nigeria is 3-years, with emphasis on both content and pedagogical knowledge. Teaching practice is organised for students during the third year, and this implies that teacher-trainees are exposed to two years of instruction in pedagogy as well as the content of their specialised areas (Adeosun 2009).

Oluniyi, Akinyeye and Amudat (2013) confirmed that, training of teachers in Nigeria takes place in specialised training schools, where the focus is on teacher training programmes alone and some universities with faculty of education. The modes of training are in four major components with the last component being a practical session designed in two modes. The first mode is micro teaching which is experimental in nature aimed at inculcating required confidence in a classroom setting into the teacher-trainee. The duration of the lesson and number of students per class in the micro teaching is scaled down to a considerable size that a non-experienced teacher can easily manage. The second phase is the actual teaching practice which has duration of two semesters. Under the macro teaching, student-teachers are posted to schools to teach under the supervision of experienced teachers and their college or university lecturers (Oluniyi, Akinyeye & Amudat, 2013). The mentorship

component of the teacher training could be spotted in the macro teaching period in the relationship between the student-teacher and the experienced teacher at the school of attachment. Literature reveals that there is a mentorship component in the training of teachers in some of the African countries.

Teacher training models in Ghana have not deviated too far from what is practised in other countries. Teacher education in Ghana began in the colonial era, when teacher training institutions were established to train teachers for the basic schools in the country. The European missionaries played and continue to play a pivotal role in the development of education in Ghana, and teacher education is no exception. The missionaries, particularly the Basel Mission played a pioneering role in the introduction of teacher education in the then Gold Coast and the present-day Ghana. In 1848 and 1899, the Basel Mission opened teacher training colleges at Akropong Akuapem and Abetifi-Kwahu respectively. By 1909, the Roman Catholic and the Colonial government had combined efforts to expand access to teacher education, by opening teacher-training college at Bla, in the Trans-Volta Region and the first government teacher-training college in Accra (Asare-Danso, 2014).

In Ghana, in an attempt to ensure that basic school teachers are well armed with the academic and professional know-how to perform proficiently and competently, the pre-service teacher education system in Ghana has undergone a number of changes in the last six decades (Mereku, 2014). These changes, according to Mereku, influenced not only the structure of the

programmes, but also their contents, duration and organisation as observed in the following programmes:

2-Year Post Primary Certificate 'B' Programme

4-Year Post Primary Certificate 'A' (conventional) Programme

4-Year Post Primary Certificate 'A' (modular) Programme

2-Year Post-Secondary Programme

2-Year Specialist Training (Geography and Visual Art Education) Programme

3-Year Quasi Specialist Post-Secondary Programme

3-Year Post-Secondary Programme

Untrained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) Programme

The structure of the Diploma in Basic Education Programme of the Colleges of Education is founded on a model known as the 'IN-IN-OUT', where teacher-trainees spend the first two years of their training on academic and pedagogical theory on campus. The final year is spent on practical teaching attachments to schools, to provide trainees with hands-on experiences in professional teaching. The mentorship model is meant to encourage cooperation between the colleges and the basic schools, to ensure that stakeholders of schools (officials from the district education directorate, opinion leaders, teachers and parents) become partners in the education and training of basic school teachers in Ghana (Agbeko, 2007). The IN-IN-OUT policy in the colleges of education in Ghana sought to identify an effective and more efficient ways of preparing teachers for the basic schools in the country. Basically, the out- programme was designed to achieve the following:

1. to expose student-teachers to the reality of classroom and school situation as well as minimise superficial aspect of formal teaching practices, within a relatively short time period of 12 weeks spread within a year (mostly, 3 times of 4 weeks in a year)
2. for classroom teachers to assist student teachers through a "mentoring" approach, instead of leaving them to their fate when posted to schools;
3. to stress the foundation period as an important concept along with improved principles in methodology and prolonged cycle/period of practice (school attachment) and a reflection that results in a dynamic and developmental professional competency concept; and
4. to ensure that the trainee's experiences at the colleges and schools of attachment or posting are mutually supportive and complementary (GES - T.E.D, 2001).

The 'IN-IN-OUT' model adopts a teaching practice period for trainees to ensure some form of attachment in the classroom under the care of a trained and more experienced teacher. In this relationship, the experience teacher acts as a mentor to the student-teacher while the student-teacher takes the place of a mentee. The duration of the teaching practice, now referred to as the out-programme has varied from a month to its current duration of one year or two semesters for the training colleges and three terms at the basic schools. With the current one-year teaching practice period for teacher trainees, it implies that the student-teachers spend exactly one-third of their training period with their mentors who may have more contact with them than the respective course tutors on campuses of the colleges of education. This formed the basis for the increasing interest in the dynamics of the mentorship processes in the

colleges of education in the country which as well informed the desire to conduct this study.

Statement of the Problem

The transition from colleges to university colleges requires that a holistic stock is taken of what was in existence under the diploma regime to serve as policy grounds for what should be done with the new system. Current literature on student-teacher practical sessions suggests that, there are a number of issues yet to be addressed. The new reforms that institute the four-year direct degree to replace the three-year diploma system also propose significant changes to the student-teacher mentoring process. According to Buabeng, Ntow and Otami (2020), "… in what is referred to as supported teaching in school [practical session is expected to occur] throughout the eight semesters of study. This implies that prospective teachers get to familiarise themselves with the professional aspect of teaching while taking various courses at college" (p. 92).

The views of the actual implementers of the mentoring process on the modification to the mentoring process requires empirical assessment before the diploma system ends for the four-year system to become fully operational. The current study was timely since the final year batch used were the penultimate batch, but became the last batch to complete their mentoring session under the diploma regime due to the COVID-19 restrictions that ended the last one abruptly. The study, therefore, remains the last holistic examination of the three-year system and its strength and weakness to service as a baseline information for future assessments of the new four-year system.

Empirical evidence on Ghana also suggests that the assessment of the mentoring programme mostly ignored the issues of cost, conflict and mentor competencies which happens to be at the center stage of formal professional mentoring (Esia-Donkoh, 2010; Eshun 2013; Tetteh, 2016). Again, the unit of analysis has mostly been on the mentees and the mentors without regard to other equally important stakeholders, such as the lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and the vice principals. Arguably, an effective understanding of the issues of student-teacher mentoring and its challenges demands comprehensive report from all stakeholders, something that is still vague in the mentorship literature in Ghana.

On the effectiveness of the one-year block mentoring, the extant literature cast doubts on the length and time effectiveness of the programme. Wolf (2018) made an empirical observation about the teacher mentoring process of Ghana by stressing that, though the mentoring session proved to be beneficial to the student-teacher, no evidence of its effectiveness could be observed in the newly recruited teachers just a year after mentoring. Wolf (2018) identified possible deficiencies in the mentoring progamme as a major contributing factor, and called for holistic assessment of the process. It is a fact that the effectiveness of any programme, of which mentoring is not an exception, is influenced by the perception of its participants and their commitment to the programme (Buabeng et al., 2020). This study heeded to the incessant calls for a holistic examination of the mentoring porgramme by several authors (Buabeng et al., 2020, Wolf, 2018; Doda, 2014), and hence extended the analysis to cover issues bothering on competencies, cost elements, stakeholders' perception of the current system of mentoring, the

sources of conflict areas in student-teacher mentoring in the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone.

Another area that demanded attention was the decision to treat the mentoring programme as a uniform process for students of all genders and locations during the out-programme in the existing literature in Ghana. Gender has been hypothesised to moderate relationships among agents, especially in the area of conflict, how to resolve conflict and cost of living. According to Doda (2014:2), "Even, if men and women have a few differences on their outfits, they still have unique gender differences in addressing the wallet issue because of social circumstances and differences." Also, location of school of attachment, as rural or urban, can have implication for cost and satisfaction level of stakeholders in the mentoring process. The study, therefore, expanded its scope to covered the role of gender and location of school of attachment on the successful implementation of the mentoring programme in the study area.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose this study was to investigate the teacher-trainee mentorship programme from the angle of mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception, cost elements of the mentoring process and sources of conflict between mentees and mentors taking into account the views of mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals of the colleges in the study area.

Research Objectives

This study sought to investigate the mentorship programme in the colleges of education in Ghana with particular emphasis on colleges in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. The objectives of the study were to:

1. analyse stakeholders'perception of the mentoring programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana.
2. examine the perceived competencies of mentors of teacher-trainees in basic schools in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana.
3. examine the cost elements of the mentorship programme to the mentees and the mentors in the mentoring process.
4. analyse the sources of conflicts in the mentorship programme between mentors and mentees at the basic school in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the conduct of the study:

1. How do stakeholders in the mentoring process perceive the mentorship programme?
2. What are the perceived competencies of mentors of teacher-trainees in basic schools in the Central-Western Zone?
3. What are the cost elements of the mentorship programme to the mentees and mentors in the mentoring process?
4. What are the sources of conflicts between mentors and mentees in the mentoring process?

Hypotheses of the Study

The study was based on the following hypotheses

1. Ho: There are no statistically significant differences among the views of mentors, mentees, lead mentors and link tutors about the mentoring process.

   Ha: There are statistically significant differences among the views of mentors, mentees, lead mentors and link tutors about the mentoring process.
2. Ho: There are no statistically significant differences among the views of mentors, mentees, lead mentors and link tutors on the perceived competencies of mentors.

   Ha: There are statistically significant differences among the views of mentors, mentees, lead mentor and link tutors on the perceived competencies of mentors.
3. Ho: Location of the school of attachment does not influence the cost elements of the mentoring process to the student-teacher.

   Ha: Location of the school of attachment does influence the cost elements of the mentoring process to the student-teacher.
4. Ho: Gender of the student-teacher does not influence the cost element of the mentoring process to the student-teacher.

   Ha: Gender of the student-teacher does influence the cost element of the mentoring process to the students-teacher.

Significance of the Study

The contributions of this study are in diverse areas. Identifying the competencies of mentors will inform stakeholders (Ministry of Education,

Ghana Education Service and Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC) to take an informed decision regarding reforms, reviews and adopt appropriate strategies and programmes to improve the competencies levels of mentors and increase the effectiveness levels of all individuals directly involved in the programme.

Financial and material resources are very critical in the successful implementation of programmes such as mentoring. The investigation of the cost element of mentoring programme to the key actors particularly the mentors and mentees by this study is very critical. The outcome would inform stakeholders, particularly the government through the ministry of education and other bodies who matter in teacher education to put in place the appropriate measures to address them.

Examining the sources of conflicts in mentoring process and how the actors involved perceive the mentoring programme on the development of the professional carrier of the student-teachers would trigger research-based approaches to mentoring and defined practices that will lead to increased efficacy and effectiveness of the student-teachers.

The findings of the study would also add to the available literature on mentorship programme for student-teachers and influence future research in Ghana's training institutions for teachers. Furthermore, it would serve as a guide to stakeholders in the educational sectors and other relevant institutions in identifying ways to improve and strengthen mentorship programme for student-teachers in Ghana. This is because the study harmonised the views of the major actors of the programme including mentors, mentees, link tutors and

other stakeholders, such as teaching practice coordinators and the management of the basic schools and those of the colleges of education.

Delimitations of the Study

The scope of the study was narrowed to one zone of the colleges of education which was the Central-Western Zone. The choice of the Central-Western Zone was motivated by the presence of four mixed colleges that were well distributed in the two regions (2 each in Western and Central Regions). The colleges, aside being among the well renowned colleges in Ghana, were also well distributed across the two regions and located in well distributed districts. The zone was made up of seven colleges of education of which four were finally selected for data collection and analysis. The respondents comprised mentors, mentees, Heads of basic schools, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and the vice principals of the selected colleges. The major themes for the analysis were the mentors' competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring programme, cost elements of the programme to mentees and mentors and sources of conflicts associated with the mentorship process.

The scope was narrowed to one zone to allow for sizeable population and representative sample that would support the effective treatment of all thematic areas of the study. The limited geographical scope allowed for an expanded theoretical scope in terms of considering several key areas in the mentorship programme as listed above. Also, the use of probability sampling techniques for sample selection allowed for the outcome to be generalised to the entire population of colleges of education in Ghana.

Definition and Operational Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined either as generically used in the field of education or as specifically used by the Teacher Education Division (TED) of the Ghana Education Service**.** The information on how each of the terms is operationalised in this study is also offered.

Mentoring Programme: As defined by Blank and Kershaw (2002), a mentoring programmme is a process that pairs a veteran teacher with a new teacher to provide support through open communication, analysis and reflection designed to help the new teacher succeed. Used in this study, mentoring programme refers to the teaching practice period arrangement between colleges of education and basic schools of attachment, that allows the student-teacher the opportunity to gain practical teaching experience under the tutelage of a well experienced and competent individual in the teaching profession.

Mentees: A student-teacher posted to a school of attachment, to receive professional and academic guidance (GES TED, 2001). In this study, a mentee is referred to a final year student of college of education that has availed himself or herself for the mentoring programme, and serving in a school of attachment under a designated mentor. The term 'student-teacher' is therefore, used as synonymous to mentee throughout the work.

Mentor: A mentor is a more experienced individual willing to share his or her knowledge with someone who is less experienced in a relationship of mutual trust (Clutterbuck, 2019). In this study, a mentor refers to a classroom teacher that has accepted the responsibility to offer professional and academic guidance to mentees from a college of education.

Lead Mentors: The head teachers of the schools of attachment (basic schools) are usually referred to as 'Lead Mentors'. They play supervisory role of all the mentors in the respective schools of attachment, including: organising orientation for trainees, holding meetings with mentors and trainees to discuss issues concerning their professional and academic development and many others (GES TED, 2001). In this study, a lead mentor simply refers to a head teacher of a school of attachment.

Link Tutors: The link tutors are teacher educators in the colleges of education, who work closely with schools of attachment to offer professional and academic guidance, and also serve as a link between the schools of attachments and teacher-trainees on one side, and the college on the other side (G.E.S. - TED, 2001). In this study, a link tutor is a tutor from a college who performs supervisory role in the mentoring process in designated schools of attachment.

Mentoring Relationships: It refers to the collaborative process in which mentees and mentors take part in reciprocal and dynamic activities, such as planning, acting, reflecting, questioning and problem solving (McGee, 2016). The study adopted McGees' definition wholly and considered mentoring relationship as latent variables with several observable aspects, involving the entire interaction between mentors and mentees during the mentoring programme.

Competency: It is the capability to apply or use the set of related knowledge, skills, and abilities required to successfully perform *critical work functions* or tasks in a defined work setting (Department of Mines, Industry Regulation and Safety, 2020). Mentors' competence was operationalised in

this study as the level of academic and professional qualifications in education and mentoring. The definition of competence was expanded to include the rigorousness of the selection process of mentors and how formal the appointment process was. This was because the selection process has been empirically identified as the first indication of whether the individual recruited shall be competent enough for the position (Gusdorf, 2008). Other observed aspects of competencies in mentoring were the exhibition of professionalism, effective communication and induction skills.

Conflict: Conflict is defined as a clash between individuals arising out of differences in their thought process, attitudes, understanding, interests, requirements and even, sometimes perceptions (Management Study Guide, 2019). This study was more concerned about the source and frequency of conflicts. Source was operationalised as any thought, attitudes, activity, action and inaction that generate differences in view among a mentor, mentee or any other stakeholder in the mentoring process. The frequency or incidence of conflict was gauged by the number of respondents that felt a given item is likely to generate conflict during the mentoring process.

Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into eight chapters. The first chapter covered the background, problem statement, the purposed, specific objectives, research questions, hypothesis, significance, delimitation, definition and operationalisation of terms as well as the organisation of the study. Chapter Two looked at the review of related literature from articles, journals, books, newspapers, thesis, presentations and speeches that were relevant to the subject matter under consideration. Chapter Three focused on the

methodology. Specifically, it describes the research methodology employed for the study. It includes research philosophy and approach, the research design, the study area and population for the study. The sampling and sample procedure, instruments for data collection procedures for data collection are also considered. Again, the chapter captured methods for data processing and analysis.

The fourth chapter deals with the demographic data (location, gender and age) of respondents and the first objective of the study which dealt with stakeholders' perception of the mentoring programme. Chapter five considered the second objective of the study which examined the competencies levels of mentors of the student-teachers (mentees) of the colleges of education in Ghana at the various basic schools.

The chapter six primarily discussed the cost elements of the mentoring programme to the mentors and mentees in the mentoring process. The chapter seven examined the conflict situation in the mentoring process, particularly between the mentors and mentees. Chapter eight which is the last chapter of the study presented the summary of the study findings, conclusions, recommendations of the study, suggested areas for further studies and contributions to knowledge and literature.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to examine the student-teachers' mentoring programme (teaching practice) of the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature relating to student-teachers mentoring or teaching practice. The theoretical review includes the theoretical framework which explains the theoretical position of the study as well as providing definitions and explanations to key constructs of the study. The chapter concluded with a review of the background issues on teaching practice in Ghana and a conceptual framework which is adapted to explain the linkages among the key variables of the study, followed by a chapter summary.

Theoretical Framework

The study adopted the Social Learning Theory, Social Exchange Theory and the Sanford's Theory of Challenge and Support as the main basis underpinning the relationships among the variables of the study. The integration of the above three main theories was necessary due to the broader scope of the study that encompasses several aspects of the mentoring process for which a single theory may not be sufficient to explain all the dynamics. Other related theories that proceed from the three theories were also considered where necessary to further explain the linkages among specific variables. The social exchange theory focuses the nature of the symbiotic mentor and mentee relationship in the mentoring process with regards to the drivers that will motivate each partner to give off their best during the

mentoring process. Also, the social learning theory highlights the learning process that is expected to take place during the mentoring process and the directions of such learning process. The Sanford's theory of challenge and support explains the father type of leadership which a mentor must provide to the mentee through challenge and supports activities. The integration of the three theories and other related theories aid in explaining how various relationship in the mentoring process produce conflicts and other challenges as well as fostering the process of achieving the desire outcome at the end of the mentoring process. The theories were explained in turns and integrated where necessary.

Social Learning Theory

The Social Learning Theory is based on the idea that we learn from our interactions with others in a social context by observing the behaviour of others. After observing the behaviour of others, people assimilate and imitate the said behaviour, especially if their observational experiences are positive oriented or include rewards related observed behaviour. According to Bandura (1977), the proponent of the theory, imitation involves the actual reproduction of observed motor activities.

The Social Learning Theory has arguably become the most influential theory of learning and development. It is rooted in many of the basic concepts of traditional learning theory. This theory has often been called a bridge between the behaviourist learning and the cognitivist learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory and motivation (Muro & Jeffrey, 2008). However, Bandura trusts that direct reinforcement could not account for all types of learning. For that reason, in his theory, Bandura added a social

element with the argument that, people can learn new information and behaviours by watching other people. Shaffer (2006) stated that, people learn from one another through observation, imitation and modelling.

Observational Learning**:** Lou (2013) opined that, in his renowned Bobo doll experiment, Bandura demonstrated that children learn and imitate other peoples' behaviours through observation. Lou stressed that the children in Bandura's studies observed an adult acting violently toward a Bobo doll, and later, when the children were allowed to play in a room with the Bobo doll, they started to imitate the aggressive actions they had observed earlier.

Imitation Process: This deals with one's ability to replicate a behaviour or an action. The child who observes certain behaviour repetitively is expected at some point to be able to imitate and reproduce the said behaviour.

Modelling Process: It must be noted that not all observed behaviours are successfully learned. To ensure successful process, the model and the observer must fulfil four conditions as espoused by O'Rorke (2006). O'Rorke further explained the specific four conditions and how the modelling processes impact learning as follows:

Attention: Attention requires that, the individual or the learner must pay rapt attention to the model (the behaviour) in order to learn something new. This is very critical because it has momentous implications for the mentoring programme. Rapt attention is required of the mentee, especially to be able to understand whatever message being put across by the mentor.

Retention: This has to do with the **i**ndividuals' ability to store new information about the exhibited behaviour and review it later. That is, the observer needs

to be able to recall the observed behaviour. A message received and a behaviour observed must be properly preserved for reproduction in future.

Reproduction: Individuals have to re-enact the new observed behaviour or action in order to practise and master it themselves. Practice, they say, 'makes one perfect', so repeated performance of the behaviour will surely lead to sustained change. It is important to note that, the success or the effectiveness of the mentorship progrmme can be measured or largely depended on whether or not the individuals (mentees) are able to replicate the modelled behaviour and then continue to practise it over time.

Motivation: For reproduction of the behaviour to be efficacious, individuals need to be properly motivated to perform the observed behaviour themselves. Learners need to be guided and encouraged to be motivated to practise on their own for permanent change. The outcome models can be positive (doing the right thing and being rewarded) or negative (doing the wrong thing and suffering the consequences).

Mentoring and the Social Learning Theory

The principle of social learning is applicable to almost any social and behaviour change communication programme, that aims to influence social behaviours, particularly behaviours that are complex or involve interactions with other people for which mentoring is no exception. It may be useful when a particular behaviour is difficult to be described, but can be explained through demonstration or modelling. Again, the adoption or practice of a specific behaviour requires overcoming barriers or challenges. Social learning principles, thus can be used to demonstrate how a person can overcome those challenges and succeed. Finally, because people tend to adopt and practise

behaviours of other people, especially positive ones, social learning principles can be used to change individuals' perception of a social environment; make behaviours seem more common and provide social support to people who consider change in behaviour.

The Social Learning Theory, as propounded by Bandura (1977), stresses on role acquisition through what he termed as modelling. Bandura (1977) referred Modelling as observational learning. The mentee is thus expected to observe as the mentor play the role of a model in the mentoring environment. The willingness of both the mentor and the mentees to play their expected role is very paramount to the success of the mentoring process. In the view of Crow (2001), mentoring is more of a community responsibility where the mentor is expected to create the enabling environment for learning to occur. Thus, the social learning theory applies directly to mentoring as was adapted to explain how learning occurs in the mentoring process in the current study. Roberts (2000) concluded that mentoring is a process primarily concerned with transmitting knowledge after systematically reviewing a number of studies on mentoring.

According to Turner and Shepherd (1999), the effectiveness of modelling in the social exchange theory depends on features of modeller (here mentor), the attributes of observers (here mentee) and the perceived consequences of adopting similar behaviour (the mentoring process). They indicated that the relevance of social exchange theory in peer education is based on role-modelling, credibility, empowerment and reinforcement.

Credibility: The observed should be able to perceive the person acting as role model to be credible enough to impact the expected knowledge during the

process. The social learning theory emphasises that to be a credible role model, one would need to have high status within the peer group (Bandura, 1977). In the student mentoring process, credibility requires that the mentor is as competent as the definition of mentorship espouse on him or her. That way his/her credulity could be guaranteed in the mentoring process.

Empowerment and self-efficacy: this concept as applied by Bandura, (1977), relates to a person's confidence in performing a particular behaviour and their expectations of success. It is more likely for a person to put into practice socially learned behaviour if they think it will be effective. Therefore, it is no use providing peers merely with the appropriate information if in social and interactive situations they cannot, for example, resist pressures to take drugs or have unsafe sex.

Role-Modelling: In the social exchanging theory, the concept of role-modelling is central to social learning among the other aspects. Turner and Shepherd (1999) argued that, "the role of the peer educator is to serve as a positive role model and to provide social information rather than merely providing facts. Peer leaders should enhance programme applicability by modelling appropriate behaviours.

Reinforcement: it is a concept in Social Learning Theory which seems to have been borrowed from Behaviourism. Although very little of the work of Skinner and his associates can be related directly to peer education practice, there is a sense in which the concept of reinforcement of behaviour is applicable. The way in which reinforcement can operate in peer education is in the numerous opportunities peer educators may have to exercise influence,

pressure or whatever. A message reinforced through ongoing contact is likely to be far more effective than a one-off talk or lesson by a parent or teacher

The Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory posits that, social behaviour is the result of an exchange process. The purpose of this exchange is to maximise benefits and minimise costs. According to this theory developed by Homans (1961), people weigh the potential benefits and risks of social relationships. When the risks outweigh the rewards, people terminate or abandon that relationship. The theory suggests that individuals, essentially take the benefits and avoid the costs to determine how much a relationship is worth. Positive relationships occur when the benefits outweigh the costs while negative relationships occur when the costs are greater than the benefits. The Social Exchange Theory was based on a number of key assumptions as explained below.

The theory first assumes people are mostly rational and do cost-benefit analysis in every social exchange. Hence, people are rational actors as well as reactors to actions in social exchanges; making them entities for and of decision-making. Secondly, the theory also assumes that individuals as rational entities strive to maximise their benefits or gains from social exchange mainly to satisfy their basic needs. Thirdly, through social interactions the exchange processes lead to rewards or payoffs to the participating individuals which is the basis on which they participate in the social exchange process. These forms of social interaction do not only serve the individuals' needs, but also constrain individuals on how they may ultimately seek to meet those needs. Individuals may seek relationships and interactions that promote their needs, but are also the recipients of behaviours from others that are motivated

by their desires to meet their own needs. The Social Exchange Theory further assumes that, individuals are goal-oriented in a freely competitive social system and because of that, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups.

As in any competitive situation, power in social exchanges depends on those individuals who possess greater resources that provide an advantage in the social exchange. As a result, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups. The use of the Social Exchange Theory is justified because the theory in the context of mentoring avows how resourceful and beneficial the mentor is to the student teacher (mentee). In the opinion of Ensher and Murphy (2011), mentors make available certain resources to mentees that may include their connections, skills, feedback, or any number of instrumental or psychosocial dimensions, to help their path of professional development. The mentees, on the other hand, respond by providing the mentors with useful outcomes, such as acknowledgement, differentiating viewpoints or anything else that may be considered as valuable to the relationship (Grima, Paillé, Mejia & Prud'Homme, 2014).

Sanford's Theory of Challenge and Support

The Sanford's Theory of Challenge and Support was adapted from Sanford (1967). Martinez (2015) applied the theory to mentoring relationships and extensively discussed the domain and attributes. The main purpose was to explain the father type of leadership a mentor must provide to the mentee through challenge and supports activities. The theory is considered as one of the well-grounded student-support theories for college students (Murtuza, 2018). The Student Development Theory has been defined as a collection of

theories related to college students that explains how they grow and develop holistically, with increased complexity while enrolled in a post-secondary educational environment (Patton, Renn, Guido & Quaye, 2016). Reynolds (2012) said, "Providing a proper balance of challenge and support ensures that students are challenged to do their best, yet feel supported enough to make mistakes" (p.15). Martinez (2015) suggested that, Nevitt Sanford's Theory of Challenge and Support is a phenomenon that can be used to help understand the role of mentoring in colleges.

Challenge and Support is one of the first developmental theories that paid attention to the idea of student development by introducing the concepts of readiness, challenges and support (Evans, Prilleltensky, McKenzie, Prilleltensky, Nogueras, Huggins & Mescia, 2011). Readiness begins with the concept that students possess certain behaviours when they are ready to do so. To foster personal development, challenge is needed from others, but must have the same amount of support to be effective (Sanford, 1967). If both challenge and support are equal, then the growth of the students will occur. This concept shows that, if a student experiences a challenge, there will be resources (mentors and student affairs administrators) that will support the students as they learn from the specific experience. Mentors can be readily available when these instances occur.

The tenets of the Sanford's Theory of Challenge and Support explain what could happen to a mentee, and for that matter, the mentoring relationship if the mentor does not balance the challenge and the supports. Evans et al. (2011) asserted that, if the challenge is too great and the student is not ready for the challenge, a student may go into a state of retreat, where he or she

cease to develop and pull away from the challenge. The mentees are still students and must be treated as one by ensuring that the challenges faced during their teaching practices are served in a dose that allow for development and not retreat due to lack of support (Murtuza, 2018). This study defines support not only to imply content and pedagogical needs, but also to include other material and emotional supports needed by both the mentors and the mentees during the mentoring period. It also approaches the issue of challenge and support from the angle of competencies, commitments and reduced conflicts. That is, it takes a competent and committed mentors to be able to effectively balance challenge and support in the mentoring process. Also, support hinges on effective communication between the mentors and mentees that can be greatly compromised by conflicts situations.

The Concept of Mentoring

According to Oti (2009), mentoring is not a new phenomenon or practice; it can be traced back to Greek mythology with the story of a mentor in Homer's Odyssey. Therefore, the concept, 'mentor' has become identical to the trusted advisor, a critical friend, a teacher and wise man, while the individual at the other side of the relationship is what one refers to as a student, a learner, a protégé or a mentee. In the view of Olafsdottir, Kristjansdottir, Halfdansdottir and Gottfredsdottir (2019), "Mentoring is a form of one-to-one support whereby one person shares one's knowledge, skills and connections to assist a less experienced colleague with one's current and future challenges" (P.5). Specifically, mentoring is about empowering and motivating individuals to identify their own issues and goals, and assist them to adopt appropriate measures to resolve or accomplish them by bearing

acknowledgment and respect for different ways of working (Olafsdottir et al. 2019). According to Rochford and Morgan (2017), mentoring typically involves two parties (a mentor and a mentee or protégé), a relationship (formal or informal), and the transfer of skills, knowledge and attitude with the objective of development and growth of the mentee.

Mentoring is a supportive learning relationship between a caring individual who shares knowledge, experience and wisdom with another individual who is ready and willing to benefit from this exchange, to enrich their professional journey" (Griffith, 2018, p. 6). Chartered Institute of Professional Development (CIPD) provided a general definition of mentoring as "... a form of apprenticeship whereby an inexperienced learner learns the tricks of the trade from an experienced colleague backed up as in modern apprenticeships" (Nesta, 2009, p. 12). The various definitions identify mentoring as a generic concept that can be applied to different situations and professions, but always remains a lasting relationship between an experienced mentor and a novice mentee.

Murray (2002) considered the mentoring relationship as contractual arrangement between the mentor and the mentee with the institution (college of education in this context) as the third party in the engagement. According to Murray (2002), a process can be considered to be mentoring if it adheres to all or most of the following:

1. the mentee and the mentor have confidential discussions;
2. the focus is on the mentee´s and mentor's reciprocal and personal development;
3. they meet regularly; and

4. they deal with practical issues more than theoretical issues in accordance with the mentee's interests (p.4).

Mentoring involves a great deal of time from all stakeholders and hence, all support provided must be useful to be able to serve its purpose. Nesta (2009) explained the distinction between mentoring and coaching as "Mentoring as opposed to coaching, involves a greater focus on specific industry experience and relevance. Often, mentoring relationships are less formal and goal-oriented than coaching" (p. 14). Other distinguishing factors between mentoring and coaching are follows:

1. mentoring can be more informal and meetings can take place as and when the mentee needs some guidance and/or support while coaching is generally more structured in nature and meetings scheduled on a regular basis;
2. mentoring is more long-term and takes a broader view of the person while coaching is short-term (sometimes time bound) and focused on specific development areas/issues; and
3. mentoring focuses on career and personal development while coaching focuses, generally on development/issues at work (Nesta, 2009).

Recent development in mentoring has led to a blending of mentoring and coaching, in terms of, roles as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The Changing Paradigm of Mentoring

Mentoring Element	Changing Paradigm
Mentee role	From: Passive receiver To: Active partner
Mentor role	From: Authority To: Facilitator
Learning process	From: Mentor directed and responsible for mentee's learning To: Self-directed and mentee responsible for own learning

Table 1 continued

Length of relationship	From: Calendar focus To: Goal determined
Setting	From: Face-to-face To: Multiple and varied venues and Opportunities
Focus	From: Product oriented: knowledge transfer and acquisition To: Process oriented: critical reflection and application

Source: Nesta (2009)

The changing paradigm in mentoring draws it closer and closer to coaching. For example, the authoritative role of a mentor requires an experience and older person, but the new role as a facilitator changes the leadership role from father type to democratic one. For a mentee become an active participant also confirms the need for consensus building in a democratic environment. Introducing time bound into the student-teacher mentoring programme by characteristics, gives it a coaching dimension. The current state of student-teacher mentoring can best be considered as a blend of mentoring and coaching geared towards a holistic development of the student-teachers. The interest of the current study had to do with the fact that the current mentoring structure that gives the mentee a voice and reduce the authority of the mentor introduces elements of friction (conflict) into the mentoring process which requires the mentor to be competent and hence needs constant training.

The mentoring relationship assigns roles and responsibilities to the mentors and the mentees as well as other stakeholders in the teaching practice programme. American Psychological Association (2006:9) identified the following as the roles and characteristics of a mentor:

1. acts as an experienced role model;
2. provides acceptance, encouragement and moral support;

3. provides wisdom, advice, counsel and coaching;
4. acts as a sponsor in professional organisations and supports networking efforts;
5. assists with the navigation of professional settings, institutions, structures and politics;
6. facilitates professional development;
7. challenges and encourages appropriately to facilitate growth;
8. provides nourishment, caring and protection;
9. integrates professional support with other areas, such as faith, family and community;
10. accepts assistance from a mentee in a mentor's professional responsibilities within appropriate limits; and
11. enjoys the opportunity to pass on their wisdom and knowledge and collaboration with early career professionals.

The roles assigned to mentors require that, the mentor position is occupied by a more senior, knowledgeable, experienced and veteran individuals who are committed to guide and support less experienced mentees in their carrier or professional development (Hobson & Sharp, 2005). Olafsdottir et al (2019) remarked that, the mentoring relationship is voluntary, confidential and professional and requires experience and competence to participate effectively. Phillips-Jones (2003) argued that effective mentoring requires more than common sense from both the mentors and the mentees.

Barrett (2021) also outlined some of the roles of the mentees in the mentoring relationship to include the following:

1. identify initial learning goals and measures of success for the mentoring relationship;
2. be open to and seek feedback;
3. take an active role in their own learning and help drive the process;
4. schedule and attend mentor conversations; and
5. follow through on commitments and take informed risks as they try new options and behaviours in support of career and development goals.

The role of the mentees clearly puts the mentee at the realm of affairs in the mentoring process. That is, the mentor has a defined task before the mentee arrives, and hence it is the duty of the mentee to be present in the classroom. The mentees must, therefore, be in-charge of their own development; set their own agenda for meetings; show interest in learning new things; demonstrate the ability and willingness to work as a team player; carry out tasks by agreed times; be creative at work and maintain confidentiality and continuously seek guidance and advice for professional development from the mentor (Barrett. 2021).

Forms of Mentoring

The American Psychological Association (2006) stressed that the mentoring relationship is intrinsically supple, and can enormously differ in its form and purpose; that the mentoring relationship exists between one individual in need of developmental guidance and another individual who is both proficient and enthusiastic to provide that guidance. Further, the mentoring relationship represents an important developmental relationship for the mentee as it supports and facilitates his or her professional development.

Many authorities and writers agree in principle that, mentoring may take different forms (Mullen, 2016), and APA (2006) identified some of the forms, but differ in the number of forms. For instance, Mullen (2016), besides traditional mentoring, identified eight types of alternative mentoring; while APA (2006) outlined three forms of mentoring. For the purpose of this study, two forms (formal and informal mentoring) which were common among them have been considered.

According to Cunningham (1993), formal mentoring is consciously planned and structured programme with clearly stated goals with sponsorship by an organisation or mentors. Scandura and Williams (2002), primary aim of schools, colleges, universities, agencies and institutions that offer formal mentoring programmes, is to promote the success of the mentees (college students, teachers and youth). The relationship, thus involves the development of a novice teacher by more experienced teacher through coaching, modelling, apprenticeship and other alternative mentoring. Wanberg, Welsh and Hezlett (2003) identified six basic features of formal mentoring programmes that can directly influence the effectiveness of the programme: (a) programme objectives; (b) selection of participants; (c) matching of mentors and mentees; (d) training for mentors and mentees; (e) guidelines for frequency of meeting and (f) a goal-setting process.

Informal mentoring relationships develop spontaneously and are not managed or specifically recognised as a mentoring relationship within a larger organisation. A mentor reaches out to a mentee (or vice versa), and a relationship develops that benefits the mentee's professional development. It is

a voluntary mentoring relationship that occurs naturally without a structure system as to how mentors work with mentees.

The type of mentoring that occurs under the teaching practice model of colleges of education could be considered more formal mentoring process. This because the mentoring process has a defined duration, prescribed set of activities; involves formal assessment through supervision and defined actors, such as mentees, mentors, lead mentors and link tutors. Blake-Beard (2001) observed that, informal mentoring programmes tended to be initiated between individuals who were attracted to each other, compared to formal schemes through which mentoring pairs were assigned. This study, therefore judged the standard by the requirement of formal mentoring on commitment and competencies of the mentors and the existence of command for the mentor over the mentees.

The Mentoring Relationship

McGee (2016) defined mentoring relationships as a collaborative process in which mentees and mentors take part in reciprocal and dynamic activities, such as planning, acting, reflecting, questioning and problem-solving. The researcher adopted two closely related models to explain the stages of the mentoring relationship. Zachary's (2011) four phase model mimics the four-phase model of Kram (1985), and both were used in this study. Kram (1985) identified a cycle in the mentoring relationship where the mentors pass through four phases as presented in Figure 1.

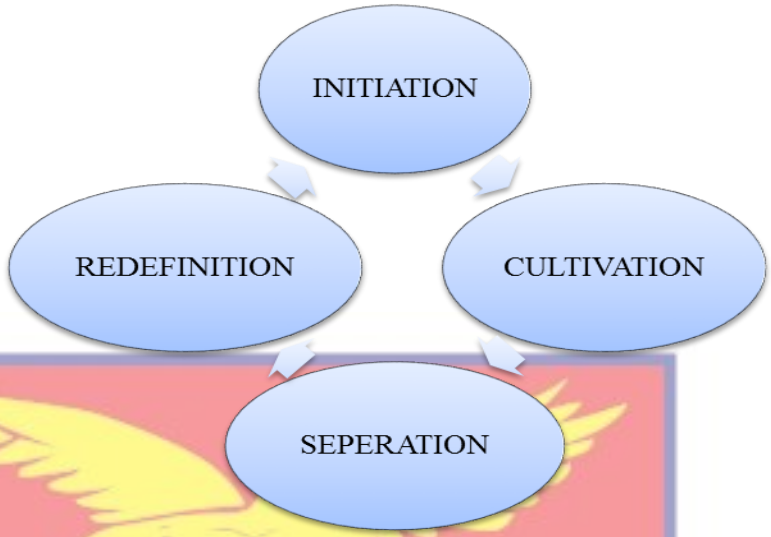


***Figure 1*: Kram's (1985) Model of Phases of the Mentoring Relationship**

Source: McGee, 2016

The Initiation phase is the phase when mentors and mentees form expectations, and get also to know one another. The cultivation phase is when the relationship matures and mentors typically provide the greatest degree of psychosocial and career support to the mentees. The separation phase is when mentees seek autonomy and more independence from mentors and the relationship is climaxed with the redefinition when mentors and mentees transition into a different form of relationship characterised by more peer-like interactions or terminate the relationship with the mentors by ending the relationship. Zachary (2011) provided an identical cycle with different naming, but closely related explanations as presented in Figure 2. Zachary (2011) liked the phases of mentoring relationship with the seasons of the growth of a plant from planting to harvest.

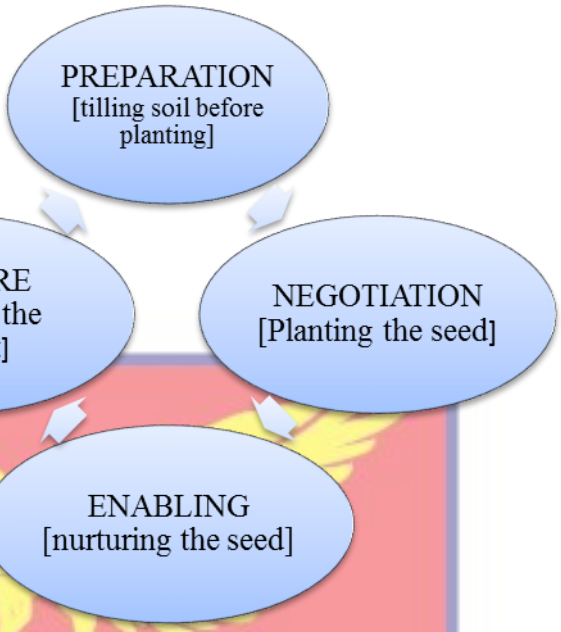


***Figure 2*: Zachary's (2011) Model on the Phases of the Mentoring Relationship**

Source: McGee, 2016

Preparation Stage

Planting requires that the farmer prepares the grounds for the sowing of the seedlings which corresponds to the pre-orientation stage of the mentoring. At this stage, the mentors and mentees make individual decision in areas, such as self-awareness and reflection on the learning journey through the mentoring process. Both mentors and mentees reflect on issues, such as roles and responsibility during the mentoring process, motivation and readiness to participate fully, evaluate the viability of the prospective relationship and initial discussion to determine how the mentoring relationship might be developed and made to work.

Negotiation Stage

This is the business phase of the mentoring relationship where the mentors and the mentees orient themselves of learning goals, content and

processes in the mentoring relationship. Ground rules are developed at this phase on confidentiality, boundaries and limits which clarify expectations, assumptions, goals and needs.

Enabling Stage

The enabling stage is the complex phase, where the learning relationship in the mentoring is implemented. In this phase, it is crucial to build a level of trust and effective communication that will lead to a qualitative mentoring relationship. This phase is also vulnerable to many potential obstacles that need to be addressed. That is, the competencies of the mentors are tested within this stage, while the willingness of the mentees to be mentored is also evident.

Closing Stage

In the closing phase, the closure protocols are established when the mentoring agreement is established. This final stage requires an evaluation of acknowledging and celebrating the achievement of learning outcomes, and the opportunity to evaluate personal learning, and apply it to other relationships and situations. The interesting aspect of the student-teacher context is the fact that, the mentors do not assess and grade the mentees, hence the closing phase seems more like a transition back to the books and may be less celebrated.

The mentors and mentees are expected to fully undergo each of the four phases and simultaneously, that is the strongest assumption of the model. That is, it can be expected that each of them will actually undergo each of the phase, but that may not always be concurrently. The situation that develops when the two are found at different phases, such as the mentor being at the negation state while the mentee is at the preparation stage, was not well-

articulated in the model. But this study expected that, such situation could contribute towards unhealthy relationship with conflicts as the end products. Kutilek and Earnest (2001) and Mincemoyer and Thomson (1998) stated that, a trusted and mutual relationships need to be built before any effective mentoring can take place. Byington (2010) identified the keys in establishing a successful mentoring relationship to include:

1. creating a relationship of trust, clearly defining roles and responsibilities;
2. establishing short and long-term goals;
3. using open and supportive communication; and
4. collaboratively solving problems.

This study examined the mentoring relationship by asking questions bordering on activities in each stage and on each attribute necessary to define the mentoring relationship.

Experience and Competencies of the Mentor in the Mentoring Process

Mentoring is a nurturing process which a more skilled person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional development (ATA, 2010). The definition stresses the experience or competencies of the mentor, while the distinguishing feature of the mentee is inexperience, at least, in the teaching profession, in the context of this study. The assumption that, the mentoring teacher has the competencies to mentor because he or she possesses professional qualification and experienced in terms of the number of years taught, is a strong restrictive assumption that requires critical evaluation in the mentoring relationship. The major issue of

interest has to do with the kind of relationship that the mentors can foster with the mentees to demonstrate evidence of competencies in mentoring. That is, does an experienced teacher automatically makes a competent mentor in the teaching environment or there is more to mentoring than professional qualification and years of experience? The ATA manual on mentoring posits that, such a positive correlation between years of teaching experience and mentoring experience cannot be easily expected in reality since the mentors move from expert teachers to novice mentors, and then to expert mentors when the right conditions exist as presented in Figure 3.

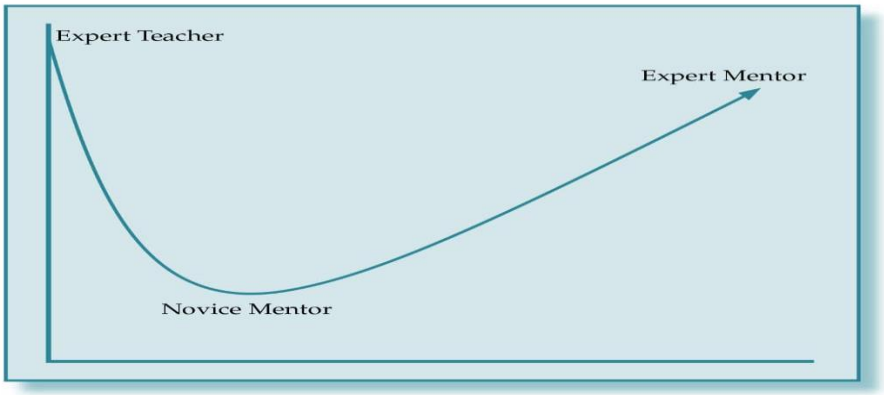
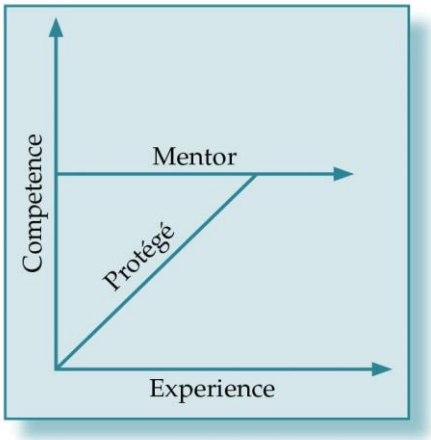


***Figure 3*: The Journey from Experieneced to Expert Mentor**

Source: ATA (2010, p. 36 -39)

According to ATA (2010), the transition from each level to another requires a formal training for the mentors. The need to ensure that the competencies of the mentoring teacher are enhanced stems from the fact that the capabilities of the mentoring teacher can set a ceiling to the professional growth of mentee as well as determining the level of conflicts in the mentoring relationship. Figures 4 and 5 present the relationship between mentoring competencies, teaching experience and the professional development of mentees.



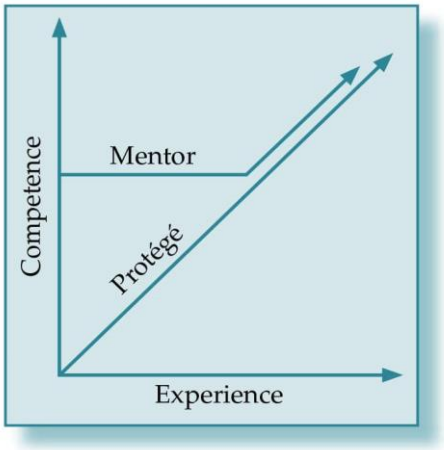


***Figure 4*: Case of Incompetency** ***Figure 5*: Case of Competency**

Source: ATA(2010)

Figure 4 explains how the mentee can steadily grow to the level of the mentor, but both may remain static over time if the mentor is not competent enough to re-direct the relationship or no system exists to foster the growth of the relationship as in the case of informal mentoring. Figure 5 suggests that, after the convergence, the competencies of the mentor or the existence of a system can ensure the progress of both the mentor and the mentee. That is, the mentors grow further in both competencies and experiences, even duirng the mentoring process that allows for the mentees to access more supports from the mentors.

Competency, as used in this study, refers to the ability of the mentoring teacher to exhibit the right quality of a good mentor to ensure the successful implementation of the mentoring process. It has been established, both empirically and theoretically that, the competencies of the mentoring teacher have great consequences for the successful transformation of the mentee (Thornton, 2014). Thornton concluded in her study that, the potential for the student-teacher (mentee) to be transformed into an 'educational leader' depends largely on the levels of training and support that are given to mentors,

the underlying school culture, and the views of mentoring held by school leaders. Thornton placed training first because of the importance that is attached to the competencies of the mentoring teacher.

Wilson (2014) drew attention to an important implication of not ensuring the competencies of the mentoring teacher beyond the possible adverse effects on the professional development of the mentee. Wilson (2014) recognised that the primary goal of a teacher is ensuring the pupils' achievement; as a result, any activities they undertake related to teacher education, such as taking the role of mentor, can be a diversion to this primary goal of pupils' achievement away from the goal of enabling the student-teacher to develop. Jaspers, Meijer, Prins and Wubbels (2014) examined the possibilities and challenges that mentor teachers perceive when they (sequentially and simultaneously) combine the teaching and mentoring roles. Mentoring teachers were found to perceive two challenges while simultaneously performing both roles in the same classroom: to transfer (or not) responsibility for the class and pupils to the student-teacher and to intervene (or not) in classroom procedures. Mentor teachers may feel that, being the teacher of the pupils was their primary task, and being a mentor of the student-teacher was generally perceived as an aside and additional task.

The major means to avoid making the pupils' development a substitute to mentees development, is to ensure that, the mentoring teacher is properly trained and well-experienced to create a complementarity between the two actors. That is, a well-trained mentor can make the mentees' development a direct function of the pupils' academic achievement through collaborative teaching and mentoring. Rogers (2007) also indicated that, lack of experience

and professionalism on the part of the mentor could result in most of the work done by the mentees without any meaningful learning taking place.

The argument has not always been on the need for a mentor to be qualified in mentoring to be a good mentor to a mentee. The mentoring Guide of Manchester Metropolitan University (2018) asserted that, mentoring is not the same as training, teaching or coaching, and therefore, a mentor does not necessarily need to be a qualified trainer or an expert in the role the mentee carries out. Here, the guide alluded that circular experience, commitments and common sense may be enough for one to be a mentor. This position is mostly in isolation since most authors are of contrary views.

In the specific case of Ghana, an empirical finding by the study of Azure (2016) indicated that, student-teachers, pay attention to their mentors in the schools of attachment than what they learned in the classroom at the colleges. The theories student-teachers learn in colleges are easily overlooked under prevailing classroom situation during the teaching practice period; hence the teaching philosophies held by student-teachers may be sacrificed under field conditions in favour of the philosophies of their mentors (Allsopp, DeMarie, Alvarez-Hatton & Doone, 2006). This points to the crucial role that mentors and their competencies hold in the holistic development of student-teachers. That is, if attention is not paid to the recruitment and competencies of the mentors in the schools of attachment, the mentoring process will end up undoing whatever gain the colleges have attained in developing the student-teachers.

Ehrich, Hansford and Ehrich (2011) conducted a review on student-teachers' mentoring and concluded that, "In some cases, poor mentoring can

be worse than no mentoring at all" (p.25), but a competent mentor would have a lot to add to the student-teachers' development process. Ligadu (2012) discovered that most mentees agreed that their positive development in their professional areas was due to both professional learning and psychological mentoring support provided by mentors in their roles as guides and advisors and to the mentors' knowledge of content and pedagogical experience.

Esia-Donkoh, Amihere and Addison (2015) studied the perception of 188 mentees of 2013/2014 final year students of the Department of Basic Education, University of Education, Winniba (UEW), Ghana, on the Student Internship Programme (SIP) they undertook in the first semester of the 2013/2014 academic year. The results indicated that, the student-teachers were uncertain as to the kind of support they were given by their partnership schools, but they generally agreed that they gained adequate instructional skills from their mentors to assist them in the "real world". Even though the students, generally disagreed that they experienced challenges, they specifically indicated that the one semester SIP was inadequate. The findings further observed no significant difference in the views of the students on the instructional skills gained in terms of gender and the type of basic school (public or private) internship that was undertaken. The study recommended that, all head teachers and mentors should be regularly trained and oriented for the programme.

Bukari and Kuyini (2015) indicated that there is limited knowledge about the theories of teaching and learning among both the trained teachers and the mentors in schools, resulting in a lack of professionalism among the mentors, who often show inappropriate attitudes and behaviours towards

mentees. Bukari and Kuyini (2015) concluded that, most mentors fail to act as agent of change in the mentoring process which greatly affects their ability to exhibit competencies in their mentoring.

Galamay-Cachola, Aduca and Calauagan (2018) studied the mentoring experiences of mentoring teachers and mentees using qualitative design. The findings indicated that, the mentors perceived that they greatly mentored student-teachers, in terms of, personal attributes, system requirements, pedagogical knowledge, modelling and feedback that were validated by the student-teachers except in the area of system requirements wherein they were moderately mentored. Provision of continuing professional education for cooperating teachers to enrich their skills of mentoring student-teachers and giving more time for post conference were recommended by the study.

Other empirical evidence found that, the mentoring teachers were less experienced in mentoring. Yüksel (2019) found that, the student-teachers' professional guidance expectations were not met and the mentor teachers were not seen enough due to the incapable knowledge on the teaching methodology. In the same study, it was emphasised that, the mentor teachers did not provide enough guidance for the student-teachers, and they had negative attitudes towards student-teachers and also lacked the "teacher training" skills. The study was emphatic on the level of incompetence of the mentoring teachers both in teaching methodology and mentoring capabilities.

In Zimbabwe, Majoni and Nyaruwata (2015) examined the challenges in achieving effective mentoring during teaching practice in the teacher education institutions. The student-teachers and mentors were purposively sampled. The results showed that, a number of factors affected the quality of

mentoring, including competencies of mentors, selection of mentors, lack of readiness on the part of student-teachers to do practical teaching and lack of effective communication between the colleges of education and the schools of attachment. The study recommended that mentors should be trained to enhance their skills in mentoring. Ngara and Ngwarai (2012) identified lack of preparation for the mentoring role, disabling traits of mentees and mentors and lack of time to achieve optimum mentoring as challenges facing the mentoring process.

Mentors and Mentees' Perception of the Mentorship Programme

Perception is expected to influence attitude and also services as enticements to knowledge and behaviour of individuals (Wallace, 2009). Hence, the stakeholders' perceptions can significantly influence the mentoring relationships in any teaching practice programme. The role of perception in the mentoring process could be linked to the theory of perceived usefulness of an action or a system (Lanlan, Ahmi & Popoola, 2019). Theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that, an individual's perception about an action determines the level of adoption or participation, that eventually influences the performance outcome of the process (Lanlan et al., 2019).

The mentors and the mentees have been exposed to some forms of mentoring process before the teaching practice period and may have formed their own position of the usefulness of the mentoring process. That is, all trained and professional teachers that serve as mentors have been mentees before, while the current mentees have been exposed to an on-campus teaching practice. Hence, the experience derived by mentors and mentees from previous exposure to the mentoring process could produce difference in

perception about the mentoring process to the mentors and mentees. It could therefore be concluded that mentors and mentees may have different mentoring experience and hence different perception about mentoring that could greatly impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring process (Wallace, 2009).

Hansford, Tennent & Ehrich (2002) investigated 151 studies on formal mentoring and they found that 67.5 percent yielded positive outcomes as a result of mentoring. However, 24.5 percent reported mixed positive and negative outcomes. Overall, more than 90 percent of the studies showed that mentoring had at least some positive effects on the mentees, mentors and schools of attachment. A study conducted in Brunei by Tengah (2016) on the students' perceptions on benefits of mentoring programme showed that a majority of students felt that the greatest benefits that they had gained from their mentors were sharing experiences and learning (94%), opportunity to learn new things and had positive experience during the mentoring programme 92% and 90% of the students had benefited from good communication skills and development of relationship with mentors respectively. Wachira (2019) and Suen and Chow (2001) indicated that the students' positive perceptions were associated with the level of satisfaction with their mentors. Setati and Nkosi (2017); Phiri (2019) and Lehtelä and Happo (2014) concluded that, generally a considerable number of mentees who participated in the mentoring programme saw academic and psychosocial benefits resulting from their participation.

Other study found out that, the student-teachers thought mentorship is time consuming (Asefzadeh, Javadi & Sharifi, 2004). Andrews and Chilton

(2000) indicated that, a large proportion of the students' learning takes place outside of the mentor mentee domain and it is not solely the mentor who is responsible for the student's learning. Andrews and Chilton (2000) added that, student-teachers learn from all those they interact with, and are also influenced by the learning environment as a whole academic process, rather than specific individuals, such as the mentor. Erdem and Ömüriş (2014) and Buyukgoze-Kavas, Taylor, Neimeyer and Yerin Guneri (2010) also indicated that students reported less socio-economic support from their mentors and were less satisfied with their mentoring relationship.

Some studies have confirmed the positive attitude of mentors about the student-teachers mentoring process though a significant number have also indicated otherwise. Wallace (2009) discovered that, the perception of mentors is not homogenous on all aspects of mentoring since they have positive perception on most issues, but negative perception about some aspects as well. Wallace (2009 p. 100) stated, "teachers spoke with passion about the negative influence from poor mentoring relationships in the past". Erdem and Ömüriş (2014) and Buyukgoze-Kavas et al. (2010) opined that, student-teachers reported less socio-economic support from their mentors and were less satisfied with their mentoring relationship.

The empirical review found more studies on the perception of mentees on the mentoring process and about the mentors' competencies than that of the mentors' views about the mentees. This study focused on both the views of the mentors and the mentees as well as each other. The perceptions of the mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the link tutors were also expanded to cover a number of issues including competencies, benefits, duration, among

others. The perception of mentors and mentees on common themes were also compared to determine where the two converge and where they diverge on topical issues relating to mentoring.

Perception as a Measure of Reality

The extensive use of perception on issues, such as competencies and commitment of the mentors and mentees to the mentoring process require that the role of perception as a proxy to reality is examined. Value-free research requires that, social reality is objectively measured devoid of any personal value judgement, but Thompson argued against the possibility of achieving such an objective assessment of social views and reality (Thompson, 2016). The practices, therefore, are to attempt an objective assessment as precise as situations allowed by adopting best practices and being modest with the interpretation of outcomes (Mattes, 2019).

The debates still rage on to the extent to which the individuals' perception measures the actual reality as it was done in this study. Measuring perception requires taking the recall views or perceptions of mentors and mentees about each other and how they perceive a given situation as conflict or not. It is undeniable fact that, individual differences can make individual mentees to see conflict in what mentors may see correction; while a mentee may see self-expression in what mentors may see as insolence. This situation points to the distinction between perception and reality that suggests that reality depends on perspective (Taylor, 2019). Perception can, therefore, mainly come close to reality if the individuals are positioned at points where they can have common perspectives (Taylor, 2019). The need to put people into common perspective explains why this study approached an issue from a

common perspective or common issue for all the four stakeholders in most cases.

Another danger to the issue of perception is self-reporting, where individuals have the tendency to be bias (Paulhus, Harms, Bruce, & Lysy, 2003; Plieninger & Meiser, 2014). Wetzel, Böhnke and Brown (2016) shared the view that, self-reporting has higher tendency of being lenient on issues, while reports by others may be harsh on the same issues. This position explains why this study assessed conflict situations from both mentors and mentees' positions in the same setting. It also explains why the independent views of third parties, such as the head teachers (lead mentors) and the link tutors become complementary to the effective measurement of the success and the challenges encountered in mentoring during teaching practice periods.

This study, therefore, attempted to deal with the issues of divergence between perception and reality by adopting multiple measures and synchronise the views of mentors and mentees along with that of other stakeholders. Since two mentees were usually paired under a single mentor in the case of student-teacher mentoring in Ghana, most mentors were judged by two different mentees that can reduce biases while most mentors have the behaviours of several mentees to compare so as to make a case for where problems actually exist. The gap between perception and reality was, therefore, minimised to the barest minimum in the analysis of this study such that a true reflection of the mentorship situation of teacher mentoring is well reflected in the final outcome of the study.

Cost and Benefits Implication of Student-Teacher Mentoring Base on Theories

Cost refers to all resources that must be sacrificed for the prodcution or a process to take place (Villar & Strong, 2010). Cost moves beyond finacial commitment to include other non-finnacil commitements, such as time and space in the school enviroment. The cost of mentoring student-teachers in a one-year teaching practice as in the case of Ghana, is spread across stakeholders from the state, through the colleges of education, the schools of attachment, the community, mentors and the student-teachers.

Benefits as well refers to the positive outcomes of an activity that may be dircet or indircet in nature (Masse & Barnett, 2002). Just as the case of cost, benefits can be financial or non-financial, but the benefits of the mentoring process to the mentor and the mentee is mostly non-financial. That is, to the student-teacher the mentoring process is an academic requirement for the award of the teacher certificate and it is not different from writing a project work. The mentor, in the case of Ghana, must consider the mentroing process as professional responsibility, and only expects to benefit from competencies and experiences from the mentroing process. There are, therefore, no dircet financial benefits to the mentee nor the mentor in the teaching practice period.

The unit of analysis of this study is the student-teachers and the mentors, hence, the assessment of cost and benefits was mainly to the mentoring teacher and the student-teacher or mentee. The fact that financial benefits is zero to the mentor may have implications for the commitment of the mentor to the mentoring process. That is, the concept of marginal analysis posits that, individuals compare the additional benefit (MB) to additonal cost

(MC) in taking action such that resources shall be committed to an act if the perceived benefits exceed the percieved cost (Masse & Barnett, 2002). That is, the equilibrium decision to fully participate can be given in equation (1) while equation (2) gives the optimal supply of mentoring services by experinced teachers at the schools of attachment.

$$MB_m \geq MC_m \quad \text{.....Supply of mentoring service}$$
$$MB_m = MC_m \quad \text{.....Optimal supply mentoring service}$$
$$MB_m < MC_m \quad \text{.....No supply of real mentoring service}$$

Based on the concept of marginal analysis, the mentor shall supply labour hours to the mentoring process much as they percieve a higher benefit or identical to the cost of participating in the programme (Allanson, 2018). The tricky aspect of the mentoring process in the teaching practice model is that, every mentee is likely to be assigned to a mentor in the school of attachment, but the actual man hours of mentoring supplied by the mentors depend on the mentors' wilingness to mentor, which is given by the first two conditions. If the analysis is restricted to finacial benefits, the zero financial benefit acruing to the mentor suggests that, no real mentoring services shall be offered unless the mentors have a non-financial reason to offer their services. Since economic benefits go beyond monetary benefits, motivations such as the desire to impart knowledge to the future generation and other non-monetary motivations always ensure an avearge supply of mentoring service. The issues, however, have to do with the level of commitment after the services have been offered (mentor accepts the task to act as a mentor) if the cost of the mentoring to the mentor remains positive in financial terms.

This study, therefore, attempts to evlaute some finacial and non-ficial costs and benefits of the mentoiring process to validate the cliams above and to offer policy recommendation on them. According to Gramlich (1998, p. 5):

> Benefit cost analysis is a framework for organising thoughts, or considerations: nothing more nothing less. For any real-world choice, there will always be some considerations that cannot be easily enumerated or evaluated, where the analysis becomes quite conjectural. Benefit cost analysis does not, and should not, try to hide this uncertainty.

Benefit-cost analysis simply estimates the financial benefits of a given course of action against the actual costs and use the resulting balance to guide decision making (Villar & Strong, 2010). Costs are either one-time, or may be ongoing. Benefits are most often received over time. In its simple form, benefit-cost analysis is carried out using only actual financial costs and financial benefits. A more sophisticated approach attempts also to put a financial value on intangible costs and benefits, a process that can be highly subjective (Villar & Strong, 2010). Villar and Strong reiterated that, the growing demand for the scarce educational budgets makes it necessary to assess the cost component of mentoring against the benefits and alternative models to make justifiable cause for the duration and modalities of the current mode of mentoring student- teachers.

This study expanded its scope to cover some finance and non-financial costs and benefits to the mentors and the mentees. The major financial cost areas considered for both mentors and mentees were feeding, accommodation, transportation, stationery and utility bills (water and electricity). The assessment of cost to the mentors was examined as the likely additional cost to

them as a result of engaging in the mentoring process due to the presence of the mentees.

Crumpton (2014) suggested that, the costs of a mentoring programme can be varied and sometimes not clearly identified, but the following areas can be considered in cost identification:

1. logistical costs of facilities for meetings, refreshments or food, travel if appropriate and recruitment if needed;
2. administrative costs of scheduling and/or use of materials to support the process; and
3. time spent (technically salaries) mentoring or being mentored and not performing other duties; any specialised training provided for the mentors to increase their mentoring skills;
4. any other cost associated with not performing the action of a formal mentoring programme or framework support for informal activities (Crumpton, 2014, p. 3)

Crumpton (2014) alluded to both financial and non-financial cost as well as explicit and implicit cost of the mentoring programme. That is, both mentors and mentees have opportunity cost (forgone alternative) for mentoring that must be taken into consideration in a holistic mentoring programme. The opportunity or real cost of mentoring to the mentor may include the alternative action they could take with the time spent on the mentees as well as instructional time loss due to the presence of mentees. A mentee's opportunity cost may include the content knowledge loss due to the need to apply the little learnt into real classroom environment as well as the extra time spent traveling between schools of attachment and the college.

Though the extent of the implicit or opportunity cost can be gauged, the imputed financial cost was beyond the scope of the current studies which focused more on the explicit (financial) cost of mentoring.

Crumpton (2014) also outlined the following general benefits or returns that could be gained from investing into a mentoring programme:

1. success of the mentee who is now more relaxed and participate in his or her job duties which helps inspire them for retention and reduces turnover;
2. improved skills of the mentor who has himself or herself acquire significant knowledge in the process;
3. succession planning activities would have a solid foundation from which organisational leadership can be sustained and institutional knowledge is protected (Crumpton, 2014, p. 3-4).
4. improved skills of the mentee, who is more efficient in the performance of his or her job and related activities for promotion, tenure or some other forms of advancement;

Perhaps, the most important benefit of a student-teacher mentoring is the need for a succession plan for the teaching profession since any cohort of mentees are the future teachers and mentors for the service. Empirical evidence supported the need to mentor the mentees if they are indeed the future teachers because mentoring has positive effects on the teaching competencies. Simon and Wardlow (1989) found that mentored teachers exhibited more effective teaching behaviours, higher levels of teacher efficacy and were better equipped to handle classroom issues, exhibited and expressed more positive attitudes than teachers without formal mentorship.

Though cost of mentoring to the mentors and the mentees have not been on the forefront of empirical mentoring research, the benefits have been extensively discussed. Lehtelä and Happo (2014) discovered that, mentors felt that being a part of the mentees' development process and using their own experience and know-how to help their mentees were positive and significant experiences which enhanced their own professional development. Perunka and Erkkilä (2012) also found that, the mentoring process provides the mentors with the opportunities to engage in cooperation, innovate new teaching methods and acquire new perspectives about students' knowledge with their mentees. Reynolds (2012) stated, "Mentors are on their own journey which hopefully, they gain self-awareness and perspective" (p. 239). Darwin and Palmer (2009) added that, mentors mostly reap extrinsic rewards, such as accelerated research productivity, greater networking and enhanced professional recognition when their mentees perform well.

That is, a mentee's strength can complement a mentor's weakness such that the two shall impact more positively on the pupils of the mentor and place the mentor among the performing teachers which come with its own respect and recognition. Philip and Hendry (2000) similarly identified the benefits of the relationship between the mentor and the mentees for mentors, such as enabling them to rationalise their own experience, an opportunity to gain insights to other people's lives and situations and development of inter-personal skills.

Conflict and Mentoring in Education

Like any form of mentoring, mentoring in education has its own conflict points based on the nature, duration and type of mentoring. The nature

of mentoring of student-teachers of the colleges in Ghana takes the form of formal mentoring that has a starting, a set of activities to follow and the terminal period for the process. The duration of the mentoring programme is one academic year, comprising three terms of the basic schools for which the student-teacher serves as a mentee to an assigned teacher at the school of attachment, which is always a basic school in the catchment area of the college of education (Asuo-Baffour, Daayeng & Agyemang, 2019). The nature of the mentoring process exposes the mentor and mentee to each other than any other actor in the mentoring process since both the head teachers and link tutors only place occasional supervisory role. A mentor-mentee conflict is of great concern in the mentoring process of the colleges of education in Ghana (Asuo-Baffour et al., 2019).

Paired Placement of Mentees and Conflict in Mentoring

The construction of positive relationships in the mentor-mentee setting is mostly considered to be a one-to-one situation (Bodger, 2016). Bodger (2016) reviewed issues relating to positive mentoring process and discovered noteworthy communication differences between the partners in the mentee-mentor interactions when mentees are mentored in pairs instead of mentoring one-on-one basis. Baker and Milner (2006) examined the mentors' views on the placements of paired mentees and they observed that paired mentees build deeper and effective association with their mentors than did mentees that serve alone under the supervision of a mentor. Paired mentoring seems to reduce burden on the mentees' involvement because as Margolis (2007) ascertained, the burden on mentor-mentee relationship is immense, but the pressure appears to spread when there are collaborative placements.

Baker and Milner (2006) examined five single mentees and four paired mentees placed under single mentors each, and made an interesting observation that mentors working with the paired mentees found the mentoring experience to be more complex and challenging, yet the mentors supported this new way of mentoring. Bodger (2016) attempted to delve into what specifically was complex and demanding about the paired mentors from the mentors' perspective and concluded that it could be based on mentees spending more time deliberating on important issues relating to teaching though the issues could be complex than that. Baker and Milner (2006) observed that, placing mentees in pairs under a single mentor is an effective means of preparing the student-teacher for the job; since it allows the mentees to learn more and feel positive about themselves.

Gender, Conflicts and Conflict Resolution in Mentoring

Conflict from the social point of view refers to the struggles between two parties over scarce resources and goals that are not compatible (Okyere, 2018). Gender may simply be referred to as the duties of men and women that are constructed by society and culture. As a social construct, the definition of gender can vary significantly based on the context and operationalisation. This study operationalised gender in the social context to mean nothing more than the role of individuals based on their sexes. For consistency, the study aligned itself with the operationalisation of gender based on the position of the United Nations which states:

> …in United Nations usage, gender refers to the socially constructed roles played by women and men that are ascribed to them on the basis of their sex. Gender analysis is done in order to examine similarities and differences in roles and responsibilities between

> women and men without direct reference to biology, but rather to the behaviour patterns expected from women and men and their cultural reinforcement. These roles are usually specific to a given area and time, that is, since gender roles are contingent on the social and economic context, they can vary according to the specific context and can change over time (Theidon, Phenicie & Murray, 2011, p. 6)

The UN position expands the concept of gender to include something more than biological predisposition to encompass the social role played by individuals. This study distinguished among individuals mainly on the basis of their biological makeup and how it engenders conflicts in the educational setting. Gender could, therefore, be used interchangeable with sex in the context of this study, and have only two aspects as male and females. This position did not compromise on the social role of individuals since the society has assigned different roles to the different sexes in every culture. It is the universality of the gender role in the definition of gender by the international community, such as the United Nations that this study mainly suppressed due to its scope and setting.

By being different in their biological makeup and social roles, males and females can respond differently to the same situation which put them on different trajectory in creating and resolving conflicts (Dietrich & Quain, 2014). According to Dietrich and Quain (2014, p.1), "Women, men and children experience and act differently in the context of violence and post-conflicts reconstruction". For example, males and females can respond differently to stress which is a major trigger of conflicts (Malley, 2019). Also, the different construction of gender in different cultures can stimulate conflicts when for example, a male from male-dominated cultural has to adhere to the

instruction of a female due to the role assigned by the mentoring process to each of them. The role of gender in conflicts, is therefore, indispensable.

According to Theidon, Phenicie and Murray (2011, p. 3), "Gender identities are crucial to conflict dynamics. Both men and women are involved in inflicting violence and are its victims, defying a simplistic classification of roles". In their subtle nature, women are often seen as the victims of conflicts (Okyere, 2018), but recent position sees women as conflict actors - not merely as victims, but also as perpetrators, with agency and choice (Malley, 2019). The interesting aspect of gender in this study is that it has cases of both male and female in the opposite side of the coin. That is, there are females who were mentors and command power over both male and female mentees much as there were females who were mentees and serving under male or female mentors.

Thus, the females were not always objects, but could be subjects in the creation of conflicts as well as their resolution. Another issue that this study experienced and focused on was the clash of same sex where females served as mentors for female mentees or males serving as mentors for male mentees as well as the clash of gender where one gender must mentor another. Of key interest to the study was how the four possibilities engender conflicts and complicate the resolution process. Gender may surface in conflicts in the ways that parties interpret and give meaning to the conflict as well as how conflicts are resolved (Birkhoff, 2020). Birkhoff (2020) stated that mechanisms used to resolve conflicts among women may be less effective for men due to the way each perceive conflict.

Empirical Evidence on Conflicts and Other Challenges of the Mentoring Process

The mentoring process involves several actors, but four actors (a mentor, a mentee, heads of schools of attachment and link tutors) out of the numerous stakeholders are in constant contact that exacerbate the tendency of conflicts among them. The mentors and the mentees have the high frequency of contacts since the two are at the centre of the mentoring process; hence, they have received the greatest attention on the issue of conflicts in the student-teachers mentoring process, both within and outside Ghana. There have been other challenges that affect all the major stakeholders and they are also covered in the empirical review.

In the Ghanaian context, the studies of Asuo-Baffour, Daayeng and Agyemang (2019); Oduro-Arhin (2018) and Baidoo (2016) studied the problems confronting mentees in their mentoring period. Asuo-Baffour et al. (2019) used structured questionnaire and semi–structured interviews to collect data from a sample of 76 respondents selected through the multi-stage sampling technique. The results suggested that, mentees faced various challenges during their mentoring period, including bad attitudes of mentors and some teachers as well as community related challenges. The specific challenges identified were unpreparedness of some teachers (mentors) to work collaboratively with mentees and absenteeism of mentors. The study recommended that, authorities of colleges of education should train mentors on their duties and role as mentors in the mentoring process. Asuo-Baffour et al. (2019) did not specifically focus on the competencies of the mentors, but still found a need for them to be trained which added to the need to effectively

evaluate such competencies to inform policies as was done in this study. The study also had a limited scope in terms of sample size which this study improved upon by considering a number of colleges and an extended sample size.

Oduro-Arhin (2018) examined midwifery students' experiences about their mentorship during clinical practicum at the Korle-Bu Teaching Hospital (KBTH), using a qualitative exploratory descriptive design. A purposive sample of 11 respondents were involved in a semi-structured interview for data collection, and the thematic content analysis was used. The findings indicated that, the mentorship and skills acquisition during clinical practicum was not well established in the midwifery training colleges. Also, lack of support from the hospital staff was identified as a major challenge to the mentoring process. The study recommended that more attention be paid to the mentoring process to enhance knowledge and skills acquisition, build the confidence of midwifery students and improve maternal and child health.

Baidoo (2016) studied the challenges of the off-campus teaching practice in the University of Cape Coast as perceived by the pre-service teachers (mentees). The descriptive survey of 146 respondents and a focused group discussion comprising 24 participants were used in a concurrent triangulation. The results showed that, pre-service teachers faced challenges related to staff unreceptiveness, supervision issues, role ambiguity, assessment issues, lesson plan issues, trainee unpreparedness, poor trainee disposition and inappropriate teaching method. A pre-serve teacher performance was found to depend on a significant relationship on the challenges of staff unreceptiveness, inappropriate teaching methods, and poor trainee disposition. The challenges

were found to impact negatively on the pre-service teachers' perception of the teaching profession. Gender was also found to mediate most of the challenges, but the challenges were relatively uniform across the surveyed schools. The colleges of education are now upgraded into university colleges of education which means activities will soon take the form of mentoring in the universities. This study, therefore, compared its results with the situation that pertains in the mentoring of the university students. Even, the review results already point to several convergence across challenges of the mentoring process at the college and that of the university level.

Amedeker (2018) assessed the perceptions of 120 undergraduates of University of Education, Winneba, about the role of mentors who mentor them on internship. The trainee-teachers perceived mentors' supervisory skills, reflective moments, and dialogue sessions as beneficial. The results revealed that mentors' commitment to the mentoring process was very vital in trainee-teacher selection of internship schools.

Bukari and Kuyini (2015) examined the mentoring of student teacher in Ghana, by interviewing selected trainee teachers and head teachers. The results suggested that, there were significant differences of opinion of mentors and mentees about many issues around the mentoring programme. Bukari and Kuyini (2015) raised questions as to whether the observed differences were signs of confusion or expressions of ignorance amongst the key actors in the mentoring process on how practical sessions or aspect of the student-teacher training should be done. The student-teacher encounter inconsistencies in what their tutors give them on campus and what their mentors are doing on the field on key areas such as the best format for lesson note preparation. The mentees

feel their mentor are not current on the lesson not preparing whilst the mentors feel the mentees are not abreast with the technicalities of the process which mostly breed conflict. Mukolwe and Misia (2013) investigated the challenges facing mentees on out-programme, concentrating mainly on professional and academic issues, curriculum resources, socio-economic and health issues and mentoring and supervision. The outcome indicated that there were lack of some social amenities (particularly accommodation), inadequate curriculum resources in the schools of attachment, poor road network and water supply as some of the major challenges facing trainee teachers during their mentoring period.

Duman and Erdamar (2018) looked into conflict situations and the causes of conflict between mentees and mentors during the teaching practice period, using phenomenological approach to research and semi-structured focus group interviews for data collection. The sample size for the study comprised 163 mentoring teachers from 8 different faculties and 4 different departments, and the study employed the content analysis approach of data analysis. The study identified problems related to the class, mentor-teacher's perception of the mentees, problems related to the mentoring process and problematic issues from the mentees as the sources of conflicts from the mentees' point of view. The mentors also identified causes related to the university tutors (link tutors in the Ghanaian context), schools and causes related to the practice or mentoring process. The major item of interest in the findings of this study was the observation that, the mentors and mentees had different reasons for conflicts. The mentees' issues were more of the classroom and the ability to deal with the views of the mentors, such as

meeting their expectations, while that of the mentors were more of a supervisor or the relationship with the authorities involved in the mentoring process. Dinçer and Kapısız (2013) had earlier confirmed the position of the mentees in their study, when they observed that, the mentees could not have enough opportunity to teach as there was usually more than one student-teacher in the same class. The case of paired mentoring was observed to be a normal practice in the school of attachment visited.

A study of Gökçe and Demirhan (2005) also showed that the cooperation among the mentor, the mentees, and the university tutors in the faculty was not enough, and since significant difference were observed between the mentee's opinions and that of their mentors about the training activities, and that the mentors did not deliver adequate support to the mentees. Marais (2016) found inadequate lack of teaching materials, physical facilities, challenges related to over populated classroom and disciplinary problems in schools of attachment as reasons for non-performance of some mentors.

In addition, the mentor teachers' attitudes towards the student-teachers, and the mentors' intervention when the student-teacher is teaching as well as the likelihood that the mentors may feel insecure were other problems of the process. Leshem (2012) examined pre-service teachers' programme in a teacher education college in Israel and found that, there is no great dispute between mentors and mentees on the mentoring role. Leshem indicated that, the mentoring relationship was a dynamic non-linear process that requires mentors and mentees to adapt to contextual situations over time or during the mentoring process.

Hudson (2014) used 31 mentors to examine conflicts and conflict resolution in student-teachers' mentoring and found that, conflicts in the mentoring process generally occurred around personal, pedagogical and professional issues. To achieve a successful mentoring relationship, the mentors indicated that, maintaining a positive professional relationship, providing a code of conduct with clear expectations, providing regular feedback as a mechanism that developed a willingness to address issues, sharing responsibility for teaching, enlisting third-party mediation with more experienced staff and empathy towards personal situations as necessary resolution types. The results again indicated that mentors must plan around negating conflicts between the mentors and mentees that aimed towards achieving positive outcomes. Hudson stipulate that, conflicts and their resolution situation in the study were self-reported and hence might be biased. Hudson again recognised that the use of only mentors heightened the issue of biasness in the self-reported data. This study improves upon Hudson and other earlier studies by involving four stakeholders (Mentor, Mentees, Lead Mentor and Link Tutor), and asking the same questions to mentors and mentees to ensure the robustness of the outcomes.

Izadinia (2015) studied the similarities and differences between the mentor-teachers' and mentees' perceptions of the components of a positive mentoring relationship and its impacts on the identity formation of student-teachers. The participants were asked to use metaphors to describe the mentoring relationship along with an interview. The findings indicated that, there was no serious dispute between the ideas of mentors and mentees, and both parties considered encouragement and support, an open line of

communication and feedback as the most significant elements in successful mentoring relationship. The results, however, identified differences in the respondents' attitudes of the impact of the mentoring relationship on the mentees' identity formation.

Rogers (2007) identified other problems negatively affecting mentoring as poor relationship between the mentors and the mentees and misunderstanding between them resulting in ineffective mentoring. Pinho, Coetzee and Schreuderet (2005) asserted that, the challenge faced during internship programmes stems from mentors' or mentees' work and life demands, costs or simply scheduling problems. Aside the institutional challenges and the challenges associated with the mentoring process, the student-teacher has to deal with some personal challenges. As contained in Stewart (2011) and Tomlinson (2011) study, a major challenge that student-teachers face during the teaching practice period is the need to create a balance between the academic demands of maintaining a student status and the need for simultaneously maintaining the ongoing supportive roles with their school mentors.

Maintaining a student status here refers to the need for the mentee to prepare for their final examination on campus immediately after the mentoring period, as in the case of Ghana, by attending face-to-face interaction with college tutors on regular basis. Student-teachers must simultaneously prepare for supervision as well as learn for their examinations since both are included in their grading in the teacher-training programme. Since students are to do their teaching practice within the catchment area of their colleges, most of them encounter cultural clash when they have to survive in an alien culture

and maintain both academic and social discipline (Jaspers et al., 2014). The need to meet extra cost of mentoring is another major challenge that could be of great concern to the student-teacher during the out segment (Villar & Strong, 2010). This study delved deep into the cost aspect of the mentoring process to both the mentor and mentee since not much empirical results were found on this aspect of mentoring.

Role of Teacher-Training Institutions in Mentorship Programme

According to Dreyer (1998), a nation that disregards best practices on how they train their teachers will ultimately have adverse effects on the quality or standard of their education. Martinez (2004) put the blame squally on teacher-training institutions for the poor quality of teachers. Besides, Campbell and Brummet (2007) blamed teacher-training institutions of continuously reproducing the status quo. To ensure quality professional teachers, there is the need for teacher training institutions to reconsider the structure and framework of teacher education which is the vehicle through which teachers are produced.

Quick and Siebörger (2005) undertook a study and found that, though mentoring programmes have the potential to support student-teachers during teaching practice, it does not always yield the desired outcomes. In their opinion, there are discrepancies in the role expectation of mentors and teacher-training institutions during teaching. Teacher-training institutions are expected to improve their performance with respect to their supervisory role of student-teachers and the provision of feedback to mentees on the professional development of student-teachers. Quick and Siebörger observed that teacher-training institutions require schools of attachment to take sole responsibility

for the professional development of students during teaching practice. They, thus suggested that, the responsibilities of ensuring professional development of student-teachers should be shared fairly between schools of attachment and the training institutions.

Campbell and Brummet (2007), asserted that the fundamental mentoring role of teacher educators in teacher training institutions is those of "coach, critical friend and co-inquirer". The teacher educators as coaches should support student-teachers through discussions to discover what they know to be able to provide strategies for understanding teaching and learning. As a critical friend, the teacher educator or the lecturer should challenge student-teacher's practices and actions to trigger critical thinking and as a co-inquirer, lecturers should see student-teachers as learning partners. Arguably, one of the core purposes of a teacher education programme is to influence the actions and thinking of pre-service teachers (Campbell & Brummet, 2007). Teacher education programmes; nonetheless, is expected to support student-teachers to develop effective and efficient teaching skills, and also to understand the requirements of the teaching profession. Mentoring serves as an instrument through which teacher training institutions can support student-teachers to fulfil the dream of the training institutions. Many studies strongly argue that mentoring can be used as a valuable tool to enhance teacher preparation (Van Wyk & Daniels, 2004; Martinez, 2004; Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010).

Conceptual Framework

The study integrated three main theories to explain the mentoring relationship among the stakeholders. The Social Learning Theory explains the

process of knowledge acquisition of the mentees from the mentors, during the mentoring relationship through observation. The Exchange Theory points to the fact that, mentors and other stakeholders may give off their best based on their perceived cost-benefit analysis of the mentoring process. The Sanford Theory explains the need to balance challenge that stakeholders give to mentees with adequate support to motivate them to participate and benefit from the mentoring process. The need to balance challenge with support could also be applied to the mentors in the mentoring process since they are also challenged by the stakeholders. The theories together met the theoretical needs of the current study because they stress the need for learning to occur which requires the competencies of the mentor and exchange among the stakeholders could affect perception, commitment and level of conflicts between the mentor and the mentee as well as the need to sacrifice resources which could imply cost elements in the mentoring process. A conceptual framework was adopted to further explain these relationships to understand mentoring as construct.

The study adapted conceptual frameworks by Yob and Crawford (2012). Yob and Crawford (2012) in their study clustered the characteristic of a good mentor to support successful mentoring in two domains with the various attributes which the researcher has expanded to include resources as a third domain. The academic domain comprises attributes such as competence, availability, induction, and challenge; the psychosocial domain is made up of communication, emotional support and mentors' personal qualities as presented in Figure 6.

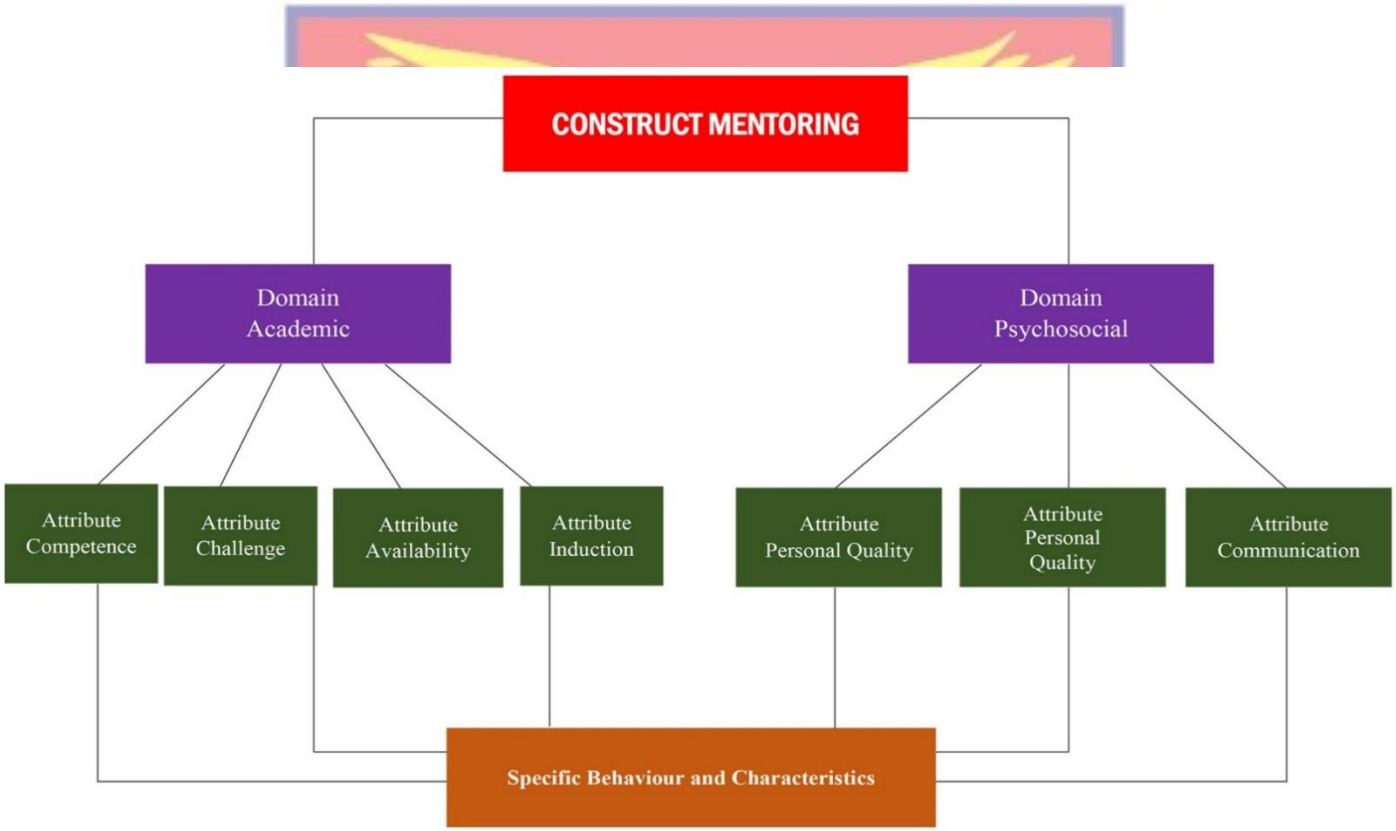


***Figure 6*: Conceptual Framework, for the study**

Source: Adapted from Yob and Crawford (2012)

Academic Domain

The academic domain comprises technical and informational functions of the mentor that supports the student-teachers' (mentees') acquisition and development of appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes. Four basic attributes are identified under the academic domain, namely competence, availability, induction and challenge.

Competence

The competence of the mentor is a key element in every mentorship programme. Anderson and Shore (2008) noted that, being competent is the chief ethical principle that should guide the work of every mentor. The mentor must have general knowledge in the field of study the student is pursuing for which a student is under studying him or her. An in-depth knowledge regarding ethics and principles and values of the institution, precise programme requirements and how to work around the clock for the mentee to adjust to the system to ensure a successful completion of programme are all mentoring requirements (Johnson, 2008). Green and Hawley, (2009) stressed that the mentor must be in the position to provide his or her mentees with relevant sources of information such as resources, web sites, individuals, books and relevant institutions where mentees can rely on for information to execute their work successful.

Availability

The availability of a mentor to student-teachers (mentees) in the mentoring process is as crucial as the mentoring itself. Waldeck (2007) used "immediacy" to define a teacher behaviour to include the presence of the teacher in the classroom as well as the social and the professional conditions

outside or beyond the classroom. A mentor accessibility was defined as the mentors' readiness to offer extra support to the mentee aside class hours, having adequate office hours for the mentee, being available for conversation with the mentee about personal issues in the mentoring relationship, making time for counselling and socialisation, meeting in a variety of places and spending time to have a discussion on issues outside the teaching profession and, among other things (Yob & Crawford, 2012).

Induction

Mentoring, in the view of Fletcher (2007), provides an enabling environment for transition of the mentees career development in times of difficulties. It is a transition period where the student-teacher is moving from one stage of his or her professional carrier to another. Any negative impression formed here is likely to leave a lasting scare on the student-teacher and the mentor must work hard to prevent that. Anderson and Shore (2008) pointed out that, the improvement of the mentee's professional and career development is one most important functions mentoring upholds. Sweitzer (2008) reported that, studies have revealed that effective and efficient mentoring can "enhance career outcomes, such as promotion, raises, and job satisfaction and offer psychosocial benefits that may include role modelling, development of competencies and work-role effectiveness" (p. 45). The mentor in every profession is a concierge to the profession who sees to the screening of candidates for ethical, interpersonal and academic fitness and has the duty to block entry of any flabby candidates into the profession particularly those that require public trust (Johnson, 2008).

Challenge

Though the relationship between a mentor and a mentee is supposed to be cordial and reciprocal, the former must do well to challenge the latter to ensure his or her continuous growth (Sambrook, Stewart, & Roberts, 2008). The mentor is expected to be a critical friend of the mentee because productive reproach of the latter's work is an integral aspect of this challenge attribute. Though it is painful to fail a student, it is vital that the individual is assessed for profession fitness and directed toward achieving his or her aspirations as a learner and a professional (Yob & Crawford, 2012). They pointed out that, questioning is one of the main tools, mentors use to trial their mentees both professionally and academically.

Psychosocial Domain

This domain comprises the skills and qualities in creating interpersonal relationships and values to sustain the mentoring process. Three main attributes emerge in the psychosocial domain: communication skills, the mentor's personal qualities, and the capabilities to offer effective emotional support (Yob & Crawford, 2012).

Personal Qualities

Trust is viewed as the most dominant personal qualities that mentors should have and must keep through the mentoring process (Sambrook, Stewart & Roberts, 2008; Dua, 2008). Due to the generational differences between a mentee and a mentor, mentees are more likely to identify issues of trust in a mentoring relationship than mentors (Smith, 2007). Trust is important in mentoring because it permits both the mentor and the mentee to "proceed to

explore the possibilities for intellectual and personal development that their relationship offers without fear of exploitation or game playing" (Stephenson & Christensen, 2007 p 4). When trust is combined "with respect, openness and a genuine and enduring interest in their shared interest in their area of exploration and development of the student's capacities", the mentor is less likely to risk "undoing the relationship and unhinging its vital possibilities" (Stephenson & Christensen, 2007 p 4). Along with friendliness and trust, patience and a good sense of humour have been recognised as vital personal qualities of mentors (Ali, 2008).

Communication

The attribute Communication is closely related to personal qualities because bad communication skills can result in confusion, distrust and hence poor outcomes (Evans, 2007). When Waldeck (2007) examined the critical qualities of personalised education and instructor's competency communication emerged as the third most cited quality. Punyanunt-Carter and Wrench (2008) observed that mentees belief that they are being mentored well was positively related to their "perceptions of their advisor's communication competencies and perceived credibility" (p. 580). Active listening on the part of both mentees and mentors is a vital aspect of communication in this mentoring framework (Johnson, 2008). The mentor-mentee connection that grows in mutuality and collegiality is reliant on communications that are open and trusted, where divergences of views are not considered as permanent obstacles, and the objective of the interactions is based on professional and intellectual growth (Stephenson & Christensen, 2007).

Emotional Support

According to Forehand (2008), outcome of academic support is greater productivity while psychosocial support brings about greater satisfaction with the mentor and the programme resulting self-sufficiency. The mentors' support to the mentees has the potency to instil in them, positive self-esteem as well as self-image, make them believe in their capabilities and believe in their professional competence (Mortenson, 2006). Emotional support is a crucial element of the psychosocial domain which transcends academic knowledge that a mentor might share to include any action that seeks to enhance the emotional welfare of the mentees, particularly during the difficult times (Mortenson, 2006).

Yob and Crawford (2012) created their framework through a systematic review of a number of studies on mentoring and came up with the two domains and their seven attributes. Crawford, Randolph and Yob (2014) empirically tested the framework and reduced the seven attributes to six by dropping the personal quality attributes from the psychosocial domain. Many studies have since used the extended framework to study mentor-mentees relationship in different fields and under different study models (Byrnes, Uribe-Flórez, Trespalacios & Chilson, 2019).

Despite making the efforts to validate their framework and its general acceptability and application in several empirical studies, the major weakness of the conceptual framework still persists. That is, the initial framework was based on the review of studies on graduate online mentoring, while the validation created an empirical online class for the assessment and validation of the framework (Crawford et al. 2014). The authors acknowledged this

weakness and advocated for the framework to be tested in other disciplines and in the face-to-face setting (Yob & Crawford, 2012; Crawford et al., 2014). Though a number of studies have applied the framework to on-line and blended studies mentoring, Ratković and Woloshyn (2017); Geesa, Lowery and McConnell (2018) and Singe et al. (2021), applied the framework to a face-to-face mentoring of doctorial students mentoring.

The trend still remains that the framework's application has been skewed towards graduate school mentoring, though no specific reason has been cited for its limited application. The current study extended and applied the original framework of Yob and Crawford (2012), by including personal quality as an attribute they dropped in their validation. This was because the validation used online class which could not form the basis to drop an attribute in a study that involved face-to-face mentoring. Though the other six attributes have been validated in face-to-face mentoring (Ratković & Woloshyn, 2017; Geesa et al., 2018; Singe et al., 2021), this study included personal quality as an attribute because of its special bearing with conflicts and perceptions that were integral in the current studies but missing in most earlier studies.

Also, the current study considered cost in the mentoring process which was not the focus of the earlier studies since they mostly focused on graduate students that had assistance or online students that were earning income while schooling (Byrnes et al., 2019). The case of student-teacher mentoring for colleges of education involves mentees who are full time students paying fees and depending on allowance that only cover some aspects of their upkeep. The extension of the framework included the creation of an additional domain duped as resource domain, and having two attributes as financial and material.

Yob and Crawford (2012) also called for background characteristics to be included in the framework which the current study considered by including gender and location of school of attachment. The two variables were introduced as moderating variables in the framework for the resource domain since it was the major addition and a relatively new area the study was introducing. That is, the analysis was concerned with whether any observed case was a general case or specific to one gender or a particular location. Gender obviously could moderate the cost elements of mentees based on differences in expenditure patterns, while location could determine the cost of living of mentors and mentees. A final addition to the framework was its extension to cover mentees and other stakeholders in the framework. Figure 7 presents the extended framework and was followed by the explanation of the two new attributes.

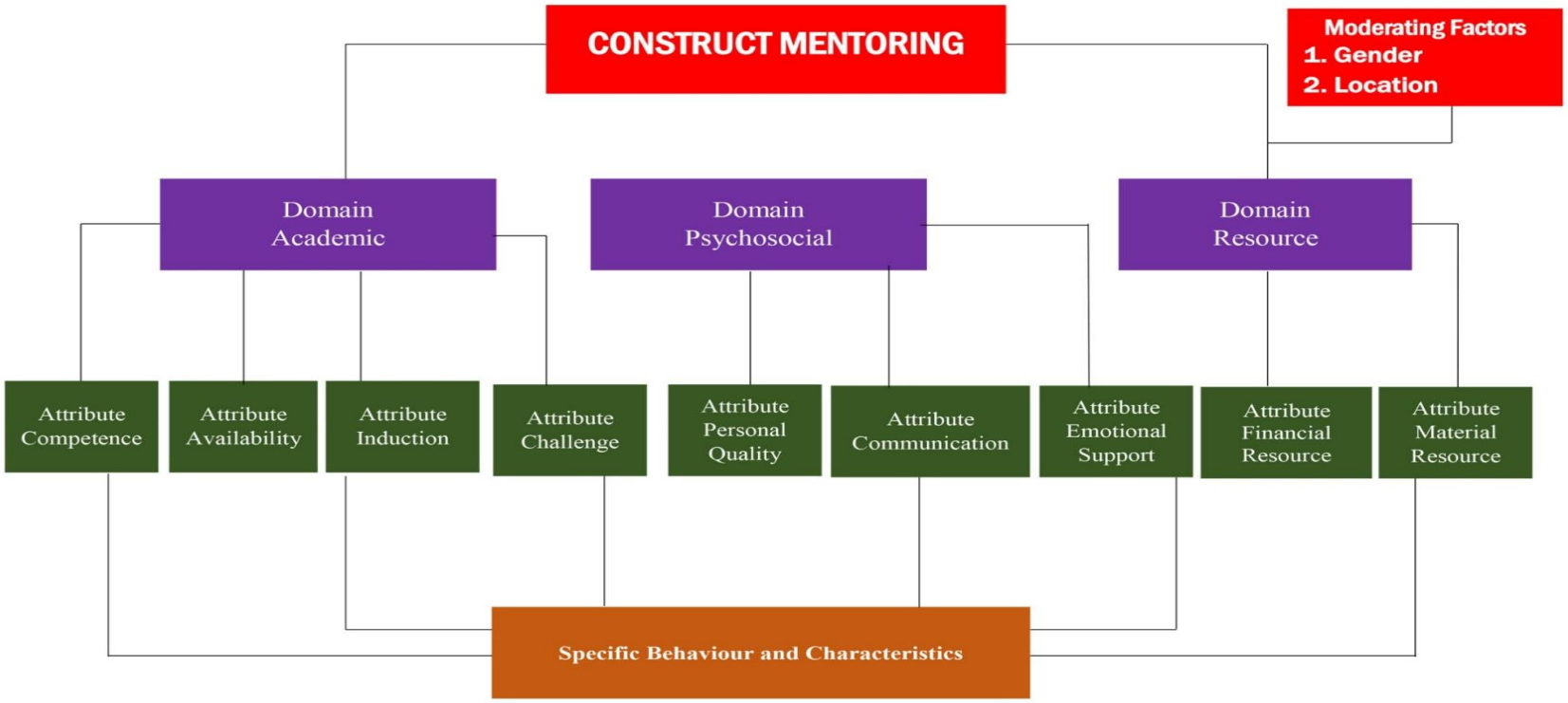


***Figure 7*: Conceptual framework for the study**

Source: Adapted from Yob and Crawford (2012)

Resource Domain

The third and the final domain consists of two attributes which include financial and material resources.

Financial Resources

Though it is an external variable, money is one of the elements needed for a successful and effective mentoring programme on the part of the mentor, the mentee, schools of attachment and the colleges. The colleges, for instance, need to be resourced to carry out effective and efficient supervision of the monitoring of their student-teachers (mentees) in various schools of attachment. Availability of funds to fuel buses and remunerate tutors to move about for the supervision of student-teachers during the monitoring process cannot be swept under the carpet. Remuneration of mentors to get their full commitment to the job of mentoring is equally vital in the mentoring process. How are the student-teachers (mentees) who have spent two years of their studies on campus relying largely on the college's meal served at the dining hall, water and other college resources, financially and materially resourced to cope with the new environment where they must now provide for themselves?

Material Resources

Psychologists do not underestimate the role of environment in child development, as well as learning environment. Is the new environment in which the student-teacher finds himself or herself conducive enough to support proper mentoring? Does the student-teacher have access to the needed materials required for effective mentoring to translate into production of well trained, competent and dedicated teachers?

Chapter Summary

The chapter presented both the theoretical basis for the work and the empirical review of the related literature. The theoretical literature supported the study's position that, conflicts are an indispensable part of the mentoring process while the conceptual framework point out that, the sources of conflicts in the mentoring process are multifaceted ranging from individual, classroom, school and cultural factors among others. The empirical review showed that, various aspects of the student-teacher mentoring process had been evaluated by different authors, both within and outside Ghana, but a holistic assessment that takes the views of major stakeholders in a similar environment was still at the early stages. This study sought to fill the gap of providing a holistic assessment of the student-teacher mentoring process on participants in the mentoring environment, using the six major stakeholders, which are the student-teachers (mentees), teacher mentors, head teachers of the schools of attachment, the link tutor, vice principals and the teaching practice coordinators. The study extended its scope to cover the correlated of conflicts and other major issues of mentoring that have not received much attention in the local literature.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides an outline of the methodological procedures adopted in carrying out the study. The issues discussed include research philosophical foundation and approach, the research design, the study area with profile of the colleges, target population, population distribution of the target population, sample and sampling procedure and sample distribution of the respondents. Others are the research instruments, training of field assistants, pre-test of instruments, validity and reliability test of instrument, data collection procedure and protocols, response rate of data collection, data processing and analysis. This chapter also discussed ethical considerations and the challenges faced during the data collection.

Philosophical Foundation

A research philosophy refers to a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge (Saunders, 2015). This study used the mixed method strategy by triangulating methods concurrently. In the concurrent triangulation, both quantitative and qualitative data were used to accurately define the relationship among variables of interest. The choice of research philosophy was premised on the ontological and epistemological position of the research. Ontology refers to assumptions about the nature of reality (Saunders, 2015). Epistemology concerns assumptions about knowledge, valid and legitimate knowledge, what constitutes acceptable, and how we can communicate knowledge to others (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Axiology refers to the role of values and ethics within the research process. This incorporates questions about how researchers, deal with both their own values and that of our research participants.

The notable ontological positions in social research are the objectivism and the constructionism, which give rise respectively to the positivist and the interpretivist epistemological positions. The major distinctions between the positivist and interpretivist epistemological positions are the level at which value free research can be achieved in social research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The positivist holds the views that, social reality is an objective construct that exists and can be measured objectively without interferences of personal prejudices or value judgement (Saunders, 2015). The positivists position, therefore, recommends the use of hard quantitative data in rigorous statistical analysis to measure social constructs (Gill & Johnson, 2010).

The interpretivism cast doubts on the objectivity of social reality in social research, but believes that a subjective assessment of social reality is possible following the scientific approach. Interpretivism emphasises that humans are different from physical phenomena because they create meanings which suggest that their values cannot be totally isolated from the research process (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Interpretivism philosophy, therefore, aligns itself with qualitative research which prefers in dealing with the actual verbal responses from respondents with little or no numerical involvement. The dualism clearly has each other's weakness as its strength that makes the third philosophy a possibility. The pragmatism paradigm also allows for the

combination or alternation of the two positions in single research to achieve a desire outcome (Saunders, 2015).

Research Approach

The study adopted both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. Following the pragmatism paradigm, it is possible to triangulate the quantitative and qualitative researches to reduce the weakness of using each of the approaches in isolation (Saunders, 2015). That is, the use of qualitative approach allows for in-depth analysis, but lack the ability to generalise the results while the use of the quantitative approach permits detailed analysis for rigorous statistical analysis that allows for the results to be generalised to the study population (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008). The use of the mixed method also allows for responses from the qualitative analysis to be used as justification for quantitative results in the cases where less empirical studies exist on a subject matter.

Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey design for the quantitative aspect and the phenomenology design for the qualitative aspect of the study. The descriptive survey design normally involves the gathering of data to test the various research questions and hypotheses of relationship among variables (Gay, 2008). This design was chosen because it provides a clear definition of the problems to be addressed or the questions to be answered. The descriptive survey design was good for the study because the scope of the study entailed the colleges from two different regions and involved basic schools from seven different Metropolitans/Municipalities/ Districts (MMDAs) which required a

design that could accommodate the expanded scope. The descriptive survey design allows for field survey to be conducted on a wider coverage to gather data necessary for the analysis of the study (Gay, 2008).

To minimise the shortfalls of possible biases in the design, time was taken in the construction of the instruments and was also pre-tested and updated. The phenomenology design allowed the stakeholders (Vice Principals and Teaching Practice Coordinators) to share their lives' experience. The stakeholders where individuals who have been involved in student mentoring process for at last five years; and could give their lives' experiences during data collection.

The Study Area

The study area for this research work is the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. The colleges of education in Ghana have been categorised into five zones of which Central-Western Zone is one. It originally consisted of two administrative regions in Ghana (Central Region and Western Region). However, with the creation of the new Western North Region in the year 2019, the zone is now made up of three administrative regions, namely, Central, Western and Western North regions. However, for the purposes of this study, the researcher maintained the institutional classification of the three regions as Central-Western Zone. The zone comprised seven colleges of education with two female single sex colleges (OLA and Holy Child Colleges of Education) and five mixed colleges (Komenda, Foso, Enchi, Wiawso and Bia Lamplighter Colleges of Education).

The distribution of the colleges of education per region is as follows: Central region - three colleges and Western Region - four colleges. These

colleges are spread across seven metropolitans, municipals and districts (MMDA). The Komenda College is in the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipality; OLA College is in the Cape Coast Metropolis; and the Foso College is in the Assin Central Municipality, all in the Central Region. The rest are Holy Child College in the Sekond-Takoradi Metropolis; Enchi College in the Aowin and Suaman Districts; Wiawso College is in the Wiawso Municipality; and Bia Lamplighter College is in the Bia West District, all in the Western Region.

Profile of the Komenda College of Education

The Komenda College of Education was established on the premises of a British Navy barracks in Komenda along the sea. The barracks was situated on the Assai Hills part of the town. In 1947, The legacy was leased to the Methodist Church of Ghana through the efforts of one Mr. A. B. Sam and later used to establish a Methodist Teacher Training College and now a College of Education. The first principal of the college was Mr. Lawrence Alfred Creedy, a British national. The motto of the College is "Bepowso Kuro Hyeren", meaning "a city on a hill, shines forth". Methodist Hymnal Book (MHB) number 577 is the college's anthem. The three core values adopted by the founding fathers were; Academic Excellence; Service to God; Service to Mankind. The college has offered many programmes since its establishment, the last one being 4-Year Degree in Basic Education.

Profile of the Foso College of Education

Under the headship of the late Mr. R. R. Essah, the First Republican Administration of Dr Kwame Nkrumah on 15th of November, 1957 established the Foso College of Education (FOSCO) as a co-educational

teacher training college. In its 56 years of existence, FOSCO has had the opportunity of piloting every major pre-tertiary and now quasi-tertiary teacher training programmes in Ghana, ranging from 2-Year Post-Middle Cert 'B to the 4-Year degree in Basic Education, which is currently being run. Under the tutelage of the University of Cape Coast, FOSCO has been running diploma in basic education programmes since 2005. In addition, bachelor's degree programmes have been introduced since September, 2018, and has been granted a certificate of recognition and accreditation, accordingly. In line with its motto: "Character, Wisdom and Knowledge", the College has a vision which drives to work toward becoming a centre of intellectual brilliance, academic excellence and professional competence for training quality teachers.

The college is situated on a land area of one square kilometer off the Cape Coast - Kumasi highway, at the southern outskirt of Assin Foso Township. FOSCO is, therefore, centrally positioned between four major universities: University of Cape Coast (1-hour drive), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi (3 hours' drive), University of Education, Winneba (2 hours' drive) and the University of Ghana, Legon (3 hours' drive). This situation offers opportunities for research, exchange of ideas, experiences and other forms of collaborations with these institutions of higher learning, thereby creating conducive environment for exploring knowledge.

Profile of the Wiawso College of Education

The Wiawso College of Education, formerly Wiawso Body Corporate Training College, traces its root to Kumasi (Ashanti Region). The College was formally opened with 29 pioneer male students, 3 tutors and a Clerk on

February 13, 1952. In September 1964, the then Minister of Education directed that the college, then known as the Wiawso Training College be moved to its completed permanent buildings at Sefwi Wiawso. According to the Minister, the re-located Wiawso Training College, was to continue to be under the management of the Anglican Church but under a new board of Governor based at Wiawso. The first batch of 32 female students was admitted in September 1974.

Beginning 2004/2005 academic year, the college offered a three-year Diploma in Basic Education programme with emphasis on Science, Mathematics and Technical Education. The Wiawso College of Education is a mixed boarding institution, firmly rooted in its motto: "*Cordi Manuiet Capiti"*, a Latin Phrase which means, "with heart, hands and head". The fundamental aim of the college, therefore, has always been the production of intelligent and dynamic teachers with high moral values.

Profile of the Enchi College of Education

The Enchi College of Education was established by the government of Ghana in November 1965, as a male institution to run a 4-Year Post-Middle Teacher's Certificate 'A' programme. It became co-educational institution in 1975, and was later converted into a Three-Year Post-Secondary Teacher Training College in 1988. In 2004, the college started the three-year Diploma in Basic Education and was granted an institutional accreditation to tertiary status by the National Accreditation Board in 2007. At the beginning of the 2018-2019 academic year, the Enchi College of Education started the Bachelor of Education (JHS Education) programme, specialising in French, English and Ghanaian Language, Social Studies, History, Religious and Moral

Education and Geography. The College has trained 15,090 teachers; most of whom are currently occupying very enviable positions in the country; educationists, politicians, clergymen and lawyers, industrialists and among others.

Population

According to Majid (2018), population of a study includes all subjects that are under consideration in research. The population of the study comprised all mentors, mentees, link tutors, lead mentors (heads of the basic schools) as well as the vice principals and the teaching practice coordinators of the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone Colleges of Education in Ghana. The zone is made up of seven colleges of education, namely Komenda, Foso, Enchi, Wiawso, Bia, Holy Child and OLA colleges. The last two colleges were single-sex female colleges while the other five were mixed sexes colleges. The study, however, was limited to the 4 mixed colleges of education in the study area, with a target population of 2,911 comprising 1682 mentees, 893 mentors, 210 lead mentors, 4 vice principal, 4 teaching practice coordinators and 118 link tutors as shown in Tables 2.

Table 2: The Population Distribution of the Target Population

	Mentees			Mentors								
College	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**LM**	**LT**	**VP**	**TPC**	**Total**	**Grand Total**
Enchi	221	199	**420**	152	95	**247**	46	24	1	1	**72**	**739**
Foso	252	179	**431**	121	78	**199**	45	38	1	1	**85**	**715**
Wiawso	250	130	**380**	156	81	**237**	86	36	1	1	**124**	**741**
Komenda	263	188	**451**	134	76	**210**	33	20	1	1	**55**	**716**
Total	**986**	**695**	**1682**	**563**	**330**	**893**	**210**	**118**	**4**	**4**	**336**	**2911**

Key: LM (Lead Mentor), LT (Link Tutor), VP (Vice Principal and TPC (Teaching Practice Coordinator)

Source: Registry of Colleges of Education (2019)

The study focused on the mixed colleges of education (Komenda, Foso, Enchi and Wiawso colleges) to examine the experiences of both male and female mentees in the same college. The single sex colleges were excluded because their experiences could be similar to those in the mixed colleges. That is, the two single-sex schools were all females and, therefore could biased in the sample towards females and make the comparison across gender less effective. Besides, since students mostly serve in their catchment areas, the use of mixed schools allowed males and female mentees to be assessed, as they serve in the same environment. The Bia College, although a mixed college, was excluded from the study because it was a new private college which had just been absorbed by the government. Therefore, the college might have less experience in student mentoring as compared to the above-mentioned colleges.

In the case of the student-teachers, the scope was limited to students in their final year of the designated colleges of education. This was because per the structure of the Diploma in Basic Education Curriculum in the colleges of education, it is only the third-year students that are required to go for the one-year out programme which requires them to work under mentors. The link tutors are teachers of the colleges who are, usually assigned to group of final year students on the out programme to serve as a link between the schools of attachment and the college. They normally play a supervisory role and usually

have first-hand information before it gets to the college authorities, for that reason their inclusion in this study was very paramount.

The heads of the schools of attachment (basic schools) usually referred to as 'Lead Mentors' play supervisory role over all the mentors in their respective schools whereas the Vice Principals as key members of the college management play direct supervisory role over the staff (teaching and non-teaching), students and all college activities, including teaching and learning which forms a key part of the mentorship programme. The study thus tapped into the rich experiences of these individuals, hence, their inclusion in the study. Finally, the addition of the teaching practice coordinators of the colleges of education was very critical because they organise and coordinate all teaching practice activities both internally and externally in their respective colleges and thus have an in-depth knowledge of the final year out programme.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

With the research approach adopted, probability and nonprobability sampling techniques were used to select student-teachers, mentors, lead mentors, link tutors, vice principals and teaching practice coordinators who constituted the respondents of the study. The final year students' (mentees') population of the four colleges stood at 1682 students, comprising Enchi (420), Foso (431), Wiawso (380) and Komenda (451) students. In determining a representative sample size from the four colleges, the Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size determination formula was employed and applied to each college of education. The formula is given as:

$s = X^2 NP (1-P) \div [d^2(N-1) + X^2P (1-P)]$

s = required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841)

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

After computations, the sample size obtained for the respective colleges was as follows: Enchi (201), Foso (205), Wiawso, (191) and Komenda (210). However, the sample size of the first two highest populated colleges (Komenda and Foso) were increased by 2 and 1 respectively to have their sample sizes as 212 and 206 mentees to get a round figure or an even number of 810 as final total sample size of the mentees. Since each mentor is allowed a maximum of two mentees and with the mentee sample size of 810, the mentors' sample size translated to 405 mentors for the study. The target population of lead mentors and link tutors stood at 210 and 118 respectively. Hence, given the Krejcier and Morgan (1970) sample size determination formula, the sample size for the lead mentors and link tutors stood at 136 and 92 in that order.

To enhance representatives, the multi-stage sampling technique was adopted, including stratified, proportionate, purposive and simple random sampling techniques. First, the Western-Central zone was purposively sampled as one of the five clusters of colleges in Ghana. The zone was purposively

sampled as a cluster of colleges due to the fair distribution of colleges that cover the coastal and forest zones of Southern Ghana.

First, stratification was gender-based, male and female in the respective colleges. Second, the proportionate sampling technique was then used to determine the proportion of male and female respondents within each college under study. The proportionate sampling technique is given by:

$$P=\frac{male/female\ mentees\ within\ each\ college\ \ under\ study}{total\ number\ of\ mentees\ in\ each\ college} \times \text{sample size}$$

After applying the formula in the respective colleges, the number of male and female mentees generated for each college were, Enchi (male=106 and female=95), Foso (male=121 and female=85), Wiawso (male=126 and female =65) and Komenda (male=124 and female=88). This same process was repeated for the mentors to determine the male and female components of the mentor sample obtained for the study. With respect to the qualitative dimension of the study, the purposive sampling technique was adopted in selecting participants to respond to the instruments (interviews). Two participants were selected from each college comprising one Vice Principal and one Teaching Practice Coordinator. So, the respondents earmarked for the interview stood at 8 participants.

Table 3 provides the breakdown of the sample distribution of the categories of respondents who filled questionnaire and were also interviewed for quantitative and qualitative data relative to their roles in the mentorship programme. Together, a total of 1,443 respondents answered the structured questionnaires and 8 respondents were interviewed. The total sample size for the study stood at 1451, comprising 1443 (mentees, mentors, link tutors and

lead mentors), 4 vice principals and 4 teaching practice coordinators from the selected colleges of education.

The total sample size of 1451 implies that 49.845% (1451/2911) of the total study population were involved in the data collection. The percentage was considered enough for the analysis because representativeness of a sample does not only depend on the sample size, but also the variation in the selected respondents (Van Hoeven, Janssen, Roes, & Koffijberg, 2015). Van Hoeven et al. stressed that, maximum variation in a sample is the first indices of representativeness of a sample. According to the Education Development Center (2018), "An ideal representative sample is one that is similar to the population from which it is drawn in every conceivable way, especially in characteristics that are pertinent to the study" (p.2). Ramsey and Hewitt (2005) indicated that, representativeness as statistical concept is undefined and must be put into context of the study.

According to Ramsey and Hewitt (2005), "Assessing representativeness can only be accomplished in the context of the question that data are supposed to address. In the simplest terms, if the data can answer the question, it is representative" (p. 71). The sample distribution of this study ensured representativeness of males and females by using the proportional stratified and random sampling techniques, used four different colleges spread across the zone, and the respondents from both the colleges and their schools of attachment in two regions. Also, almost all the stakeholders that matter for the smooth running of the student-teacher mentoring process were included in the sample. That is, mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals were all considered to ensure varied

views were obtained on all the issues. The use of about half of the study population as sample and the inclusion of almost all the stakeholders that matter to the mentoring process ensured representativeness of the sample used for the study was relatively upheld.

Table 3: The Sampling Distribution of the Respondents

	Mentees			Mentors								
College	Male	Female	**Total**	Male	Female	**Total**	LM	LT	VP	TPC	**Total**	**Grand Total**
Enchi	106	95	**201**	62	38	**100**	30	19	1	1	**51**	**352**
Foso	121	85	**206**	63	40	**103**	29	30	1	1	**61**	**370**
Wiawso	126	65	**191**	63	33	**96**	56	28	1	1	**86**	**374**
Komenda	124	88	**212**	68	38	**106**	21	15	1	1	**38**	**355**
Total	**477**	**333**	**810**	**256**	**149**	**405**	**136**	**92**	**4**	**4**	**236**	**1451**

Key: LM (Lead Mentor), LT (Link Tutor), VP (Vice Principal and TPC (Teaching Practice Coordinator)

Source: Field Survey (2019)

The actual selection of the respondents was done in two stages. In the first stage, the sampling frame of all the schools of attachment was obtained from the Teaching Practice Unit of the colleges and zoned them into rural and urban areas for each college. The categorisation of the settlements as rural or urban, was done in line with the distinction adopted from the National Geographic categorisation. Ghana Statistical Service (2014) defined a rural area as a town/community with a population less than 5,000, and all other areas above 5000 are considered urban. To avoid doubt on what is rural or urban, the schools of attachment in the immediate environment of the district or municipal capital, the town in which the college was located and the major town of each traditional area within the district or municipal areas were purposively sampled as urban. Evidence gathered from the Teaching Practice Unit of the colleges suggested that, more mentees were conveniently posted to rural areas since most of the communities in the catchment areas of the colleges were rural communities.

The 210 schools of attachments that corresponded to the number of lead mentors were demarcated into 53 urban and 157 rural schools. The rural to urban ratio was estimated to be 3 to 1 respectively. This proportion was used to sample 75% of the schools of attachment from rural areas and 25% from the urban areas. The inclusion and exclusion criteria for a school of attachment was that the school must have at least 4 mentees present at the time of data collection. Hence, in the second stage, a minimum of 4 mentees and a maximum of 8 mentees were selected from any single school of attachment. The selection of more than 8 mentees was dependent on whether the school was attached (Primary and JHS) or a primary school with double-stream under

single head teacher. A total of 136 schools of attachment with 34 from the urban areas and 102 from the rural areas were selected. Since the mentee population was not evenly distributed across the schools of attachment, the final sample comprised 280 mentees from the urban area representing 35% and 530 mentees from the rural areas, representing 65% of the total mentee sample involved in the study.

The reason for the over-sampling of respondents in the urban areas could be explained that, most of the schools in the urban areas were attached or double steams. The mentor distribution was 28% (113 mentors) for urban areas and 72% (292 mentors) for the rural areas. The difference in the mentor-mentee ratio was due to the fact that, the idea of paired mentoring was not observed in some schools of attachment, especially where the mentees were few. Gender distribution was maintained at 60% for males and 40% females as estimated from the initial sample. Except in extreme case, where the mentor was indisposed at the time of data collection, the sample ensured that the mentors of the selected mentees were traced to fill the mentors' questionnaire. The selection of final units of analysis was done with the systematic random sampling technique, using the mentee population in the respective schools of attachment at the time of data collection, based on the mentees' distribution.

The lead mentors of all the selected schools of attachment were included in the sample, and this explains the sample of 136. The link tutors were sampled from the colleges to avoid multiple selection or any tutor filling more than a single questionnaire since they visited more than one school of attachment in the sample.

Research Instruments

The instruments used to collect data for the study were both questionnaire and structured interviews. According to Sarantakos (2005), the questionnaire instrument has become the furthermost survey tool among social scientists. The questionnaires were administered to the mentors, mentees, Lead mentors and link tutors. Based on the position and level of involvement in the mentoring process, individual groups were made to fill different questionnaires. Structured questionnaires were given to respondents to fill mainly for the quantitative analysis because the variables were put on an interval scale by calibrating questionnaires on the rating scale.

Questionnaire

The questionnaires for the mentors and mentees requested them to offer information in seven areas or sections. Section I which was made up of 7 items for the mentors, and 5 items for the mentees sought to collect demographic data of respondents. It touched on issues, such as gender, age, location, level of professional and academic qualifications and programme of study. Section II was dedicated to the competencies level of mentors in performing their roles in the mentoring programme. In this section, there were 33 items for the mentors and 32 items for mentees. Section III centred on the sources of conflicts among the actors particularly, between the mentees and the mentors in the mentoring programme. The section contained 22 items for the mentors and 24 items for the mentees. Section IV solicited information on cost element of the mentoring programme to the mentors and the mentees and how it affected the smooth implementation of the programme. The items in this section for the mentors and the mentees were 19 and 17 respectively.

Section V looked at the benefits of the mentoring programme to the mentors and the mentees, specifically in their professional training and was made up of 10 and 8 questions for the mentors and mentees respectively. Section VI touched on mentoring relationship between mentors and mentees. That is, how the mentors related to their mentees and vice-versa. In this section of the questionnaire, the mentors responded to 18 items and mentees were made to respond to 12 items. The section VII of mentors and mentees questionnaires sought to investigate the perception of mentors and mentees about mentoring programme with respect to successes and the challenges of the programme. The items in this section were 17 for the mentors and 16 for the mentees.

The survey instrument for the lead mentors and link tutors had four sections, namely demographic data, general information, perception and major challenges. Under the general information were sub-sections, such as mentoring relationship, benefits of mentoring, sources of conflict, cost implication of mentoring and competencies level of mentors. The section I which constituted the demographic data was made up of 13 items for the lead mentors and 14 items for the link tutors. The section II of lead mentors and link tutors' questionnaire consisted of 71 and 51 items for mentors and mentees respectively. The section III which bordered on the perceptions comprised 17 items for both the lead mentors and the link tutors.

Panneerselvam, Hermansen and Halberg (2010) posited that, the effectiveness of the survey method depends on the strength of instrument used. The following were identified as some of the strengths of questionnaire as a survey instrument: It offers a quick way to get responses from respondents

and can be accomplished at the respondents' convenience; it allows for wider respondents to be reached in a practical time when the geographical scope as it was in the case of this study; and reaching a larger respondents allow rigorous statistical testing and for generalisation to be done since the central limit theorem is achieved; the anonymity of the respondents is also assured and provides room to collect data on a larger scale; it has standardised answers that make it simple to compile data; structured questionnaire data can be processed by software packages such as STATA; and it does not require as much effort from the questioner as verbal or telephone surveys.

The questionnaire has its own limitations. Such limitations include the fact that a questionnaire does not give room for probing. Also, it does not lend itself for prompting and clarification of questions. It can be difficult to design questionnaire to minimise its effect, data processing and analysis for large samples can be time consuming, it can be difficult motivating potential respondents to complete it and questions can be interpreted differently by respondents.

The Structured Interview Guide

The structured interview guide was used to solicit additional data from the vice principals and the teaching practice coordinators of the colleges involved in the study to support and complement quantitative data for better understanding. The interview guide was made up of 7 sections, including the background information, competencies levels of mentors, sources of conflicts, the cost elements of the programme, benefits of the programme and other issues. It consisted of 23 items. Interviews have the strengths of allowing for probing and in-depth analysis of the subject matter under consideration, but

the outcome can hardly be generalised to the population. In this study, interview responses were mainly used to augment the quantitative analysis to gain insight into topical issues that the questionnaire did not allow me to assess. The outcome of the two data collection instruments was therefore triangulated to improve the rigour of the analysis.

Training of Field Assistants

Five research assistants were employed to help the researcher in the data collection. These individuals were taken through three days training session from 6th July - 8th July, 2019. The training bothered on distribution and retrieval of questionnaires, scrutinising of questionnaires filled, establishing rapport with respondents and interviewing techniques. The training process involved mock interviews among participants and testing of questionnaires on selected mentees, mentors, principals, teaching practice coordinators and link tutors of the Oda Methodist College of Education.

Pre-Test of Instrument

The questionnaires were pre-tested at the Akrokerri College of Education in the Ashanti Region. This was to ensure that all minor mistakes or challenges with the instruments were addressed for valid responses to be obtained from respondents. Some potential problems such as misunderstanding of some items, the respondents' suspicion of the purpose of the study and the need to include and exclude certain questions were identified and the necessary corrections were made before final administration of instruments.

Validity and Reliability Test of Instrument

Validity and reliability of research instruments are of great concern in research. According to Messick (1989), validity refers to the degree to which empirical evidences and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of interpretations and actions based on test scores". There are several aspects of validity ranging from internal, external, construct, content, and statistical validity among other equally important validity issues. The normal practice in research is to target the issue of validity piece meal through the study. In this study, the decision to achieve validity began from the selection and development of questions on the test items. Items on the questionnaire were carefully selected based on the previous studies, and in line with the objectives to ensure the questions were relevant to the issues under consideration.

Closely related to validity of test item, is the level of reliability of the item. A test item is said to be reliable when it can be used by different researchers under stable conditions, with consistent results and the results not varying (Neuman, 2003). Reliability bothers on the ability of a research instrument to reduce measurement errors in order to achieve consistency and replicability of the item over time (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Messick (1989) proposed a unified concept of validity which includes reliability as one of the types of validity; thus, contributing to the overall construct validity of a research item.

To improve the reliability of the research instruments, the Cronbach alpha was used to test the outcome of the pre-tested research instruments after which, questions found to fall short of internal validity were redesigned to

improve the final outcome on reliability. According to Namdeo and Rout (2016), to measure internal consistency of test items, the Cronbach's alpha (α) which is easy to calculate has a direct interpretation and it is less time consuming. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1 such that, closer values to 1.0 indicates greater internal consistency of the items on the scale. Namdeo and Rout (2016) provided the rule of thumb which states that, if the value of alpha is greater than 0.9 then the consistency is classified as Excellent, between 0.8 and 0.9 is Very Good, between 0.7 and 0.8 is Good, between 0.6 and 0.7 is Acceptable, between 0.5 and 0.6 is Questionable and less than 0.5 is Unacceptable. The reliability test covers three main areas and they are consistency over time (test-retest reliability), consistency across items (internal consistency), and consistency across different researchers (inter-rater reliability). Test-retest reliability deals with the ability of the test item to produce similar results at different point in time. Internal consistency measures the consistency of the respondents' responses across the items on a multiple-item measure. In general, all the items on multiple-item measures are supposed to reflect the same underlying construct.

As a result, scores on those items should correlate with each other. Inter-rater reliability is the extent to which different observers are consistent in their judgments (Petty, Briñol, Loersch, & McCaslin, 2009). Table 4 presents the reliability test of the respective sections of the questionnaire based on the Cronbach's alpha test.

Table 4: Reliability Test

Item	Test Statistics		Decision
Competence level of mentor	Average inter-item correlation:	0.2627	Very good
	Number of items in the scale:	16	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.8507	
Conflict situation from mentors' point of view	Average inter-item correlation:	0.3895	Excellent
	Number of items in the scale:	19	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.9238	
Cost implication of mentoring	Average inter-item correlation:	0.2393	Good
	Number of items in the scale:	12	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.7906	
Benefits of the mentoring programme	Average inter-item correlation:	0.3110	Very good
	Number of items in the scale:	16	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.8784	
Mentor and mentee relationship	Average inter-item correlation:	0.1830	Good
	Number of items in the scale:	12	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.7288	
Perception about mentoring and major challenges	Average inter-item correlation:	0.1991	Good
	Number of items in the scale:	10	
	Scale reliability coefficient:	0.713	

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Data Collection Procedure

Upon the receipt of an approval letter from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), University of Cape Coast, an introductory letter was secured from the Department of Sociology and Anthropology by researcher, and then set out for data collection. In each college, the researcher's first point of call was the Teaching Practice Coordinator who then introduced the researcher and members of the team (the field assistants) to either the principal, or the vice principal depending on which of them was available. The opportunity was also used to explain the purpose of the study to them, and also solicit for their support. In all the four colleges, the teaching practice coordinators furnished the researcher with the list and names of schools of attachment as well as the communities where these schools were located, after he asked for. Aside that, the list of students (mentees) attached to the specific schools were made available to the principal investigator. Permission was also sought from the

various Municipal and District directorates of education whose jurisdictions these colleges and more importantly, the schools of attachment operate. With the blessings and approval of the college authorities and the district directorates, the principal investigator and the five research assistants then visited various schools of attachments for the administration of the questionnaires.

At the schools of attachment, the principal investigator and the team met the heads of the schools or in his or her absence the next in command was contacted for introduction of the team and permission sought for onward administration of the questionnaires to the targeted respondents. The questionnaires were personally delivered to mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the link tutors. A maximum of four weeks was used for the administration of questionnaires in the four colleges of education selected for the study. This amounted to spending, on the average, one week in each college, namely Komenda of Education, Foso of Education, Waiwso of Education and the Enchi colleges of education.

The interviews of the college vice principals and the teaching practice coordinators were conducted after the administration of the questionnaires. This provided the opportunity for the inclusion of relevant issues that were not adequately covered by the questionnaires in the interview guide. Due to the novel corona virus (COVID19) pandemic and its associated challenges, the interviews were conducted online through phone calls. This was after interviewees or the participants had given the researcher their consent upon the researcher's explanation of the situation and humble request.

Response Rate

One of the most significant issues in any survey is the level of response rate which determines the respondents' participation level. In this study, a total of 1,443 questionnaires were supposed to have been administered to mentees, mentors, lead mentors and link tutors. However, the researcher added 5% of each questionnaire during the data collection (Mentees=41, Mentors=21, Lead Mentors=7 and Link Tutors=5) to make up for spoilt or incomplete questionnaires. Hence, a total of 1517 questionnaires were administered and 1494 questionnaires were retrieved, representing 98.48% response rate. The valid questionnaires from the buffer of 5% were used to replace incomplete and spoilt questionnaires to ensure that the composition and expected total sample of 1,443, including 810 mentees, 405 mentors, 136 lead mentors and 92 link tutors in the four colleges and the various selected schools of attachment in Komenda, Foso, Wiawso and Enchi enclaves were achieved and used for the analysis of the study.

This success rate was achieved as a result of personal administration of the instruments and the decision to add 5% of each questionnaire to serve as a buffer. The educational level of the respondents and the fact that the content of the questionnaires was less sensitive, resulted in very few incomplete questionnaires and an extremely high recovery rate. Again, during the data collection exercise, the researcher and the administration research assistants ensured that the instruments were filled in their presence and guidance was offered where necessary. A filled questionnaire was properly scrutinised upon collection and where there were omissions or mistakes, the respondent's attention was drawn to it for the correct thing to be done. Besides, access to

the lead mentors, mentors and mentees who constituted 97.65% of the sample population was without much difficulty since all of them were in the same school environment. Again, the researcher was able to have access to all the teaching practice coordinators and the vice principals targeted for the interviews including 4 teaching practice coordinators and 4 vice principals.

Fieldwork and its Related Challenges

The administration of the instruments (questionnaires) was met with challenges. Noticeable among them, was the dispersed locations of the study institutions. The long-distance travels across the regions were, indeed tiresome. Another challenge was that, apart from the colleges being wider apart, the schools of attachment in the colleges were equally scattered. The researcher and his assistants had to move from school to school, and community to community, to be able to accomplish the data collection exercise. In addition, the frequency of rains in the Western Region posed a big challenge to the team during the administration of the instruments. The researcher and the team had to overcome this obstacle through the use of umbrellas and rain coats.

Data Processing and Analysis

The quantitative data for the analysis was presented in the form of tables and charts. The responses from the questionnaires were edited, coded and entered into Excel spread sheet, and eventually transported into STATA and SPSS, for data management and analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed for the data processing and analysis. Descriptive statistics such as central tendencies and measures of dispersions were used for the summary statistics. The central tendencies or measures of locations used

included frequencies, percentages, median rating and the inter-quartile range. The median was used as the preferred average over the mean since the data from the rating scale of the questionnaires were more of interval variables than ratio variables.

Besides, for not being a purely continuous variable, the normality of the distribution was not guaranteed, and hence the need to adopt distribution free averages and inferential statistics. In line with the adoption of distribution free statistics, non-parametric tests, such as median test and chi-square test of dependency were adopted where appropriate. The quantitative responses of the mentor, mentees, lead mentors and linked tutors from the questionnaires were compared using both parametric and non-parametric approaches where appropriate. Parametric test such as two-way ANOVA and predictive margins were used in the analysis of financial cost where the cost items were in cedis. Comparisons of views were done across gender and location. The STATA statistical package and SPSS were used for data management and processing. The qualitative responses were analysed through the data reduction method and thematic content analysis of the core issues that emerged in the interview responses.

The first research question sought to discuss stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process. The analysis of this theme was done with quantitative and qualitative approaches. Common items were presented to the four stakeholders to rate them from Strongly Disagree (1) through to strongly Agree (5) on a Likert scale. These produced variables that were on the ordinal scale for which the median was the best descriptive statistics. The posthoc pair wise comparison test was also conducted on items for which significant

difference was confirmed at the 5% significance level. However, the thematic content analysis was used for the analysis of the in-depth interview bothering on the actors' perception about the mentoring process.

The second research question sought to examine the perceived competencies of mentors who mentor student-teachers of the colleges of education at the schools of attachment. This research question was addressed through the mixed method approach by adopting both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Frequencies and percentages based on responses from the questionnaires were used to access the competencies levels of the mentors while the mode of selection of the mentors was collaborated by the qualitative response of the teaching practice coordinators and the vice principals during the phone interviews.

The third research question examined the cost elements of the mentorship programme to the main actors of the mentoring process, namely the mentees and mentors. The cost element, measured in cedis, qualified as ratio variable for which parametric test was possible. Since the cost element could differ across the selected responses, the analysis was first done at the group level, using frequency counts and percentages, before being subjected to comparison based on gender and location. The two-way ANOVA and the predictive margin means were used to further examine the role of gender and location on cost distribution of mentees. The underlying model for the two-way ANOVA on cost was specified as:

$$\cos t_i = \alpha + \beta_1 Location_i + \beta_2 Gender_i + \beta_3 Location_i \times Gender_i + e_i \quad .....(1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \cos t_i}{\partial Gender_i} = \beta_1 + \beta_3 Location_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \cos t_i}{\partial location_i} = \beta_2 + \beta_3 Gender_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3)$$

where α was the intercept and β_1, β_2 and β_3 were the marginal effects or slope coefficient estimated in the ANOVA type cross-sectional regression and *e* is the error term. The predictive margins mean was used for the moderating effects of the interaction of location and gender.

The fourth research question analysed the sources of conflicts in the mentorship process between mentors and mentees in the mentoring process. The mixed method strategy was adopted for the analysis. Frequency counts and percentages were used for the quantitative analysis, while the qualitative responses were analysed with thematic content analysis.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical consideration cannot be under estimated in research, and this study is no exception (Kaewkungwal & Adams, 2019). Fouka and Mantzorou (2011) identified the major ethical issues in research as informed consent, beneficence (do not harm), respect for anonymity and confidentiality and respect for privacy. The researcher made all efforts to uphold all the aforementioned ethics and those prescribed by the IRB, University of Cape Coast. That is, the entire study was subjected to vigorous scrutiny by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Cape Coast.

Again, prior to the administration of the questionnaire, and the conduct of the phone interviews, sufficient information, with respect to the purpose and objectives of the study were clearly explained to respondents and key informants. The researcher also ensured that, research ethics, such as informed consent,

anonymity and confidentiality, avoidance of deceptive practices, provision of the right to participate and withdraw, honesty and integrity were fully complied with. All the respondents were above 18 years which by the Constitution of Ghana, have the ability to consent to being part of the study. The questions asked were also evaluated to ensure that they did not pose any physical, emotional or psychological threat to the respondents.

Another area of ethical consideration was the use of other scholarly work and reporting of results. The study ensured that every online or offline material used was duly referenced or acknowledged. Data obtained was carefully protected and results were presented in all honesty. This was to strive hard to achieve high scores on the scale of value free research (Saunders, 2015).

Chapter Summary

The study area was the Central-Western Zone and the colleges involved were Komenda, Foso, Wiawso and Enchi colleges of education. The research philosophy and approach that looked at the underlying principles behind social research were discussed. The chapter also looked at the sources from which data were obtained for the study. The target population as well as sample and sampling techniques and procedures were discussed in detail in this chapter. The chapter also touched on the types of survey instruments employed for data collection for the study, training of research assistants for the field work and the conduct of the field-work. The issue of validity and reliability were adequately discussed in this chapter. Besides, the chapter discussed how data management was carried out. It touched on the methods adopted for the data analysis. Finally, the issues of ethical consideration,

response rate and the challenges encountered by the researcher during the field-work were also captured in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS AND STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MENTORING

Introduction

This chapter consist of is two sections. The first aspect dealt with the analysis of the demographic characteristics of respondents. The data were presented in the form of frequencies and percentages. The second section on the other hand sought to examining stakeholders' (mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals) perception of the mentorship programme. Both quantitative and qualitative data were taken and processed for the analysis.

Demographic Analysis of Respondents

This section is devoted to the analysis of demographic data of the respondents. It covered issues, such as location, gender and age of respondents which cut across all the categories of respondents. Again, it dealt with the highest level of qualification which was specifically for mentors, lead mentors and link tutors. The section also captured issues such as the gender of the mentees' mentor and period of time mentees had spent with their mentors.

The study sought to find out from respondents whether or not they considered their area of residence as an urban or rural community. The results suggested that out of 405 mentors involved in the study,114 (28.1%) revealed that their community of residence was an urban community with the remaining 291 (71.9%) considering their place of residence as rural. From the

mentees point of view, 280 (34.6%) described the location of their residence as urban and the remaining 530 (65.4%) held the view that the location of their residence was rural. On the part of lead mentors, 32 (23.5%) and 104 (76.5%) said that the location of their residence was urban and rural respectively. Finally, 68 (73.9%) of the link tutors went for urban with 24 (26.1%) of them opting for rural. It could also be observed that while more than 70% of link tutors resided in an urban community, more than 65% of mentees, 70% of both mentors and lead mentors resided in rural communities. This is probably because a majority of the schools of attachment where these respondents (mentors, lead mentors and mentees) worked and possibly resided were scattered in rural communities in the catchment areas of the colleges of education. However, with the exception of one college, the remaining three colleges involved in the study were located in either the district or municipal capital which explains why a majority of link tutors residing in urban communities.

On the issue of gender of the respondents, collectively 58.9% of respondents were males while the females constituted the remaining 41.1%. Specifically, 255 (62.96%) and 147 (36.29%) of the mentors were males and females respectively. The male mentees were made up of 475 (58.6%) of the mentee population sampled while the females constituted 327 (40.37%) of the mentee total respondents. The male lead mentors constituted 82 (60.3%) of the lead mentors' total sample with 54 (39.7%) females. Also, 60 (65.2%) of the total sample for the link tutors were males with the remaining 32 (34.8%) being females. The dominance of male in all the categories of respondents (mentors, mentees, lead mentors and link tutors) were the true representation

of the population of the institutions considered in this study. It could be observed that the male respondents dominated the mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the link tutors' population.

The survey showed that 122 (30.1%) of the mentors were between the ages of 20 -29, 207 (51.1%) between the ages of 30 -39 and the remaining 76 (18.8%) were 40 years and above. For the mentees, as many as 786 (97%) fell between the ages of 20 -29 with the rest 24 (3%) falling between 30 -39 years. With respect to the lead mentors, 16 (11.8%), 42 (30.9%) and 78 (57.3%) were between the ages of 20 - 29, 30 - 39 and 40 years and above respectively.

For the link tutors, 11 (12%) of the respondents were between the ages of 20- 29 with the rest 81 (88%) falling in the ages of 40 years and above. A careful observation of the statistics revealed that 122 (30.1%) of the mentors, 16 (11.8%) of lead mentors and 11 (12%) of link tutors found themselves in the same age bracket with their mentees or student-teachers. Nonetheless, 283 (69.9%) of mentors, 120 (88.2%) of lead mentors and 81 (88%) of link tutors were older than their mentees.

With regard to the gender of the mentees' mentor, it could be observed from the data that a majority of the mentees 511 (63.1%) had males as their mentors as compared to 299 (36.9%) of mentees whose mentors were females. It was obvious from the statistics that male mentors were almost twice the size of the female mentors. Indeed, this is a true reflection of data available in all the colleges as far as population distribution is concerned. Talking about how long mentees have spent with their mentors, the study pointed out that 268 (33.1%) of the mentees had been allocated to their mentors for a period of ten (10) months, 322 (39.8%) of them had been with their mentors for eight (8)

months while the remaining 220 (27.1%) had spent six (6) months with their respective mentors. The study showed that though all the mentees in the various colleges were dispatched to their various schools of attachment within the same week of the same month, there were differences in the time spent with their mentors at the time of data collection. This difference could be attributed to the fact that in some schools of attachment, mentees were reassigned to different mentors at the head teacher's discretion. That is, a mentee was assigned to a mentor in the lower primary or the junior high school for some period and later reassigned to say upper primary and vice versa. The rationale, according to these head teachers, was to expose these mentees to if not all some of the levels to feel the experiences there as well.

On the mentees' programmes of study, the study showed that 588 (72.6%) of the mentees offered a general programme and 89 (11%) of them offered mathematics and technical programme. Again, 92 (11.4%), 15 (1.9%) and 26 (3.2%) of the mentees offered mathematics and science, science and technical and French respectively. It is obvious from the above statistics that a majority of the student-teachers offered a general programme. This is probably because the general programme was offered by all the colleges under study while the others were offered by one college or two.

Another area the study sought for information was the proportion of the respondents on further studies. The data available showed that 20 lead mentors representing 14.7%, 86 mentors representing 21.2% and 24 link tutors which constitute 26.1% of total link tutors' sample population were on further studies. These categories of respondents were pursuing various level of degree programmes in different tertiary institutions across the county. It was

observed that most of these programmes were on either distance or sandwich with very few of them, especially those pursuing second degree being on regular programme.

The study also sought for information on the years of experience of the participating head teachers in the study. The results indicated that 73 (53.7%) of the head teachers had been head teachers for 5 years or less with 39 (28.7%) falling between 6 -10 years' headship experience category. In addition, 12 (8.8%), 8 (5.9%) and 4 (2.9%) of the head teachers involved in the study had been head teachers between 11 -15 years, 16 - 20 years and 21 years and above respectively.

It was also observed that 4 (4.3%) of the link tutors had between 1 - 5 mentees under them. Again, 20 (21.7%) and 44 (47.8%) of the tutors said they had between 6 - 10, and 11-15 mentees under their supervision in that order. Finally, 12 (13%) of the tutors had between 16 -20 student-teachers while the remaining 12 (13%) of the tutors reported that they were taking care of 21 and above mentees.

It was also revealed that 394 (97.28%) of the total sampled mentors possessed professional certificates in teaching. However, the remaining mentors who constituted 3% indicated that they had not had professional certificates in teaching. This implies that though an overwhelming majority of the mentors held professional certificate in teaching, there were still few of them who had not attained any professional certificate in teaching.

Stakeholders' Perception of Student Teachers' Mentoring Process in the Central-Western Zone Colleges of Education in Ghana

The above theme sought to solicit responses to the issue relating to the perception of mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals of the colleges of education about the mentoring process.

Table 5 presents the median rating of the mentors, mentees, lead mentor and link tutor and the results of the independent sample median test. The results suggested that, on the average, the mentors and lead mentors disagreed (median=2) while the mentees moderately agreed, and the link tutors agreed to the statement that the duration of the mentoring period was too long. The median test confirmed the existence of statistically significant differences among the views of the respondents, including mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the link tutors (statistics=210.546, df=3, sig.=0.000<0.05).

Table 5: Respondents' Perception of the Mentoring Process

	Median Rating				Independent-Samples Median Test		
STATEMENT	**MT**	**ST**	**LM**	**LT**	**Test Statistic (T)**	**Df**	**Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)**
I think that the duration of the mentoring programme is too long	2	3	2	4	210.546	3	0.000
I think the mentoring programme is important for both the mentees and the mentors.	5	5	4	4	6.048	3	0.109
It was worth my time and effort in taking part of this mentoring programme.	4	5	4	4	39.414	3	0.011
I think the mentoring programme reduces the content knowledge of the student teachers in their respective colleges due to the time spent outside the college.	2	3	2	4	158.117	3	0.000
I think the mentoring programme should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges of education to allow for more content studies.	3	4	2	4	217.214	3	0.000
The fact that mentees prepare for final exams on campus reduces their commitment to the mentoring process.	3	5	4	4	301.149	3	0.016
I wish the student-teachers are given the chance to select their own school of attachment.	2	5	2	4	336.485	3	0.000
I feel student-teachers on mentorship programme should be given special financial assistance.	4	5	2	3	496.243	3	0.000
I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised.	4	4	4	4	0.299	3	0.567

Key: Mentor = MT; Student-Teacher = ST; Lead Mentor = LM and Link Tutor = LT

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Since the independent sample median test does not indicate the source of the differences when the factor groups exceed two, the posthoc analysis was conducted to determine the source of the observed differences, and the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: The Posthoc Pairwise Comparison Test of Duration Based on the Respondents' Status

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic (T)	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Link Tutors – Mentees	121.098	44.609	2.715	.007	.040
Link Tutors – Mentors	418.544	46.828	8.938	.000	.000
Link Tutors - Lead Mentors	435.816	54.734	7.962	.000	.000
Mentees – Mentors	297.446	24.676	12.054	.000	.000
Mentees - Lead Mentors	-314.718	37.574	-8.376	.000	.000
Mentors - Lead Mentors	-17.272	40.184	-.430	.667	1.000

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The pairwise comparison pointed that, the mentors and lead mentors shared a common view by disagreeing to the statement that, the duration of the mentorship programme was too long (sig.= 0.667>0.05). A significant difference was observed between any other two groups compared which suggested that though the link tutors agreed more to the statement than the mentees, the two shared a different view from that of the mentors and the lead mentors.

The results in Table 5 again indicate that, on the average, both mentors and mentees strongly agreed (median=5), while the lead mentors and the link tutors agreed (median=4) to the statement that, the mentoring programme was important to both mentors and mentees. No statistically significant difference was observed among the median rating (statistics=6.048, df=3, sig.=0.109>0.05), which indicates a general agreement to the statement. Also, the mentors, lead mentors and the link tutors agreed (median=4), while the

mentees strongly agreed (median=5) to the statement that, it was worth their time and effort in taking part in the mentoring programme. Significant difference was observed among the median ratings of the respondents (z=39.414, df=3, p-value=0.000<0.05), and they suggested that, the mentees saw more benefits from the mentoring programme than any of the other stakeholders though they all agreed to the benefits of the programme.

Again, the mentors and lead mentors disagreed (median=2), while the mentees and link tutors agreed to the statement that the mentoring programme reduced the content knowledge of the student-teachers in their respective colleges due to the long periods of time spent outside the college for the out-programme segment. The median test upheld the statistical differences among the views of the respondents (statistic=158.117, df=3, sig. =0.000).

The posthoc analysis was conducted to determine the source of the observed difference and the results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Posthoc Analysis of Content Knowledge Based on Respondents' Status

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Link Tutors – Mentees	5.701	44.835	.127	.899	1.000
Link Tutors – Mentors	235.870	47.066	5.011	.000	.000
Link Tutors - Lead Mentors	380.489	55.011	6.917	.000	.000
Mentees – Mentors	230.169	24.801	9.281	.000	.000
Mentees - Lead Mentors	-374.788	37.764	-9.924	.000	.000
Mentors - Lead Mentors	-144.619	40.388	-3.581	.000	.002

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results in Table 7 indicate that, both the mentees and link tutors shared the same views that the length of the mentoring process significantly reduces the content knowledge of student-teachers (sig.=0.899>0.05), and therefore, their views differed from that of the mentors and the lead mentors.

Also, the mentees and the link tutors agreed to the statement that, the mentoring programme should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges to allow for more content studies, while the mentors moderately agreed, but the lead mentors disagreed to the statement. The median test found statistically significant differences among the views of the respondents (Z=217.214, df=3, p-value=0.000<0.05). The posthoc analysis was conducted to determine the source of the observed difference as presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Posthoc Analysis of Timing of Mentoring Based on Respondents' Status

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Lead Mentors – Mentors	36.302	37.600	.965	.334	1.000
Lead Mentors – Mentees	128.930	35.158	3.667	.000	.001
Lead Mentors - Link Tutors	-200.752	51.215	-3.920	.000	.001
Mentors – Mentees	-92.628	23.089	-4.012	.000	.000
Mentors - Link Tutors	-164.449	43.817	-3.753	.000	.001
Mentees - Link Tutors	-71.822	41.740	-1.721	.085	.512

Source: Field Work (2020)

The posthoc results confirmed the observation that, the views of the mentees and link tutors were similar and in agreement (Z=-1.721, p-value=0.085>0.05), while that of the mentors and the lead mentors were also similar and in disagreement (Z=0.965, p-value=0.334>0.05) in having the off-campus teaching practice, during the long vacation of the colleges of education when the basic schools were still in session.

The statement that, mentees preparation for their final exams while they were on their teaching practice reduced their commitment to the mentoring process was moderately agreed to by the mentors, but the mentees strongly agreed to the claim. The lead mentors and the link tutors also agreed to the statement. The posthoc results indicated statistically significant difference between the views of the mentors and any other group at the 5%

significance level, as presented in Table 9. The views of the lead mentors and the link tutors were also not consistence since the link tutors indicated stronger agreement to the statement.

Table 9: Posthoc Analysis of Mentees' Preparation for Exams Based on the Respondents' Status

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Mentors - Lead Mentors	-234.124	40.427	-5.791	.000	.000
Mentors – Mentees	-68.362	22.362	-3.057	.002	.013
Mentors - Link Tutors	-302.487	42.438	-7.128	.000	.000
Lead Mentors – Mentees	13.451	34.051	.395	.693	1.000
Lead Mentors - Link Tutors	-247.575	49.603	-4.991	.000	.000
Mentees - Link Tutors	-54.912	36.417	-1.508	.132	.790

Source: Field work (2020)

Also, both the mentees and the link tutors accepted the statement that an opportunity should be given to student-teachers to choose their own school of attachment, while the mentors and the lead mentors disagreed to the statement. The median test found statistically significant differences among the views of the respondents (T=336.485, df=3, p-value=0.000<0.05).

The posthoc analysis was conducted to determine the source of the observed difference as presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Posthoc Analysis on Selection of Schools of Attachment Based on the Respondents' Status

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.[a]
Mentors – Mentees	-239.952	39.772	-6.033	.000	.000
Mentors - Lead Mentors	-30.207	35.827	-.843	.399	1.000
Mentors - Link Tutors	-259.255	41.751	-6.210	.000	.000
Mentees - Lead Mentors	-10.905	33.500	-.326	.745	1.000
Mentees - Link Tutors	-19.302	22.000	-.877	.380	1.000
Lead Mentors - Link Tutors	-229.047	48.799	-4.694	.000	.000

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The posthoc test confirmed that the views of the mentors and lead mentors were identical (T=-0.843, p-value=0.399>0.05) while that of the mentees and the link tutors were also identical (T= -0.877, p-value=0.380>0.05). But a significant difference could be observed between the views of mentors and mentees (T=-6.033, p-value=0.000<0.05) and that of mentors and link tutors (T= -6.210, p-value=0.000<0.05).

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate their overall assessment of the mentoring process for student-teachers. The results indicated that all the four stakeholders agreed that, generally, they were satisfied with how the mentorship programme was currently being organised by the colleges of education and the schools of attachment. No statistically significant difference could be observed at the 5% significance level (T=0.299, df=3. P-value=0.567>0.05).

Table 11 presents the response on three selected benefits that were particular to the mentors as a result of the mentoring process.

Table 11: Perceived Benefit of the Mentoring Process to the Mentors

STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
The programme has helped me as a mentor to gain more insight into current trends in teaching	1 (0.25)	5 (1.23)	30 (7.41)	168 (41.48)	201 (49.63)
The presence of mentees has reduced classroom stress on the mentors	0 (0.00)	14 (3.46)	24 (5.93)	150 (37.04)	217 (53.58)
The presence of mentees helps with effective extra curricula activities	2 (0.49)	9 (2.22)	31 (7.65)	152 (37.53)	211 (52.10)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are in percentages N=405

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The outcome in Table 11, suggest that about 201 (49.63%) of the mentors strongly agreed while additional 168 (41.48%) agreed to the statement that the mentoring programme helped them (mentors) to gain more

insight into current trends in teaching, as they interacted with their mentees. Also, about 217 (53.5%) of the mentors strongly agreed while another 150 (237.04%) agreed to the statement that, the presence of mentees had reduced classroom stress in terms of marking and class control. Finally, about 211 (52.10%) of the mentors strongly agreed while about 152 (37.53%) were of the view that, the presence of mentees helped with effective handling of extra curricula activities in the schools of attachment.

The qualitative responses from the colleges' position exhibited mixed outcomes on the duration of the mentoring process. Two *p*articipants felt the period was not too long and their comments were as follows:

> Oh, to me, I would say the one year is enough. It's okay. Not too long in the sense that there are a whole lot of activities they would have to go through. So, the one year is enough and not too long. (*P*articipant from College 1)

> No, because they have to get the right competencies and the skills that they need for teaching. In my opinion, I think one year is not bad so that they would be able to deliver well when they are alone. Therefore, I think the one year is okay. (*P*articipant from College 2-TPC)

The above statements explain the main reason for considering the one-year duration as enough was that, the mentoring programme was involving and required enough time. From the three other participants, they felt that the one-year duration was too long and their comments were:

> Mmm…you see when you look at the old programme when we were at the training college, we were using some months for the teaching practice during the second year, we would go for some months and in the third year, we did it again before we came back to college. So, this was what was in place, but we didn't know

> what happened. Then, they had made it one whole year which I don't think it is the best. They could have made it one semester where the students would come back to the college for their challenges to be assessed. This, the tutors can help by way of corrections and demonstration lessons before they complete college. (*P*articipant from College 2-VP).

> Yes, I consider it to be too long. I do not know, but have people done studies to find out whether the competencies we want them to acquire within a year can't be attained in a shorter period. This is not the first-time teacher training programme is having a component of mentorship. Elsewhere, it is just one semester and in other jurisdictions, it is just a number of weeks. Even, training colleges when it was Cert A, the mentorship programme which was called 'teaching practice' was not done in vacuum. They worked under experienced teachers. They did it for four weeks on three occasions or two occasions and the product of that programme turned out to be quite competent if not arguably the best. (*P*articipant from College 3).

> The duration, I think it is too long. I think they can go there for maybe six months and come back to the college. Because when they go out for one year, they think they are on their own and they do a lot of things. I think the duration should be cut down. May be, three months or six months then they come back to the college. (*P*articipant from College 4).

It was interesting to note that in some cases, the views of the teaching practice coordinator (TPC) and that of the vice principal (VP) from the same college differed on the duration of the mentoring programme. Those who felt the duration was too long were of the view that, it reduced the content knowledge students acquired on campus as a result of the reduction in contact hours with their tutors at the lecture halls. Others also were of the view that,

they should spend one semester and then return to the college for the tutors to address their field challenges before they wrote their final examination and left.

Another participant presented a mixed view which suggested that, the duration might not be long for what the mentees were supposed to learn, but became a problem as proportion of time spent on acquisition of content knowledge in relation with the total time for the teacher training. The participant stated:

> When it comes to the duration of the professional aspect of their course, it is not that long, but my problem has to do with whether the content knowledge they get from the college is enough. The question has always been if a student is to attend college for three years and out of the three years, two years are used for building his knowledge in terms of content he is required to teach, then one may ask, is the use of one year for teaching practice and the two years for acquisition of content knowledge balance enough? So, for me, I think one year for practical work is okay. Just that for me err… the period for the students to acquire the content knowledge should be looked at. (*P*articipant from College 4).

The major implication of the position of the above participant was that, the one-year practical training might not be too long, but as compared to the time allowed for the acquisition of content knowledge and teaching methods on campus, it appeared to be too long.

Discussion of the Results

This chapter presented and analysed the responses on the objective two of the study. The objective aimed at examining the perception of mentors, mentees, lead mentors, linked tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice

principals of the colleges about the current state of the student-teacher mentoring process. The results suggested that the respondents, generally had possitive perception about several aspects on the current state of the student-teacher mentoring in Central-Western Zone of Ghana, with some few cases of doubts. The observation that mentors and mentees mostly had positive view about the teaching practice process was consistent with the findings of Setati and Nkosi (2017), Wachira (2019), and Suen and Chow (2001). Suen and Chow (2001) indicated that students' positive perceptions were associated with their level of satisfaction with their mentors.

The mentees and the link tutors mostly held a common view as against that of the mentors and the lead mentors. For example, the mentees and the link tutors felt that, the duration of the mentoring programme was too long, noting that the mentoring programme reduced the content knowledge of student-teachers in their respective colleges, due to the long time they spent outside the college, thought that the out-programme (the mentoring programme) should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges, to allow for more content studies and felt that the current situation where mentees prepared for final examination while on the mentoring programme reduced their commitment to the mentoring process while all these views were less agreed to by the mentors and the lead mentors. This disparity could be explained from the position of the mentors and lead mentors as against the mentees and the link tutors.

On the issue of duration and the contact hour loss on campus, the mentees and the link tutors knew how they had to outdo themselves to complete the tight schedule on the syllabi before the students could move out

to their schools of attachment. The mentors and their lead mentors though might have gone through the stress of mentoring before, stood to benefit the most from the length of mentoring process, making their agreement less of a surprise. The mentors confirmed the motivation for their position during the analysis on the benefits by agreeing that, the presence of the mentees reduced stress and helped with extra curricula activities. The lead mentors, especially might be interested to see a whole year of quick morning assembly because mentees saw to the grounds work to support their mentors as well as took over from an absent teacher who has sought permission. It should be noted that, in the case of the basic schools, it is only formal for a teacher to seek permission to be absent in some few cases, but that does not solve the problem, since the head must be innovative enough to engage the pupils. The presence of the mentees, if nothing at all, provides a quick solution to this problem for lead mentors who double as the head teachers. Probably, this was the reason why the mentors and the lead mentors had less incentive to consider the duration of the mentoring programme as being too long.

Another aspect of the duration of the mentoring period as perceived by the mentees and link tutors was that, it linked with the student teachers' acquisition of content knowledge. The entire process of pedagogical content knowledge required that, both content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge were nurtured before they were eventually integrated (Grossman, 1990; Ibrahim & Sarkawi, 2017). The fact that the students spend the first two years of the training on campus suggests that, their content knowledge must lead the pedagogical knowledge at least for the practical aspect of pedagogy. A completely out-segment mentoring session simply implies a trade-off of

content contact hours for practical pedagogical knowledge (Ibrahim & Sarkawi, 2017). The balance between the two aspects of student-teachers' development, therefore, requires critical evaluation since they were put on the spots by the mentees and their link tutors in this study.

According to Muraya and Wairimu (2020), the mentoring period is the first-time student-teachers apply the theories and contents they have learnt in a real classroom environment, in an attempt to equip their pedagogical content knowledge. It is interesting to note that, a majority of the respondents from the colleges of education felt that, the duration was too long, and hence, impacted negatively on the acquisition of content knowledge of student-teachers. This was of great consequences since the respondents from the colleges were senior staff members who could influence policy-making, but continued to support what they felt did not help the teacher-training process. But the results could also imply that, most of these policies, such as the duration of the mentoring progrmme were done without broader consultations with key stakeholders such as Teaching Practice Coordinators, Vice Principals, Link Tutors and the Student-Teachers. However, both those who agreed to the one-year duration and those who disagreed had their own strong points that merit consideration.

A number of researchers have reached a conclusion that, the mentoring period must contribute significantly to both content and pedagogical knowledge so that the student-teacher mentoring process becomes a period to nurture the pedagogical content knowledge of the teacher-trainee. Azure (2016) empirically established in the Ghanaian context that, student-teachers related well with their school mentors than college tutors, and noted that, they received more feedback from their school mentors than from their college

tutors during their internship. Azure, therefore, concluded that, a greater transfer of learning occurs at the schools of attachment than at the colleges which produce student-teachers who are willing to incorporate and implement school-based practices in a new context. The fact that the teaching practice programme teaches student-teachers a lot about the teaching profession has never been in doubt, the fear about the duration of the mentoring period has to do with how the level of content knowledge from the colleges mediate the transfer of pedagogical knowledge on the field. Gess-Newsome et al. (2019), however, concluded that, teaching practice has greater influence on general pedagogical knowledge than on the content knowledge of the teacher.

Hudson (2013) summarised the role of the mentors to include enhancing communication skills, developing leadership roles (problem-solving and building capacity) and advancing pedagogical knowledge. The mentoring process, therefore, develops the pedagogical knowledge to interact with the content knowledge, to produce pedagogical content knowledge. See (2013) split pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) into three, namely subject matter knowledge (SMK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and knowledge of context (KOC), and concluded that, the mentoring process has significant effects on all the three aspects, but subject matter knowledge (content knowledge) is the least affected. That exactly was the position of this study in trading off more course content period for mentoring which according to See (2013), has the greater impact on content knowledge. The entire process of mentoring or teaching practice has been to transfer content knowledge and educational theories into action through improvement in

pedagogical content knowledge, which in the first place, requires that the content knowledge exists (Worden, 2015).

Also, the mentees and their link tutors understood the challenges that the automatic posting posed to the students, some of whom would have selected schools in towns that they could have had access to accommodation and some form of feeding or assistance. But the posting process gave the school of attachment the sole responsibility of providing for accommodation and controlling of some aspects of the students' movement and living. On the issue of providing some form of financial assistance to student-teachers during the mentoring period, the lead mentors were the only group that objected to the statement. This is not surprising since the lead mentors acted on behalf of the employer, who must lead any such move when it became necessary. Therefore, the lead mentors could be said to have taking the position of the employer whose aim was to reduce cost by free riding on the service of student-teacher.

On the issue of benefits, the respondents unanimously agreed that the mentoring process was important and worth their time. Beltman and Schaeben (2012) grouped the benefits that individuals derived from mentoring into four categories namely altruistic, cognitive, social and personal growth. Beltman and Schaeben (2012) concluded that, the participation in a mentoring programme has positive outcome for the participants. In relation to the findings of this study, mentors benefited from all the four categories identified above. Altruistic benefit refers to the positive feeling by the mentors that, the mentees have been trained and ushered into the teaching profession because of the hard work of a mentor. The exposure to new concepts from mentees gives

the mentors cognitive benefits while the extended relationship expands the social life of the mentors.

The end product of the individual benefits is the overall personal growth of the mentor. Peck (2011) observed that, mentors benefit from their engagement in mentoring through personal development, the feeling of strong sense of connection to others and increased self-appreciation. Andrea (2010) also found that, mentoring has impacts on mentors with respect to the teacher leadership characteristics and reflective processes. Hudson (2013) also added that, a good mentoring process can allow mentors to effectively educate their mentees, while building their pedagogical knowledge through their engagement with them, as it was highlighted by the mentors in this study. Gilles and Wilson (2004) also concluded that, mentoring is professional development with the possibilities of mentors gaining insights into their teaching and mentoring roles and the complexities of an education system. Mentors, therefore, should become more useful to themselves and their mentees over time as they learn through their involvement in the mentoring process.

The mentees enjoy all the benefits, with the exception of the altruistic, especially the mentees' participation in the mentoring process was not entirely voluntary (Beltman & Schaeben, 2012). But, the mentees' view in this study suggested that, they considered the mentoring process as important and worthy of their time. A study by Phiri (2019) identified, mentees benefiting from the academic and psychosocial domain as a result of their participation in academic mentoring. That is, aside being a partial requirement for the award of their certificates in teaching, student-teacher or mentees gained immensely

from the mentoring process, through extended social network with experienced teachers, among their peers, with their pupils and some community members in the community of attachment.

Chapter Summary

The first section of this chapter presented the summary statistics of the respondents and explored the distribution of the respective respondents' profiles. The number of items in each category was very vital to the analysis of the study because some of the inferential analyses were done on the comparison of issues across the respondents' profiles, such as gender and location of schools of attachment. The outcome suggested that each category of interest had relative number of respondents that allow for consistent results for comparison.

The second section examined the stakeholders' perception about the mentoring programme. The issue of perception about mentoring was taken from the attribute induction under the academic domain and the attribute personal quality and communication under the psychosocial domain in the conceptual framework of the study. That is, the way mentees were inducted into the mentoring process as well as the personal position of the respective stakeholders determined how they perceived the mentoring process. The result was consistent with the content of the framework. The outcome generally pointed that the mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the college respondents had positive perception of the current state of the mentoring programme and perceived it as beneficiary to the participants particularly the student teacher.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

COMPETENCIES OF MENTORS OF STUDENT-TEACHERS

Introduction

This chapter examined the perceived competencies of mentors of student-teachers of the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana in the basic schools. The views of six categories of respondents (mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals) were solicited on this subject matter. Competencies of the mentors were operationalised as the effectiveness of the selection process, academic and professional qualification, rank, year of teaching experience and competencies in the area of professionalism, communication and the mentor's ability in inducting the mentees. The variables were considered as the observed aspect of a latent variable - competency. The analysis was therefore done under these themes after which a general conclusion was drawn on competencies.

The Selection Process of Mentors of Student Teachers in the Central-Western Zone Colleges of Education in Ghana

The views of the vice principals, teaching practice coordinators and mentors were presented on how the selection of mentors was done and the outcomes were synthesised for consistency. The respondents in the four selected colleges of education were asked to state how the schools of attachment and mentors were usually selected before posting of mentees were done. A participant from college one narrated the selection process:

> The Teaching Practice Committee in collaboration with the Heads do what we call scouting. So, with the scouting, we move to the respective schools of attachment that we have designated to take data as in; the names of the professional teachers there, their qualifications and the number of years they have taught. So, with this, we come back, and as a committee, we identify those who meet our criteria and select them. Then afterwards, letters are issued to the respective schools for invitation to participate in mentorship training before they start mentoring the students. We also look at teachers whose behaviours are worth mentoring… Some might have taught for several years, but their behaviours are not worth mentoring. So, such teachers are also disqualified. (Participant from College 1)

The participant from college 3 also gave an extensive account of how the selection of the mentors was done by the college:

> Our mentors are selected, in collaboration with the heads of the schools of attachment. First, we send letters to the heads of the schools so that we are able to determine the number of teachers who are in the school, their various qualifications and the number of years of service. Mentoring is an exercise which should be done by somebody who is experienced. Such individual, therefore, gets to be understudied by a trainee on the job. So, if you are a fresh teacher, then you wouldn't be very fit to mentor. Once we know the number of teachers who can fit our purpose, we schedule training workshop for them. For the training workshops, it is mandatory for even those who have mentored before. So, we consider three main things: one's qualification, teaching experience (at least, three years) and one's conduct, in terms of attitude and values. (Participant from College 3).

The modalities of college two and four on the section processes of mentors for the student-teachers were also presented:

> We write to the various schools of attachment through the District Education Directorate so that err… the head teacher will select the teachers who qualify. Normally, one should have about three years' experience as a professional teacher with good character before one would qualify to come for an orientation or workshop to qualify to be appointed as a mentor. Again, one would have to come for a workshop to be taken through how to mentor the students before one would qualify to be a mentor. (Participant from College 2).

> First of all, one should be a professional teacher, that is someone who has completed a college of education and has taught for two or three years before one qualifies to be a mentor. In addition to the years of teaching experience, one must be a highly disciplined teacher, someone who does his or her work well and one who is punctual to school before one is assigned a mentee. This is done by both the Teaching Practice Coordinator of the college and the lead mentors in the schools of attachment. (Participant from College 4)

Generally, the responses from the representatives of the four selected colleges converged on a number of issues, regarding how schools of attachment and mentors were selected. The outcome indicated that, the selection of the schools of attachment depended on the availability of trained teachers who had taught for, at least, three years. Hence, a basic school with more qualified teachers is better placed as an attachment school than the one with less qualified teachers. The result implied that, a basic standard measure for a mentor to be selected was that, the mentor must, at least be, a trained teacher with enough teaching experience. It was also clear from their narratives that, the colleges collaborated with the heads of the basic schools to

determine the competencies of the mentors before the school was selected to receive mentees from the colleges. Another striking observation was the fact that, for the colleges, the schools of attachment were issued with letters (specifically to the heads of the schools of attachment), but the mentors did not receive any such letters. This implies that, the final selection of mentors fell on the head teachers, who must select mentors and decide which mode to communicate to them. The decision to leave the final stage of mentor appointment to the heads could be inferred from the part of the selection process that required that, the behaviour of the mentor was factored into the selection process. Clearly, the head teacher was the best person to decide on the teacher whose conduct was suitable for mentorship.

Another consistency identified from all the participants was the need for an individual who wish to be considered for the role as a mentor to attend a mandatory training workshop on mentoring before the students were eventually posted to their schools. This happened to be the first and major direct engagement of the Teaching Practice Units of the colleges with the mentors. The basic conclusion was that the requirements for one to be selected as a mentor included being a trained or professional teacher, having taught for, at least, three years, be of a good conduct and having participated in a mandatory training.

The mentors were asked to indicate how their appointments were communicated to them and the outcome suggested that 328 (81%) received their appointments verbally and the remaining 77 (19%) received their appointments through written letters from the head teachers. The appointment

process of mentors could, therefore be considered as predominantly informal in nature, despite the rigorous process outlined by the colleges of education.

Competencies in Relation to Professional Qualification, Mentors' Ranks and Teaching Experience

The professional qualifications and number of years of teaching experience of mentors were assessed since they were the major requirements for selecting mentors. The study showed that most of the mentors had had professional training in education with 222 (54.81%) having Bachelor Degree in Education (B.Ed.), 156 (38.52%) possessing Diploma in Education, 12 (2.96%) possessing Master Degree in Education and 4 (0.99%) still had Certificate 'A' in Education. The remaining 11 (2.72%) of the mentors had HND, which is non-professional qualification in education. The results suggested that, 394 (97.28%) of the mentors had professional qualification in education which resonated with the initial position of the colleges of education in the selection process, and this gave preference to trained and professional teachers.

The results on the rank of the mentors in the teaching field suggested that, most of the mentors, 154 (38%) were on the rank of Senior Superintendent, followed by Principal Superintendent 125(31%), 81 (20%) of the mentors were Assistant Director I, and the remaining 45 (11%) were Assistant Director II. The composition of the rank again added to the perceived competencies of mentors from the standard set by the colleges.

Aside the professional qualification of the prospective mentors' years of teaching, experience was the next item stressed in the selection process. Table 12 provides a statistical detail on the years of service of the respondents

in the field of teaching and mentoring. It specifically examined the number of years the mentors of the student-teachers had been teaching and mentoring as teachers and mentors respectively as well as the number of years taught as teachers before given the responsibility of mentoring.

Table 12: Respondents' Years of Experience in the Field of Teaching and Mentoring.

Items	3 Years and Below	4 -7 Years	8 -11 Years	12 -15 Years	16 Years and Above
Number of years mentors have been teaching	102 (25.2)	106 (26.2)	109 (26.9)	43 (10.6)	45 (11.1)
Number of years mentors taught before mentoring	203 (50.1)	138 (34.1)	28 (6.9)	19 (4.7)	17 (4.2)
Number of years mentors have been mentoring	226 (55.8)	111 (27.4)	49 (12.1)	12 (3.0)	7 (1.7)
Note: Figures in parenthesis are in percentages					**N=405**

Source: Field Survey (2020)

In Table 12, it is revealed that, 102 (25.2%) mentors had been teaching for 3 years or below. Again 106, (26.2%) had served as teachers for between 4 and 7 years and 109 (26.9%) mentors had served as teachers between 8 and 11 years in their teaching carriers. The study also showed that 43 (10.6%) and 45 (11.1%) of the mentors had taught for between 12 and15 years, and 16 years and above respectively.

With respect to the question on how long mentors had taught before being assigned the responsibility of mentoring, 203 (50.1%) of the mentor respondents indicated that they had taught for 3 years or less before being assigned the responsibilities of mentoring. Accordingly, 138 (34.1%) and 28 (6.9%) said they taught between 4 and 7 years, and between 8 and 11 years before they started mentoring while 36 (8.9%) of the mentors had 12 years or more teaching experience before they were given the responsibility to mentor student-teachers. Moreover, on the issue of how long respondents (mentors)

had been mentoring, the results indicated that 226 (55.8%) and 111 (27.4%) of the mentors had been mentoring for 3 years or less, and between 4 and 7 years in their teaching career respectively. In addition, 49 (12.1%) had mentored for between 8 and 11 years, 12 (3.0%) had mentored for between 12 and 15 years while 7 (1.7%) of them had mentored for 16 years or more. From the statistics, it was obvious that most mentors did not teach for a longer period before they were assigned the role of mentoring. The general conclusion from the analysis on years of teaching experience was that, most of the mentors were at the threshold of qualifying as mentors or below the threshold of, at least, three years of teaching experience before they were recruited as mentors. This observation clearly has negative implication on the competencies of the mentors in their first few years of being appointed as mentors.

The third and last major condition the colleges gave on gauging the competencies of the school teachers they selected as mentors was mandatory training. The rigour of such training was assessed from the mentors' perspective and the outcome is presented in Figure 8.

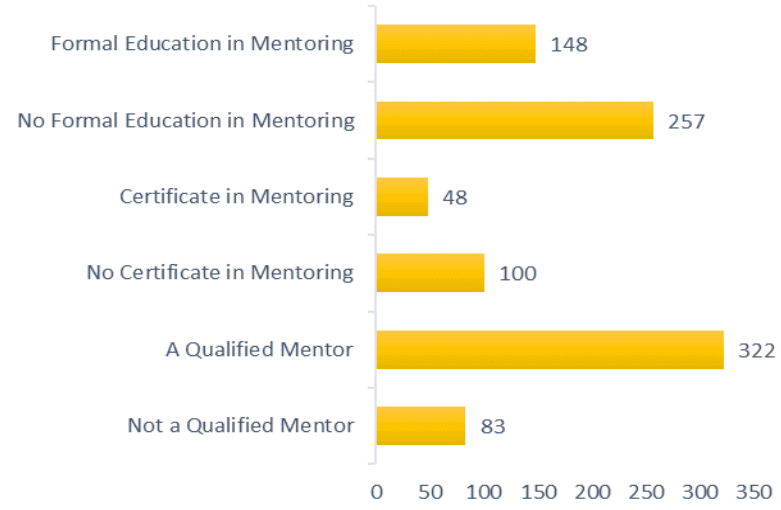


***Figure 8*: Mentors' Qualifications and Training in Mentoring**

Source: Field Survey (2020)

Responses from 148 (36.54%) mentors out of the total mentors sampled indicated that, they had had some form of formal training in mentoring, while the remaining 257(63.46%) have had no formal training in mentoring. However, it emerged from the study that only 48 (32.43%) mentors of those who said they had had formal training indicated that they had formal certificates in mentoring. This implies that, about 357 (88.15%) of the mentors had no certificates in mentoring. Notwithstanding, as many as 322 (79.50%) mentors felt that they qualified to mentor, despite having no formal training in mentoring. The revelation from the mentors about their lack of formal training cast some doubts about the rigorousness of the mandatory training provided by the colleges of education. The implication is that; the mentors did not consider the process as a formal training in mentoring; this might be due to the fact that they were not awarded certificates for the said training.

Considering the level of disparity between the kind of mentors the colleges actually sought to select and those the head teacher actually engaged as mentors in the end, there was the need to assess the level of trust in the competencies of the mentors from the college point of view. Below are extracts from the responses of the representatives of the colleges of education:

> That one, I may say partly yes and partly no, in the sense that some are up to the task, doing exactly what they have been trained to do. Some too you will see some sort of lackadaisical traits in their behaviours. It's like the moment the students come; they don't even want to show their presence to mentor them. (Participant from College 1)

> Oh! It's a human institution we are working in so certainly, we may have some who would work as expected of them and others who will do otherwise for some reasons.
> (Participant from College 3)

> Not all the mentors, some of them are given the nod to mentor, but as they go on with their work, you will see that they are not competent and if that happens, we take the mentees from them and give them to another person. (Participant from College 4)

The respondents were moderate on their acknowledgement of the mentors' lack of requisite competencies, but the respondent from the College 4 was emphatic about the competencies of some of the mentors. The respondents indicated that, a close collaboration between the heads of schools of attachment and the college coordinators mostly help to identify extreme case of incompetence. The respondents recounted situations where some mentees had to be withdrawn from a particular mentor and re-assigned to other mentors due to their incompetence. The general observation was; the colleges of education did not fully believe in the competencies of the mentors though they had moderate trust in them to deliver.

The mentors were given the opportunity to evaluate their own level of competencies to be compared to that of other stakeholders. The results showed that, 73 (18%) of the mentors believed that they had very high knowledge in mentoring while 260 (64%) believed that their knowledge in mentoring was high, 61 (15%) felt that their knowledge in mentoring was average and the remaining 13 (3%) held the view that their knowledge in mentoring was very low. It was clear from the responses that, the mentors considered themselves as having enough knowledge on mentoring as opposed to the actual picture

painted earlier, in terms of the level of formal training and certification in mentoring.

Arguably, a mentor's decision to strive to improve his or her competencies depends largely on his or her views about his or her current performance as a mentor. Figure 9 juxtaposed the views of the mentors about their overall performance as mentors with that of the mentees to controlled for biases in self-reporting.

***Figure 9*: Views of Mentors and Mentees about the Performance of Mentors**

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results indicated greater convergence between the views of the mentors and mentees on the performance of the former. It was clear from the results that, 155 (38.3%) and 223 (55%) of mentors rated their performances as very good and good separately while 3 (0.7%) and 12 (3%) rated their performances as poor and very poor respectively. The remaining 12 (3%) could not rate their own performance. From the mentees standpoint, 396 (48.9%), 298 (36.8%), 46 (5.7%) and 25 (3.1%) of the mentee respondents

rated their mentors' performances as very good, good, poor and very poor respectively. The other 45 (5.5%) indicated that they were not sure of their mentors' performance. Mentors generally believe in their competencies; and their views were supported by their mentees.

Competencies in Relation to Professionalism, Effective Communication and Induction

The views of the mentors and mentees (student-teachers) and that of lead mentors and link tutors were compared on common issues that bothered on the perceived competencies of mentors in mentoring. Table 13 presents the results on the common statements that were posed to both mentors and mentees. The views of the mentees (student teachers) were sought mainly to serve as a check on the views of the mentors. The mentors' views were considered consistent if the views were relatively closer to that of the mentees since both in practice were privy to the issue under consideration.

Table 13: Perceived Competencies of the Mentors in the Area of Professionalism based on the Views of Mentors and Mentees

Statement	Median value		Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test		
	Mentors (MT)	Mentees (ST)	Z	p-value	P(MT>ST) (%)
Mentors establish good rapport and trust with mentees	5(1)	4(1)	-3.199	0.0014	55.0
Mentors demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process	4(1)	4(2)	-6.527	0.0010	60.8
Mentors help provide direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking).	5(1)	4(1)	-4.081	0.0000	56.9
Mentors suggest appropriate resources to mentees (e.g., expertise, electronic contacts, source materials)	4(1)	4(2)	-5.512	0.0020	59.3
Mentors assist mentees with their understanding of the academic routes to achieve their career goals	4(1)	4(2)	-4.902	0.0000	58.2
Mentors demonstrate great content and expertise in the areas of academic needs of the mentees.	4(1)	4(2)	-0.597	0.5503	51.0

Note: Figures in parenthesis are in inter-quartile range (IQR)

Source: Field Survey (2020)

In Table 13, the mentors strongly agreed (median=5, IQR=1) to the statement that, they established good rapport and trust with mentees during the mentoring period, but the Mentees just agreed to the statement (median=4, IQR=1). The median comparison test confirmed that, the views of the mentors and the mentees differed significantly at the five percent significance level (Z=-3.199, p=0.0014<0.05). The extended probability further indicated that, the probability that the median of the mentors was higher than that of the mentees was 55%. This simply suggests that, the probability that mentors will accept that the mentors establish good rapport and trust with mentees during the mentoring period is 10% (55% - 45%) more than that of the mentees.

Again, mentors and mentees agreed to the statement that, the former demonstrated professional integrity in the mentoring process. The median comparison test, however, indicated that the null hypothesis that, the median values were identical could be rejected at the 5% significance level (Z= -6.527, p-value= 0.0000 < 0.05). Interestingly, it was further observed that the probability that the views of the mentors were stronger than that of the mentees was about 60.8%. The mentors strongly agreed to the statement that, mentors provide direction and guidance on professional issues, such as networking but the mentees just agreed to the statement. The hypothesis confirmed the statistically significant difference between the views of the mentors and the mentees (Z= -4.081, p-value=0.0000<0.05, Probability= 56.9%).

On how the guidance were provided, both mentors and mentees agreed that, mentors provide appropriate resources and suggested appropriate sources, such as electronic contacts materials to mentees. Besides, both mentors and

mentees agreed that, the former assist the later to have a better understanding of academic routes necessary to achieve their career goals. In addition, mentors demonstrate great content knowledge and expertise in the areas of academic needs of the mentees. The median test suggests that the mentors always held a stronger view on the issues than the mentees. Table 14 presents statistical data of the views of mentees and mentors on issues that border on the competencies level of the mentors in relation to their communication with the student-teachers.

Table 14: Mentors and Mentees' Views about the Competencies of Mentors in the Area of Communication

Statement	Median value		Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test		
	Mentors (MT)	Mentees (ST)	Z	p-value	P(MT>ST) (%)
Mentors are always accessible and available for lesson supervision and discussions.	4(1)	4(2)	-4.076	0.0000	56.7
Mentors communicate regularly mentees on matters of great concern to their mentoring engagement	4(1)	3(1)	-3.229	0.0012	55.4
Mentors ask questions that are self-reflective	4 (2)	4(2)	-1.343	0.1793	52.2
Mentors give quick and effective feedback to mentees.	5(1)	4(1)	-2.442	0.0146	53.9

Note: Figure in parenthesis are in inter-quartile range (IQR), N = 1215

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results as presented in Table 14, suggest that both mentors and mentees agreed to the statement that mentors were always accessible and available for the lesson supervision and discussions. Though, extended analysis suggested that the mentors agreed more to the statement than the mentees (Z= -4.076, p-value=0.0000<0.05, Probability=56.7%). The mentors agreed to the statement that the mentors regularly communicate with their mentees on matters of great concern to the mentoring engagement while the mentees moderately agreed to the statement. The median test confirmed the statistical significance of the difference observed and the fact that mentors agreed more to the statement than the mentees (Z=-3.229, p-value=0.0012<0.05, Probability=55.4%).

Both mentors and mentees agreed that mentors asked questions that were self-reflective to their mentees. No significant statistical difference was observed between the median values (Z=-1.343, p-value= 0.1793>0.05) which indicated that the views of mentors and mentees on this issue were identical. Finally, the mentors strongly agreed to the statement that mentors give quick and effective feedback to mentees, but the mentees just agreed to the statement. It was observed that the probability that the mentors felt they gave timely response to their mentees was about 53.9% which indicates their strong agreement than the mentees. Table 15 presents the comparison of the views of the mentors and the mentees on the mentors' skills to induct mentees into the teaching profession.

Table 15: Perceived competencies of the Mentors in the Area of Induction Based on the Views of Mentors and Mentees

Statement	Median value		Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test		
	Mentors (MT)	Mentees (ST)	Z	p-value	P(MT>ST) (%)
Mentors support mentees to identify their strength and weakness	5(1)	4(2)	-6.236	0.0000	61.1
Mentors support mentees to reflect upon their weakness and suggest measures for improvement.	4(1)	4(2)	-4.678	0.00011	57.7
Mentors provide constructive and useful criticisms to mentees' work	4(2)	3(2)	-7.363	0.0000	61.9
Mentors motivate mentees to improve on their work output.	4(2)	4(1)	-3.233	0.0012	55.5
Mentors challenge mentees to perform task in a friendly manner	4(2)	4(1)	-3.165	0.0016	55.2
Mentors challenge mentees to extend their abilities beyond the classroom	4(2)	4(1)	-2.488	0.0129	54.0

Note: Figures in parenthesis are in inter-quartile range (IQR), N = 1215

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results in Table 15 revealed that, the mentors strongly agreed to the statement that, they supported mentees to identify their strengths and weaknesses in the teaching and learning process during the mentoring period, while the mentees just agreed to the statement. The observed difference was statistically significant at the 5% significance level (Z=-6.236, p-value =0.0000<0.05, Probability =61.1%). Both mentors and mentees agreed to the statement that mentors supported their mentees to reflect upon their weaknesses and suggested measures for improvement. Again, the views of the mentors were stronger than that of the mentees (Z=-4.678, p-value=0.0000<0.05, Probability=57.7%). On the statement that mentors provided constructive and useful criticisms to the mentees' work, the former agreed, while the later moderately agreed to the statement. The difference was found to be statistically significant at the 5% significance level (Z=-7.363, p-value=0.0000<0.05, Probability=61.9%).

It was observed that, both mentors and mentees agreed to the statements that mentors motivated mentees to improve upon their work output, the former challenged the later to perform tasks in a friendly manner, and mentors challenged mentees to extend their abilities beyond the classroom (mentors median= mentees median=4). Though the median values were identical, the interquartile range indicates wider spread in the distribution of mentors than that of the mentees, which explains the median test's significant statistical difference between the views at the 5% significance level in all the cases.

The Views of Lead Mentors and Link Tutors on Mentors' Competencies

In this section, the views of lead mentors and Link Tutors about the competencies levels of the mentors were examined. These two actors were seen as the external actors that played direct supervisory role, but had different interest in the mentoring process. Table 16 considers the views of lead mentors and link tutors on the perceived competencies levels of mentors in the mentoring programme of the colleges of education in the Central - Western Zone of Ghana.

Table 16: Lead Mentors and Link Tutors' View on the Competencies of Mentors to the Mentoring Process

	Lead Mentor		Link Tutor		Wilcoxon rank sum test		
Variable	**Median**	**IQR**	**Median**	**IQR**	**Z**	**P-value**	**P(LM>LT)**
Mentors challenge mentees to perform and do it in a friendly manner.	4	1	3	1	5.418	0.017	0.700
Mentors give quick and effective feedback which are very helpful to mentees.	4	1	3	1	7.348	0.000	0.764
Mentors support mentees to identify their areas of strength and weakness in a way that make them feel comfortable	4	2	4	1	8.095	0.013	0.795
Mentors demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process	4	1	3	1	7.181	0.000	0.752
Mentors demonstrate great content and expertise in the areas of academic needs of mentees.	4	1	3	1	6.161	0.012	0.718
Mentors provide constructive and useful criticisms to mentees' work	4	1	3	1	5.479	0.000	0.692
Mentors provide direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g. networking) to mentees	4	1	3	1	6.244	0.000	0.726
Mentors suggest appropriate resources (e.g., expertise, electronic contacts, source materials) to my mentees	4	2	4	1	5.750	0.015	0.706

N = 228

Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results, as presented in Table 16, found a general consensus that, almost all the statements were either agreed to or moderately agreed to, by the lead mentors or the link tutors respectively. The median comparison test confirmed the statistical significance differences between the average rating of the lead mentors and the link tutors at 5% significance level (p-value=0.0000<0.05). The major item of interest was the extent of the difference as measured by the extended probabilities. The probability that the median rating of the lead mentors was significantly higher than that of the link tutors was closer to 70%, which indicated that the differences were very wide (about 40%). Hence, the lead mentors believed in the competencies of the mentors more than the link tutors even though, they both acknowledged the efforts of the mentors in the mentorship process.

Discussion of Results

The discussion of the analysis of the perceived competencies levels of mentors in this section was done under three main themes. The first theme aimed at addressing the issue bothering on the processes involved in the selection of mentors in the Central-Western Zone colleges of education for the out-segment programme.

The results revealed that, the colleges of education used the scouting method in collaboration with the head teachers of the schools of attachment to select mentors. It was revealed that though the colleges ensured the selection of competent mentors, determined by their possession of professional

certificates in teaching and, at least, three years of service in the teaching field, the final decision of assigning mentors to mentees rested on the head teachers, who were referred to as the lead mentors. It was observed that, mentorship training was a major and a mandatory component of the mentor selection exercise, especially in recent times. The inclusion of a mandatory training programme into the selection process on the surface introduced some confidence into the selection process for mentors.

The results further showed that, mentors were mostly appointed through verbal appointments from the head teachers of the schools of attachment. Very few mentors were appointed through written appointment letters, which also came from the head teachers of the schools of attachment. It was clear that, the colleges of education did not directly deal with the mentors, in terms of their selection, but rather dealt with the head teachers of the schools of attachment who in turn appointed mentors for the student-teachers. This finding could be explained by the organogram of the Ghana Education Service, which makes it difficult for any institution to deal directly with a teacher at the basic school level without the involvement of the district directorates, through the head teachers.

The second theme sought to examine the competencies of the mentors from the angle of their academic and professional qualifications. This section was related to academic domain in the theoretical framework and relates to attribute competency. It was clear that, the mentors met most of the academic and professional demands from the colleges, and could be considered as competent. That is, most of them had professional and academic qualifications including degrees and diplomas in education, as well as had higher ranks that

made them qualify mentors. However, the possession of academic and professional qualifications could be considered as the first requirement for one to be considered as a competent mentor since other attributes under the academic and psychosocial domains were equally important. For example, despite the observation that the mentors possessed the requisite academic and professional qualification as prescribed by the colleges, the respondents from the colleges did not fully believe in the competencies of their mentors, but felt they mostly delivered on their promise of providing sufficient training to the mentees. Hence, other aspects of academic and psychosocial domains were examined.

It was observed from the mentors' perspectives that, a greater percentage of them had no formal training in mentoring, while a significant proportion of those with some form of training had no certificates to that effect. This observation cast some doubt on the rigorousness of the mandatory training provided by the colleges as part of the selection process. That is, the responses from all the colleges identified mandatory training as an indispensable act in the selection process. However, the colleges never hinted on certifying the mentors which might be the reason the mentors did not see the process as a formal training session in mentoring. Also, the content of the training curriculum might have stressed clinical supervision, though the mentors were not only supervisors. Hence, a good proportion of the mentors indicated that, they had no certificates in mentoring including those who indicated to have received some form of formal training in mentoring. Despite having no formal training in mentorship or no certificates to show as evidence of formal training, a large proportion of the mentors described themselves as

qualified mentors. Hence, on the ground of formal training in mentoring and certification, it was concluded that the mentors were less qualified to mentor student teachers in the Central - Western Zone colleges of education.

The study further found that, the perceptions of the mentors about their competencies and performances were in sharp contrast to their actual qualification as gauged from their levels of training in mentoring and certification. This could as well be explained that mentors had every right to consider themselves as competent, the very moment the school administration identified them as fit for the position of mentors. The implication could be that, they might have less incentive to seek certification in mentoring since the absence of such certificate did not deny them the mentoring opportunity, and its possession might not add to their remuneration. The findings about the competencies of mentors were consistent with the outcome of earlier studies, but contradict the position of some empirical studies. Majoni and Nyaruwata (2015) identified the competencies of mentors as one of the major challenges facing the student-teachers' mentoring in Zimbabwe which is also an emerging economy like Ghana.

The mentors unanimously agreed that further training in mentoring would improve their performances and they were willing to undertake further training if only they did not have to bear its cost. The observation that the mentors needed further training to improve their mentoring capabilities had been observed and recommended by a number of studies. Asuo-Baffour, Daayeng and Agyemang (2019) recommended that, mentors of student-teachers in Ghana must be trained to improve their effectiveness and competencies as mentors which was affirmed by the mentors in this study.

Thornton (2014) made the conclusion that, the potential for mentees to be transformed into an 'educational leaders' depended largely on the levels of training and support mentors received. Esia-Donkoh, Amihere and Addison (2015), in the Ghanaian context, added that for a successful mentoring of student-teachers in Ghana, there should be a regular training and orientation for the mentors. The study also found that, the mentors usually had good attitude towards the mentorship programme. The outcome was however, contrary to the findings of Yüksel (2019) who found a negative attitude of the mentors towards the mentoring process and lack of requisite training skills for mentoring. Bukari and Kuyini (2015) also confirmed the negative attitude of mentors towards the student-teachers' mentoring process.

The third theme focused on the competencies of the mentors from the perspective of professionalism, effective communication and ability to induct mentees into the teaching profession, during the mentoring period. These areas were necessary because the academic domain of the framework adopted for the study stressed other aspects of mentors, such as the ability to induct and challenge mentees. The psychosocial domain also stressed the aspects of communication, personal quality and emotional support as necessary for effective mentoring. The study, therefore, focused on issues relating to these attributes of a mentor. Professionalism, for example, bothers on issues relating to both academic and psychosocial domains. The main findings from the study were that, both mentors and mentees, generally agreed on the competencies of mentors on issues relating to professionalism, communication and induction skills, during the mentoring process. The results indicated that the mentors generally believed that they were competent when it came to the issue of

providing their mentees with professional guidance. This was not surprising because most of the mentors were professional teachers who followed a similar path like what the mentees were, currently undergoing. The views of the mentors about their competencies and the fact that the mentees confirmed them was consistent with the positions of Izadinia (2015), who observed that, there was no serious dispute between the ideas of mentors and mentees on issues that included competencies. Galamay-Cachola, Aduca and Calauagan (2018) also observed that, the views of mentors and mentees converged on their competencies in areas such as pedagogical knowledge, modelling and feedback during the mentoring period.

The outcome of the current study, however, contradicted the findings from other studies both within and outside Ghana, but with similar focus. Bukari and Kuyini (2015) were sceptical as to whether the observed differences were expressions of ignorance or signs of confusion amongst the major players on the best way to run the practical aspect of the teacher-training programme. Gökçe and Demirhan (2005) had earlier reached similar conclusion about the views of the mentors and mentees.

The study also revealed that, the mentors mostly held a stronger view of their competencies than the mentees, even where they both agreed to an issue. The implications of this finding were that, either the mentors might be overrating their competencies levels or the mentees were down playing the services of their mentors. Though this was difficult to determine empirically in this study, it was theoretically possible. The same questions were posed to both mentors and mentees in the attempt to minimise response bias known in accompanying self-reporting on Likert scale (Kahneman, 2011). Existing

empirical evidence suggested that, biases were present in both self-report and assessment of others (Paulhus et al., 2003; Plieninger & Meiser, 2014). According to Wetzel et al. (2016), self-reporting has higher tendency of being lenient on issues, while reports by others may be harsh on the same issues. Hence, much as mentors have the tendency to exaggerate their strengths and downplay their weaknesses; the mentees were more likely to accentuate their weaknesses and downplay the strengths of their mentors. This explains why the mentors mostly had strong agreement to positive issues, while the mentees just agreed or moderately agreed to the same issue on the average.

The results confirm the position of Wetzel et al. (2016), on response biases. The major observation from the responses from both mentors and mentees was that, the views did not deviate much, which confirms the consistency of the outcome. That is, in most cases, where the mentors strongly agreed to a statement, the mentees agreed to the statement which generally indicated acceptance. The views of the mentors could, therefore, be said to have been collaborated by the mentees which suggested general acceptance of competencies of the mentors in the area of professionalism, communication and induction, when dealing with mentees during the mentoring process.

The views of link tutors and lead mentors about the competencies of the mentors were mixed. The results suggested that, link tutors were not fully convinced about the competencies of mentors, but the lead mentors had believed in them. The results could be interpreted to imply that, the lead mentors actually had greater grip on several aspects of the mentors' work than the link tutors, who occasionally visited the schools of attachment. That is, the link tutors had the tendency to measure the competencies of the mentors by

the spot observation of the mentees' work which might not be a true reflection of the mentor's competencies. The differences could, therefore, be seen as dependent on perspectives from which the two external actors had been viewing the competencies of the mentors. Also, since the lead mentors selected the mentors from the list of teachers, they at least, had the obligation to believe them though not fully.

The two actors, however, agreed on the ability of the mentors in challenging the mentees to work hard, and also made concerted efforts to meet their academic and professional needs. In another development, just as it was observed in the case of the mentors and mentees, the lead mentors held a stronger view of the mentors than the link tutors when it came to the issue of the mentors' competencies levels in the mentoring process.

Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter was to examine the perceived competencies levels of mentors in the mentoring process. The views of key actors in the mentoring programme, including mentors, mentees, lead mentors, link tutors, vice principals and teaching practice coordinators were sought. The selection processes of mentors were less formal, views of stakeholders on the competencies of the mentors were mixed, but the Colleges felt that the mentors exhibited moderate levels of performance in their work as mentors in most cases. The observation that the mentors performed despite being less competent in mentoring was consistent with the framework adopted for the study; which postulated that the mentoring process under the academic domain did not depend on only competencies, but on availability, ability to induct and challenge the mentees to deliver. The outcome simply suggested that the

mentors' performance could be significantly improved when their competencies in mentoring were improved through trainings.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

COST ELEMENTS IN THE MENTORING PROCESS

Introduction

This chapter examines the cost elements of the mentoring programme to the mentors and mentees and the effects of location of school of attachment and gender on such cost in the mentoring process. The chapter analysed data collected from mentors, student-teachers (mentees), lead mentors, link tutors, teaching practice coordinators and vice principals on the cost elements of the mentoring programme of the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. The mixed method approach was adopted in this chapter where both quantitative and qualitative responses were analysed.

The Cost Elements of the Mentoring Programme to the Student Teacher

This section sought to examine the financial cost to student-teachers in the mentoring programme. It focuses on areas such as accommodation, feeding, utility, stationery and transportation that were identified from the earlier studies and the pre-test as the major cost areas of particular interest to the mentees. On whether the mentees made arrangements and paid for their own accommodations or the arrangements and payments were done for them by the schools of attachment, the study revealed that, 324 (40%) of the respondents (mentees) had their accommodation needs met by the schools of attachment, while the remaining 486 (60%) made their own personal arrangements for their accommodation needs.

The results also indicated that, 761 (94%) of the mentees paid their own utility bills, such as water and electricity, 41 (5%) had theirs paid by the schools of attachment and 8 (1%) paid by the mentors. Some of the mentees also indicated that, they incurred transportation cost from their residents to the school. Though only 78 (10%) (78 out of 810) indicated that they paid transportation fares from their residents to school, 154 (19%) also indicated that they walked a longer distance to school because they could not pay for the transportation cost. The remaining 578 (71%) indicated that, they stayed close to the school and this did not cause any transportation cost.

Regarding expenditure on food, 753 (93%) of the mentees accepted that their expenditure had increased significantly. The remaining 57 (7%) saw no increase, though none of the mentees accepted that their expenditure on food had decreased within the mentoring period. The statistical details on the proportional increase in the amount spent on food by mentees who saw an increment in their expenditure on food during the mentoring period as compared to the expenditure on campus was assessed. The results showed that, 75 (10%) of the respondents felt their feeding cost had increased between 1% and 10%, 158 (21%) felt it had increased between 10% and 20%, 257 (34%) felt it had increased between 20% and 50%, 203 (27%) felt it had increased between 50% and 100%. In an extreme case, the remaining 60 (8%) indicated that, their expenditure on feeding had more than doubled since they started the mentorship programme.

On stationery, the entire total sample indicated that, they experienced an increase in an expenditure as far as it was concerned. The proportion of the students' income that was spent on stationery to prepare teaching notes and

teaching aids during the mentoring period was also assessed. The results were that, 186 (23%) of the respondents believed their expenditure on stationery had increased between 1% and 10%, 275 (34%) believed it had increased between 10% and 20%, 211 (26%) believed it had increased between 20% and 50% and 138 (17%) believed it had increased between 50% to 100% as compared to their expenditure while on campus. Table 17 presents the expenditure on food, utility bills and transportation cost.

Table 17: Mean Expenditure on Food, Utility Bills, Stationery, Transportation and Accommodation Cost

Cost element	Obs.	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Utility bills (monthly)	761	19.80	13.13	2	51
Expenditure on food (daily)	753	11.14	4.01	2	20
Stationary (weekly)	810	9.45	1.53	5	15
Transport fare (daily)	78	5.00	1.50	2.00	6.00
Accommodation (annually)	486	400	23.74	120	600

Source: Field survey (2020)

Table 17 shows that, the average monthly expenditure on utility bills was about GHS19.80 monthly with a spread of about GHS13.13. The bills could be as low as GHS2.00, and as high as GHS51.00 per month, but the daily feeding cost was about GHS11.14 with a spread of GHS4.01 and ranged from GHS2.00 to GHS20.00 per day. This result translated into about GHS334.20 expenditures on food in 30 days (or month), keeping all other factors constant. Further analysis of the 10% who indicated they paid transportation fare to and from school, indicated that, the mean transport fare was about GHS5.00 with a spread of GHS1.50. Also, the average weekly expenditure on stationery was about GHS9.45 with a spread of GHS1.53; and the average annual rental cost was about GHS400.00 with a spread of

GHS23.74. This revealed that, accommodation, utility bills, feeding and stationery costs were the major financial cost elements to the mentees in the mentoring process, and a relatively smaller number had transport cost as the fifth cost element to budget for on daily basis.

The qualitative responses from the interviews of the teaching practice coordinators and the vice principals supported the quantitative results by confirming the significant cost implication of the mentoring programme on the mentees. Some of the responses were as follows:

> You see, they have to buy their own food, TLM, pay water bills and so it costs. At the college, all these are taken for granted as they are fed and they also pay no bills. When out there, they are on their own and financially, it is burdensome. Even, the allowance is of less help as it is not much due to the many pamphlets they have to buy. This is because, as they are there, they also have to learn for the two subjects that they will write exams on when they return to college. They also have to run from the attachment school to their homes for other things and it also involves a lot of cost. (Participant from College 4)

> Yeah! It does in a way, in this whole mentoring process. In a situation where a mentee needs a cardboard and the school is not ready to provide, what does he/she do? As mentees and knowing very well that they are also teaching for marks, where the teaching and learning resources are not forthcoming, they are compelled to squeeze monies out of their meagre resources to get befitting teaching and learning resources for their teaching and that do cost them (mentees). Sometimes too, the mentees are put in groups of three in the rooms given to them. For personal or health reasons, some rent their own rooms. Specifically, those who are posted to Enchi Township, you know in a town nobody will give you room for free and as a result they do their own renting. And then, instead

of months, they are charged for a year and you know that comes at a huge cost to them. (Participant from College 1)

Hmm! it is very difficult for them. When they are in the college, they complain about the quality of food forgetting about the cost but get the pinch of it when they go out on attachment. They try to sometimes ask the mentors to announce to the pupils to help them (mentees) with foodstuffs especially in the farming areas. You know that even when the foodstuffs are provided, the mentees have to buy some other items for stew or soup. Even, in some cases, the accommodation that may be provided would not be of their choice so they decide to rent their own accommodations and pay utility bills. Another problem has to do with grouping of mentees in groups of three or four. Most would rather rent their own rooms and live alone, especially the females resulting in additional cost. (Participant from College 2)

Yes, the mentees also incur some cost. Even today that their allowances have been restored to them, they still incur cost. They have to care for themselves and pay rent. They are also not given any rent allowance. It's only feeding allowance that they are given and even with that I am not very sure it's enough for the days that they spend in the communities. They also have to pay for utilities. So definitely, they incur cost. Don't also forget about their general upkeep. They take care of the TLM's for teaching. The college doesn't support them. Remember it is not every school that you can find some resources to prepare your TLM. Therefore, I will say it's even heavier on the mentees than on the mentors and the schools. (Participant from College 3).

The participants (Teaching Practice Coordinators - TPC and Vice Principals - VP) from the colleges of education strongly agreed that, the mentoring process had serious financial consequences on the mentees. The respondent from college 3, for example, was of the view that the mentees bore

the greatest proportion of the financial cost of the mentoring process. The respondents identified the cost areas as stationery, feeding, accommodation, utility and transportation just as it was observed in the quantitative analysis. Nonetheless, the ranking differs since the mentees made more references to accommodation than stationery, while the college respondents (TPC & VP) referred to stationery more than accommodation, but both were identified as binding constraints on the mentees in both analyses.

The Cost Elements of the Mentoring Programme to the Mentors

The mentors are the closest stakeholders to the mentees on the field, and this put them in a certain position to feel the financial implications of the mentoring process. This section, therefore, seeks to examine the cost elements of the mentoring programme to the mentors. Figure 10 presents statistical data on mentors who incurred cost as a result of ensuring the provision of food, accommodation, stationery and payment of utility bills for student-teachers on the mentoring programme.

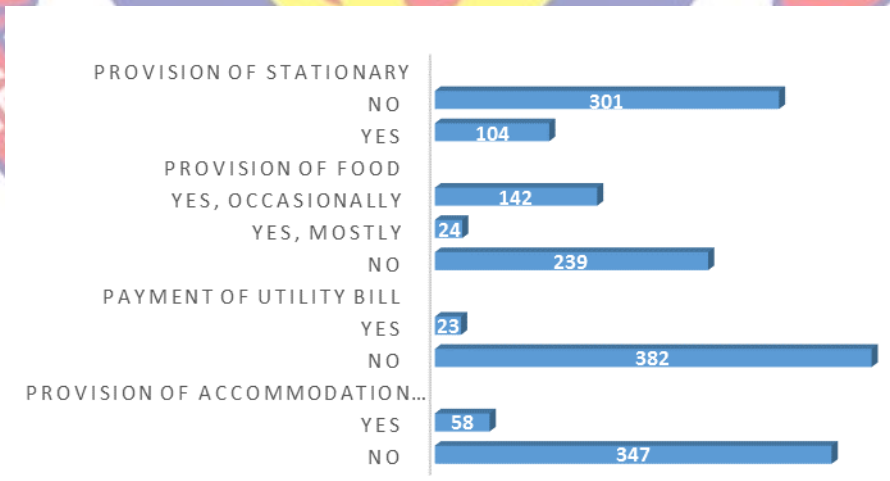


***Figure 10*: Some Cost Areas of Mentoring to the Mentors**
Source: Field Survey (2020)

Figure 10 shows that 104 (25.67%) mentors provided stationery, bought from their own incomes for mentees, 142 (35.06%) of the mentors said that, they provided food to their mentees, but occasionally, 24 (5.93%) mostly provided food for their mentees, while the remaining 239 (59.01%) did not provide food for their mentees. Only 23 (5.68%) mentors specified they did pay for the utility bills (water and/or electricity) for their mentees with 58 (14.32%) indicating that, they had to help the mentees to pay for their accommodation. It was clear that the major cost area to the mentors were food, stationery and, in some cases payment of rent.

The respondents (mentors) were then asked to indicate how much they felt their expenditure had increased as results of the presence of the mentees. The results showed that, 227 (56%) of the mentors said that their expenditures had not been affected by the presence of their mentees, 117 (29%) agreed that their expenditures had increased between 1% and 10%, 37 (9%) said it had increased between 10% and 20% and the remaining 24 (6%) had seen more than 20% increase in their expenditures since the mentees arrived.

Aside of the mentors' assistance to mentees, that is from their own will, the mentors were asked to indicate whether or not the mentees on their own did fall on them for financial assistance and the outcome suggested that 119 (29%) of the mentors had ever been approached by their mentees in request of financial assistance. A further analysis of the cross tabulation of request and mentors' gender suggested that 77 (64.71%,) of the 119 who had ever received request for financial assistance were male which placed the male mentors at the receiving end of financial request from mentees. The reasons for which the mentees had been making financial request from mentors were

also assessed, and the results identified the reasons as transportation, payment of utility bills, feeding and motivation of external supervisors among others. Responses from some of the mentors are presented below:

1. *Transportation*
   a. *Assistance to travel home for medication*
   b. *Transportation to college to meet project work supervisor or attend to one issue or the other*
   c. *Transportation to go home for weekends.*
   d. *Transportation to a centre for cluster lecture*
2. *Payment of bills*
   a. *For payment of utility bills (water and electricity bills)*
   b. *Financial assistance for medical care and other hospital bill*
3. *Feeding*
   a. *To buy food stuffs*
   b. *For personal upkeep or pocket money*
4. *Motivation*
   a. *To motivate college supervisors who come to the school for supervision.*
5. *Others*
   a. *When they needed money to prepare T.L.M.*
   b. *To support family finances. To assist his/ her younger siblings at school.*
   c. *For their project work compilation (mentors)*

The reasons offered by the mentees bothered mainly on their basic needs as well as the on current nature of the mentoring programme, which demanded regular attention of the mentees on their college campuses. That is, the fact that the student-teacher still had their eyes on their final examination on campus after the mentoring programme, as well as travel to campus for supervision of their project works increased their transportation need which might force them to demand assistance from the mentors.

Figure 11 provides data on mentors' position on cost, re-imbursement and remuneration on mentoring during the mentorship period.

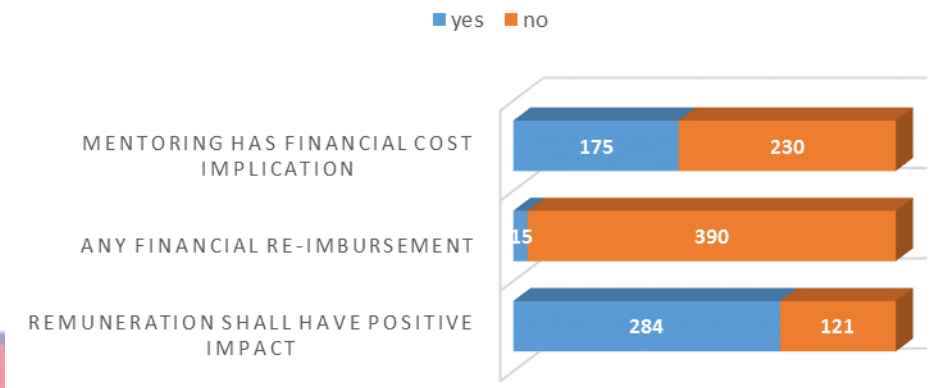


***Figure 11*: Mentors' Position on Cost, Re-imbursement and Remuneration on Mentoring**
Source: Field Survey (2020)

Figure 11 shows the general views of the mentors on financial implications of the mentoring process and the issue of remunerations. Figure 11 reveals that, 175 (43.21%) of the mentors felt the mentoring process had financial implications on themselves. However, only 3.7% (15 out of 405) of the mentors indicated they received some form of re-imbursement from their schools for their role as mentors. Interestingly, 70.12% (279 out of 405) were of the view that any form of remuneration to recognise the efforts of mentors should have positive impact on the mentoring process.

The qualitative responses from the college authorities agreed to the cost elements identified by the mentors. Some of the responses were:

> Yes, I will say though not compulsory, but mentors do incur cost since they are partners in the business. There have been instances where mentees have confessed that, they got very good treatment from their mentors who helped them out by giving them food, money to buy cardboards for TLM's, where the school is unable to give them, the materials needed, and sometimes money for their upkeep. (*P*articipant from College 3)

> Some mentors do it voluntarily, while others do it willingly, based on their relationship with the mentee where it is so cordial. In our area which is a farming community, some go to farm with the mentees over the weekend and supply them with foodstuffs. Some too sometimes with interactions with them (mentors) do give the mentees at the end of the month something small when they realised that, the allowances are not forthcoming. So that too comes at a cost to them. (Participant from College 1)

> Financially? Well, it is possible because when they write the report, they have to type and print their reports. I don't think everybody has the machine for typing, so you will type from where they will charge you. (Participant from College 2).

> Hmm! sometimes mentors who are very good try to give the mentees something, support them to prepare some TLM's, and sometime give them money for food as the mentees also help them (mentors) to do their work. All these come at some cost. It is not compulsory though, but they do it, probably to motivate them to do the work. (Participant from College 4)

The participants (TPC & VP) unanimously agreed that, the mentoring introduced some extra cost to the mentors. The cost areas introduced include: feeding, buying of stationery and on cash motivation. The above items confirmed the cost elements identified by the mentors in the quantitative analysis. Some of the respondents were, however, of the view that, though the mentors sometimes helped the mentees either in cash or in kind, it is not much of an issue because they help them (mentors) to work. Their support to the mentees, thus served as motivation for the mentees to give off their best. Whatever the reason may be, the participants agreed that the mentors did incur

some extra cost mainly due to their involvement in the mentoring process aside their time.

The Joint Effects of the Location of Schools of Attachment and Mentees' Gender on the Financial Cost Elements in the Mentoring Programme

This section discusses the role played by the gender of the mentees and the location of the schools of attachment in the financial cost associated with the mentoring process to the mentee. The two dichotomous variables (gender and location) were combined to produce a categorical variable with four factors including males serving in rural schools, females serving in rural schools, males serving in urban schools and females serving in urban schools. The resultant gender-location variable had the distribution as presented in Figure 12.

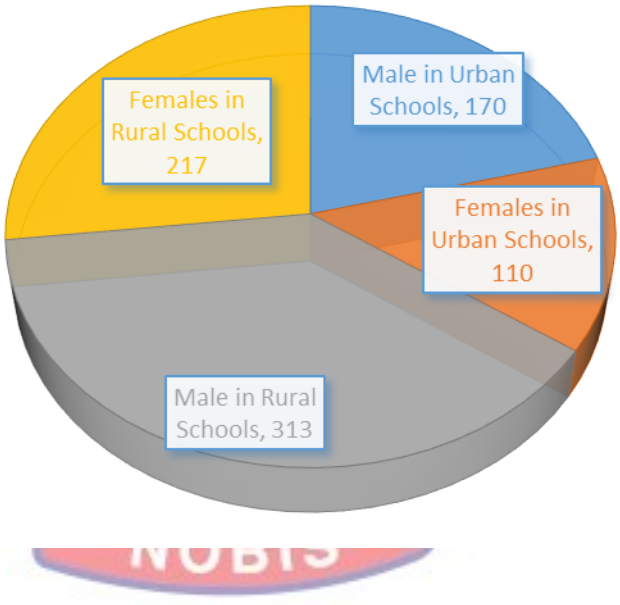


***Figure 12*: Distribution of Mentees' Gender by Location**
Source: Field Survey (2020)

In figure 12, there were 280 (34.57%) mentees (170 males and 110 females) serving in urban areas while 530 (65.43%) (313 males and 217 females) served in rural areas. In all the locations, male mentees were more

than female mentees. The analysis in this section was done with these variables to determine the joint effects of gender and location of schools of attachment.

Figure 13 presents the information on the arrangement of accommodation by student-teachers (mentees) based on their gender and the location of the school of attachment.

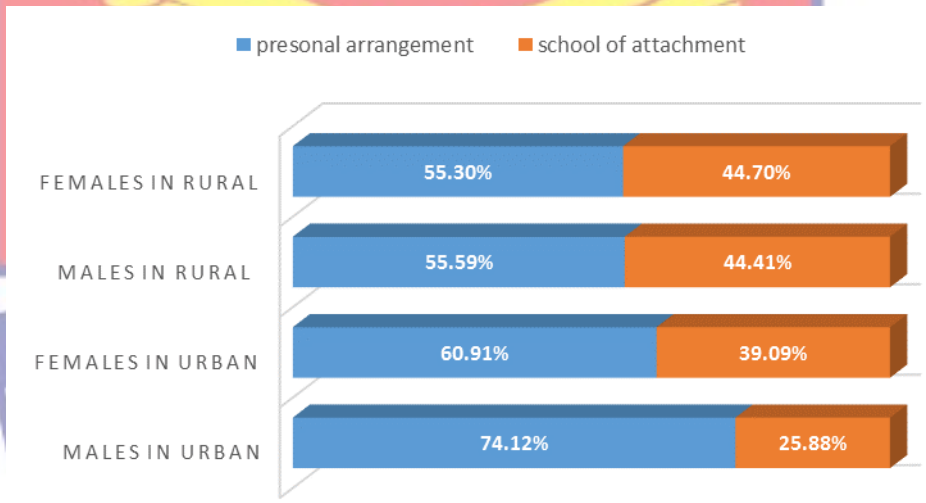


***Figure 13*: Accommodation Arrangements Based on Gender and Location**
Source: Field Survey (2020)

The results as presented in Figure 13, shows that, 55.30% of the female mentees serving in the rural areas made their own arrangements for their accommodation needs, while 55.59% of the male mentees made their own arrangement. In the case of schools in the urban areas, 60.91% of the female mentees and 74.12% of the male mentees made their own arrangement for their accommodation respectively. The general observation was that, more mentees in the urban areas, irrespective of their gender, made their own arrangement for their accommodation than those serving in the rural areas. It was also observed that more males in the urban areas made their own provision for their accommodation than their female counterparts.

Table 18 presents the two-way ANOVA estimates of the mentees' sex, location and their interaction on the payment of utility bills. The multivariate normality test results suggested that the null hypothesis of symmetric distribution could not be rejected at the 5% significance level (Doornik-Hansen: chi2(2) = 5.688, Prob>chi2 = 0.0582>0.05). The robust variance test also found variance across sex (W0 = 2.8171187, df(1, 42), Pr > F = 0.10069038>0.05) and location (W0 = 2.3859939, df(1, 42), Pr > F = 0.1299293>0.05) to be homogenous at the 5% significance level. The R-square and the adjusted R-squares were moderately good and closer to each other which suggested that though there were likely other important variables that explain cost of mentoring, the sex of the mentees and the location of school of attachment are two of them.

Table 18: Two-Way ANOVA Estimations of Sex and Location on Utility Bills

Number of obs = 810				R-squared= 0.4962	
Root MSE = 13.8646				Adj R squared=0.4959	
Source	Partial SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Model	1877.1591	3	625.7197	3.26	0.0314
Gender	1342.0227	1	1342.0227	6.98	0.0117
Location	96.022727	1	96.022727	0.50	0.4838
sex#location	439.11364	1	439.11364	2.28	0.1385
Residual	7689.0909	806	192.22727		
Total	9566.25	809	222.47093		

Sources: Field Survey (2020)

The results, as presented in Table 18, indicate that, the payment of utility bills (F=0.50, P>F=0.4838>0.05) did not depend on the location of the school of attachment, but depended on the gender of the mentee (F=6.98, P>F=0.0117<0.05). The payment of utility bills as well did not depend on the joint effects of gender and location (F=2.28, P>F=0.1385>0.05).

The predictive margin means presented in Table 19 suggested that if all the mentees were serving in the urban areas, then the average utility bill would have been GHS20.14, but it would have been GHS19.63 if all the mentees were serving in rural areas. Both means converge to GHS20.00 which explains why the contrast results rejected any statistical significance between the average utility bill in the urban and rural areas. The results on gender found the predictive margin mean for male students to be about GHS19.00 while that of females was about GHS20.77 which means that, female mentees spend significantly higher than male mentees on utility bill.

Table 19: Margin Means of Utility Bills Based on Gender and Location of Mentees

	Delta-method				[95%Conf. Interval	
Variable	**Margin**	**Std. Err.**	**T**	**P>t**	Low	Upper
Location						
Urban (U)	20.14	0.784	25.69	0.000	18.6001	21.67619
Rural (R)	19.63	0.570	34.46	0.000	18.5161	20.75265
Gender						
Male (M)	19.1588	.5967898	32.10	0.000	17.98735	20.33024
Female (F)	20.76754	.7253829	28.63	0.000	19.34368	22.1914
Location#Gender						
U M	18.70647	1.005849	18.60	0.000	16.73208	20.68086
U F	22.25091	1.250435	17.79	0.000	19.79642	24.7054
R M	19.39776	.7412849	26.17	0.000	17.94269	20.85284
R F	19.98387	.8902817	22.45	0.000	18.23633	21.73142

Sources: Field Survey (2020)

The two-way factorial ANOVA results comparison of mean expenditure on food based on gender and location was fixed after which the margin and contrast results were retrieved for further analysis. The contrast results were presented in Table 20, and the results indicated that gender and location independently explained the feeding cost that the mentees paid, but their interaction did not.

Table 20: Contrast of the Difference in Feeding Cost Across Gender and Location

Variables	Df	F	P>F
Location	1	6.65	0.0101
Gender	1	4.75	0.0296
Location#gender	1	2.70	0.1007
Denominator	806	-	-

Sources: Field survey (2020)

The predictive margin means of Gender and Location and their interaction was presented in Table 21.

Table 21: Margin Means of Feeding Based on Gender and Location of Mentees

	Delta-method					
	Margin	Std. Err.	T	P>t	[95% Conf.	Interval
Location						
Urban (U)	11.39231	.1922149	59.27	0.000	11.01501	11.76961
Rural (R)	10.63694	.2644987	40.22	0.000	10.11775	11.15613
Gender						
Male (M)	10.76904	.2013537	53.48	0.000	10.3738	11.16428
Female (F)	11.66611	.2447403	47.67	0.000	11.18571	12.14651
Location#gender						
U M	10.56471	.3393681	31.13	0.000	9.898556	11.23086
U F	10.74364	.4218899	25.47	0.000	9.915504	11.57177
R M	10.877	.2501056	43.49	0.000	10.38606	11.36793
R F	12.15346	.3003763	40.46	0.000	11.56384	12.74307

Sources: Field Survey (2020)

The margin means, as presented in Table 21, shows that the average food expenditure in urban areas was significantly higher than that of rural areas (urban mean=11.39231, rural mean=10.63694). Further, the results indicated that, female mentees had higher margin mean expenditure on food than male mentees (Female mean=11.66611, Male mean=10.76904). The interactive effects, however, were not statistically significant at explaining expenditure on feeding.

These views of the mentors and mentees on the perceived implications of the financial cost on the mentoring programme in general were sought. The

analysis was done along the gender and the location of schools of attachment using frequencies and percentages. The chi-square test of dependency was used to test the statistical dependency of the views across the two factor variables.

Table 22 presents the respondents' views on the perceived effects of financial cost on the efficiency of mentors and mentees during the mentoring period

Table 22: The Perceived Effects of Financial Cost on the Efficiency of Mentors and Mentees during the Mentoring Period

	Mentors		Mentees	
Obstacle	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
No	156(60.94)	105(70. 47)	33(6.92)	15(4.50)
Minor	66(25.78)	35(23.49)	70(14.67)	65(19.52)
Moderate	20(7.81)	5(3.36)	116(24.32)	78(23.42)
Major	10(3.90)	4(2.68)	169(35.43)	141(42.34)
Severe	4(1.56)	0(0.00)	89(18.66)	34(10.21)
Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages				
Chi-square test	Pearson chi2(4) = 8.10	Pr = 0.088	Pearson chi2(4) = 15.38	Pr = 0.004

Sources: Field survey (2020)

Table 22 shows that, a greater proportion of both male and female mentors considered financial cost implications as no obstacle or a minor obstacle on the contributions of mentors themselves to the mentoring process (males=86.72% and females=93.96%). The chi-square test of dependency found no statistical dependency between gender and the perceived cost implications of the mentoring process on mentors (Pearson chi2(4) = 8.1039, Pr = 0.088<0.05).

The table further shows that, a representative number of mentees saw the adverse effects of the financial cost implications on their performance in the mentoring process; with about 116 (24.32%), 169 (35.43%) and 89 (18.66%) of the male mentees and 78 (23.42%), 141 (42.34%) and 34 (10.21%) of the female mentees indicating moderate obstacle, major obstacle

and severe obstacle respectively. The chi-square test suggested that the views of the mentees statistically depended on their (Pearson chi2(4) = 15.3856, Pr = 0.004<0.05). The proportion of the moderate, major and severe obstacle suggested that, the males perceived financial cost as more binding constraint than the females.

Table 23: Cost as an Obstacle Based on the Location of the Schools of Attachment

	Mentors		Mentees	
Obstacle	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Rural**
No	64(46.38)	190(71.16)	14(5.00)	34(6.42)
Minor	37 (26.81)	55(20.60)	46(16.43)	85(16.04)
Moderate	28(20.29)	7(2.62)	69(24.64)	130(24.53)
Major	3(2.17)	11(4.12)	110(39.29)	199(37.55)
Severe	6(4.35)	4(1.50)	41(14.64)	82(15.47)
Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages				
Chi-square test	Pearson chi2(4) = 28.4638	Pr = 0.000	Pearson chi2(4) = 0.8654	Pr = 0.929

Sources: Field survey (2020)

Table 23 found significant dependency between the views of mentors on financial implications on themselves and location (Pearson chi2(4) =28.4638, Pr = 0.000<0.05). It was clear that the mentors in the rural areas perceived cost as less obstacles than the mentors in the urban areas (No obstacle was 64 (46.38%) for urban and 190 (71.16%) in the rural areas). No statistical dependency was observed between the views of the mentees and location of schools of attachment (Pearson chi2(4) = 0.8654, Pr = 0.929>0.05). The results simply indicated that more mentees perceived financial cost as an obstacle irrespective of location of school of attachment.

The analysis was extended to cover the perception on financial cost as an obstacle to the smooth running of the mentoring process in general as presented in Table 24.

Table 24: Financial Cost as an Obstacle to the Mentoring Process Based on Gender

	Mentors		Mentees	
Obstacle	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
No	106(41.40)	98(65.77)	47(9.85)	28(8.41)
Minor	74(28.90)	35(23.50)	72(15.09)	69(20.72)
Moderate	36(14.06)	9(6.04)	108(22.64)	82(24.62)
Major	26(10.16)	7(4.69)	157(32.91)	125(37.53)
Severe	14(5.47)	0(0.00)	93(19.50)	29(8.71)
Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages				
Chi-square test	Pearson chi2(4) = 11.25	Pr = 0.024	Pearson chi2(4) = 19.96	Pr = 0.001

Sources: Field Survey (2020)

The results, as presented in Table 24, shows that most mentors perceived financial cost as less obstacle to the smooth running of the mentoring process (Pearson chi2(4) = 19.9567, Pr = 0.001). The female mentors perceived it as less obstacle as compared to the male mentors. The male mentees again perceived higher level of obstacle from the financial cost to mentoring than the female mentees (Pearson chi2(4) = 19.9567, Pr = 0.001). The views of both the mentors and mentees were found to be dependent on the location of the schools of attachment.

The results in Table 25 shows that, the rural mentors perceived it as less obstacle as compared to the urban mentors, though both saw financial cost as less obstacle. The rural mentees saw financial cost as relatively more obstacle than the urban mentees.

Table 25: Perceived Level of Financial Cost as Obstacle to the Mentoring Process Based on Location

	Mentors		Mentees	
Obstacle	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Rural**
No	55(39.85)	161(60.30)	23(8.21)	48(9.06)
Minor	47(34.06)	69(25.84)	61(21.79)	80(15.09)
Moderate	25(18.12)	20(7.49)	74(26.43)	119(22.45)
Major	10(7.25)	14(5.24)	84(30.00)	198(37.36)
Severe	1(0.72)	3(1.12)	38(13.57)	85(16.04)
Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages				
Chi-square test	Pearson chi2(4) = 13.83	Pr = 0.008	Pearson chi2(4) =	9.65 Pr = 0.047

Sources: Field survey (2020)

The results in Table 25 shows that, the mentors saw financial cost as a minor or no obstacle to the smooth running of the mentoring process while on the other hand, the mentees perceived it as a major or severe obstacle. The views of the mentees were found to depend on their gender and the location of their schools of attachment as the males saw it as more obstacle than the female mentees.

Discussion of Results

The study provides information to address the stated research objective as it provided answers to the research question 3 and hypothesis 3 and 4. The first theme was to examine the financial cost elements of the mentoring process to the mentees. The study showed that, accommodation, utility bills, stationery and feeding cost were the major financial cost elements to the mentees in the mentoring process, though, a relatively smaller number had transport cost as the fifth cost elements to budget for on daily basis. The initial analysis indicated that, the schools of attachment made tireless efforts to provide some form of accommodation to student-teachers, but that mostly resulted in sharing (two or more mentees in a room)

The mentees, however, admitted to bearing the cost of their accommodation in most cases. The possible reasons for this seemingly contradiction was observed to be due to the fact that, the colleges sometimes posted more mentees than what a school of attachment might have requested for. Then, there were some students who chose to seek their individual accommodation for comfort by renting their own apartment. It was unanimously agreed that all the student-teachers almost always had to bear the cost of their utility bills, such as water and electricity whether the accommodation was provided for them or rented by themselves.

Considering the extent to which the schools of attachment complained about funding for the mentoring programme, it was not surprising that, they mostly did not want to absorb a recurrent expenditure like utility bills. Another plausible reason for which schools of attachment did not want to absorb utility bills could be the issue of tragedy of commons for which student might have the incentive to over-consume the service when it was made free for all the mentees (Siegel, 2010). The tragedy of the commons simply refers to the tendency of individuals to over-use common resources because they feel others are using it for free and they do not have to maintain or pay for it (Ahmed, 2015). Siegel applied the concept to utility bills and stated that, individuals have less incentive to conserve them when they do not have to bear the full cost of the services, such as water and electricity. Hence, asking students to foot their own bills is and remains a good check on their consumption level for water and electricity. Stationery cost was also linked to the fact that, TLM preparation for teaching practice involves purchasing stationery. The extent of stationery cost, therefore, depends partly on the

availability of the TLM in the schools of attachment and their availability to the mentees.

Feeding cost was another major cost element identified by the mentees. Secondary data at the administration section of the colleges suggested that, mentees did not pay for their feeding while on the out-segment. This implies that the mentees had enough money on their school fees to support their feeding while on the out-segment. But the comparison between the daily expenditure on feeding during the out-segment and the daily feeding expenditure at the college indicated a significant difference that the students must cover. The data available suggested that, the daily feeding charge at the colleges at the time of data collection for this study was GHS7.00, as compared to the study's estimated average daily expenditure on feeding of about GHS11.00 when the mentees were on their own on the out-segment. Hence, on the average, the mentees had a difference of GHS4.00 to cover daily when on the out programme as compared to being on campus, keeping, other factors, such as snacking on campus constant. Most of the mentees, therefore, estimated that their feeding cost had increased between 10 to 20 percent in the mentoring period as compared to their feeding expenditure on campuses which included their snacks.

The second theme was on the cost elements of the mentoring process to the mentors. The results suggest that, the major cost areas to the mentors were feeding, stationery, and in some rare cases, accommodation and transport cost. The fact that the cost areas of the mentors and mentees coincided meant further analysis was needed to be done on the response of the mentors. The mentors indicated that, their expenditure on the mentoring process was mainly

a form of support to their mentees in the areas of food, stationery, transport fares to travel to the house or campus and, sometimes rent. It could be concluded that, the mentees transferred part of their financial burden to their mentors who in addition to spending extra-time to mentor the mentees must also commit financial resources to help them where necessary. The mentors further indicated that they received no financial reimbursement of any form for their role as mentors, but rather had to commit part of their incomes to the process.

The outcome on mentoring cost to mentees and mentors confirmed the outcomes of the few empirical studies that had concentrated on the subject matter. The NTC Policy Brief (2007) indicated that, the major and minor cost for providing high-quality new teacher support included: personnel, indirect costs (facilities, equipment & materials), programme inputs (such as room rental), and client inputs (such as teachers' personal time) among others. NTC Policy Brief further suggested that, to provide a positive return on investment in a student-teacher mentoring, there should be deliberate attempt to reduce personnel cost to enhance student learning during the mentoring period. Lewin and Stuart (2003) added that, the cost for mentees and mentors in developing countries is high because, educational programme arrangements in developing countries are unpredictable and irregular and thus creates an unstable learning environment for teacher training. In addition, on the issue of structure and organisation of mentoring programme, Edwards, Green, and Lyons (2002: p. 131) made an elaborate explanation:

> coordination of teacher training by the key players (in developing) is based on an approach which concentrates only on the structures which define teacher education. The

problem with this approach is that although it may save some money for the parties involved, the poor impact that this approach brings is the real cost to those at the cutting edge of education – the tutors and students – who find themselves forced into a simplistic structure which does not map on to the complex world they actually experience.

The position of Edwards, Green, and Lyons (2002) on mentoring and its effects on mentors and mentees could be seen in the Ghanaian context where student-teachers continue to take the same allowances while on out-programme as on campus. Meaning, the policy makers see no apparent change in the students' situation and, therefore, mentors and mentees are forced not only to improvise TLMs, but also, some aspects of their lives due to monetary and other cost elements of the mentoring programme. Field and Philpott (2000) stated that, mentoring and school-based training are demanding and costly to all stakeholders.

The final theme was about the mediating role of gender of mentees and the location of schools of attachment on the cost of the mentoring process. The results indicated that, more mentees in the urban areas, irrespective of gender, provided for their own accommodation than mentees in the rural areas. Nonetheless, more males in the urban areas provided for their own accommodation than females in the urban areas. The observations could be explained that urban accommodation might be hard to find by the schools of attachment. However, the school administrations were more likely to consider females first in any limited accommodation they could provide. In some cases, the school authorities fell on the natives of the communities of attachment who had vacant accommodations in the town, but lived in cities for accommodation

for the mentees. The school authorities in rural communities could, sometimes even access these apartments for free once these landlords understood the benefits of the mentoring process to their communities, but the same could not be said of the urban areas (Garau, 2015). Latham & Fifield (1993) had long observed statistically significant difference in the expenditure patterns in rural and urban areas. The fact that urban areas had higher cost of living as compared to rural, especially for food and accommodation, was not farfetched (Eduful and Hooper, 2019). The mentees in urban areas only got caught-up in this higher cost of living based on the location of their schools of attachment.

The results further indicated that, females, both in rural and urban, paid more on utility bills and feeding than their male mentees. This finding could be explained by the possibility that the females used more gadgets for their livelihood than males. There were also the cultural demands for some female mentees to provide food for their male counterparts which eventually increased their feeding cost over that of the male mentees. Gender and location therefore significantly explained the cost patterns of the mentees in the study area. Location of schools of attachment did not significantly influence the amount of utility bills paid which confirmed that utility bills were not determined in the open market where population density and cost of living could influence. Ghana has a billing system for utilities, such as water and electricity and this depends on quantity used and not location of usage (Public Utility Regulatory Commission, 2018). Therefore, if a mentee in the rural area uses more electricity or water than those in urban areas, he or she will have to pay more for the services consumed.

Additionally, the chapter examined the possible effects of the cost components of mentoring process on the effectiveness of the mentoring programme. The results suggested that location and gender explained the perception of cost as an obstacle to the efficiency of the mentors and mentees and on the smooth running of the mentoring programme in general. Mentors perceived fewer negative impacts of cost on mentoring than the mentees. The finding that mentors perceived cost as less obstacle than mentees was in support of the views of Ragins and Scandura (1999), who stated that individuals lacking mentoring experience anticipate greater cost and fewer benefits than experienced individuals. That is, the mentors are involved in mentoring every year and have an experience on how to minimise cost and its associated effects than mentees who are experiencing mentoring and its cost implications for the first time. Mentors and mentees in urban areas see cost more as an obstacle than those in the rural areas.

The views of the mentees on the effects of cost on the mentoring programme were not influenced by gender though in absolute terms, the males perceived it as more an obstacle than the females. The observation that though females had higher expenditure pattern than the males, but perceived financial cost as less an obstacle to the effective running of mentoring programme could be attributed to the fact that female students may have multiple income sources. Socially, most of the female students from 25 years and above could be formally or informally engaged to a partner who might be gainfully employed and could be of assistance aside any parental or guardian supports.

Chapter Summary

This chapter dealt with the cost elements of the mentoring process to the mentors and mentees involved in the mentoring process, and its implication on the success of the programme. The mixed method approach (quantitative and qualitative) was used for the analysis of the data.

The outcome validated the special role that resource played in the assessment of mentoring as a construct; which in the conceptual framework was related to the resource domain. The findings suggested that, the mentoring process had major cost elements to mentees and mentors in the areas of accommodation, utility bills, feeding, stationery and transportation. The components of cost were observed to be significantly depended on either gender or location but not their interaction. The implication of cost on the mentoring process was found to be generally negative.

CHAPTER SEVEN

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

SOURCES OF CONFLICTS IN THE MENTORING PROCESS

Introduction

This chapter examines the sources of conflicts between mentors and mentees during the mentoring process of the colleges of education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. Both quantitative and qualitative analysis was considered in this chapter.

Sources of Conflicts between Mentors and Mentees during the Mentoring Process

The analysis was done separately for mentors and mentees because there were certain particular issues each group was expected to comment on. The outcome of the analysis pointed to a general conclusion that conflicts did exist but at a very minimal level from the sources identified in this study. Almost all the statements were generally rejected by not less than 75% of the respondents which made them less of a major source of conflicts than were initially anticipated, and had been also observed in other studies. Unless other conflicts areas were identified in future studies, the results of this study maintained that, conflicts were not a constraint on the success of the student teachers' mentoring programme in Ghana.

There were, however, traces of such factors resulting in conflicts in some few cases as revealed by the mentors as presented in table 26. The results showed that 113 (27.9%) of the mentors indicated that sexual relationship between mentors and mentees created conflicts between them during the mentoring period.

Table 26: Sources of Conflicts from the Mentors' Viewpoint

STATEMENT	SA	A	MA	DA	SDA
Intimate sexual relationship creates conflicts between mentors and mentees during mentoring	58 (14.3)	30 (7.4)	25 (6.2)	76 (18.8)	216 (53.3)
My mentee draws religious issues into the mentoring process which creates conflicts	8 (2.0)	10 (2.5)	13 (3.2)	119 (29.4)	255 (63.0)
My mentee draws political issues into the mentoring process which creates conflicts	4 (1.0)	12 (3.0)	12 (3.0)	110 (27.2)	267 (65.9)
My mentee draws ethnic issues into the mentoring process which creates conflicts	6 (1.5)	6 (1.5)	12 (3.0)	128 (31.6)	253 (62.5)
Lesson plan preparation creates conflicts between me and my mentee	29 (7.2)	62 (15.3)	51 (12.6)	86 (21.2)	177 (43.7)
Lateness and absenteeism of mentee to class creates conflict between me and my mentee	30 (7.4)	42 (10.4)	50 (12.3)	90 (22.22)	193 (47.7)
Sharing of TLM creates conflicts between mentors and mentees	3 (7)	8 (2.0)	14 (3.5)	139 (34.3)	241 (59.5)
My mentees do not respect me as a mentor	16 (4.0)	21 (5.2)	24 (5.9)	71 (17.5)	273 (67.4)
My mentee shares my secrets with others which creates tension between us	8 (2.0)	21 (5.2)	70(17.3)	97 (24.0)	201 (49.6)
My mentee extends the relationship beyond school hours which creates conflict between us	4 (1.0)	9 (2.2)	12 (3.0)	111 (27.4)	269 (66.4)
My mentee leaves all the work (does not support) on me which makes me feel bad	5 (1.2)	12 (3.0)	23 (5.7)	111 (27.4)	254 (62.7)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages

Source: Field work (2020)

On religion and politics 31 (7.7%) and 28 (7%) of mentors respectively felt that religious and political issues sometimes led to conflicts while 24 (6%) blamed ethnicities as a source of conflict. In addition, 142 (35.1%) accepted preparation of lesson notes as a source of conflict between mentors and mentees. Another 122 (30.1%) of mentors felt that lateness and absenteeism on the part of mentees created conflicts in the mentoring process. Interestingly, the sharing of TLMs and disrespect from mentees did not constitute a major source of conflicts from the perspective of the mentors. Also, it was observed that, about 99 (24.5%) mentors saw mentees sharing of the mentors secrete with outsiders as constituting a source of conflicts in the mentoring process. The possibility that mentees could extend relationship beyond the classroom and mentees leaving all the work on the mentors were all not endorsed as main sources of conflicts. Hence, the major sources of conflicts from the mentors' perspectives were intimate sexual relationship among mentors and mentees, lesson notes preparation, lateness and absenteeism on the part of the mentees, and mentees sharing of mentors secretes with outsiders.

Table 27: Sources of Conflicts from the Mentees' Viewpoints

STATEMENT	SA	A	MA	DA	SDA
Intimate sexual relationship creates conflicts between mentors and mentees during mentoring	85 (10.5)	119(14.7)	97 (12.0)	106 (13.1)	403 (49.7)
My mentor draws religious issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict	27 (3.3)	25 (3.1)	33 (4.1)	215 (26.5)	510 (63)
My mentor draws political issues into the mentoring process which creates conflicts	20 (2.5)	33 (4.1)	26 (3.2)	201 (24.8)	530 (65.4)
My mentor draws ethnic issues into the mentoring process which create conflicts	26. (3.2)	27 (3.3)	21 (2.6)	200 (24.7)	536 (66.2)
Lesson plan preparation creates conflicts between me and my	38 (4.7)	102 (12.6)	57 (7.0)	104 (12.8)	509 (62.8)
Lateness and absenteeism to class on my part creates conflicts between me and my mentor	39 (4.8)	40 (4.9)	27 (3.3)	200 (24.7)	504 (62.2)
Sharing of TLM creates conflicts between mentors and mentees	34 (4.2)	28 (3.5)	31 (3.8)	219 (27)	498 (61.5)
The way my mentor corrects me makes me feel bad since they are more of criticisms than critique	80 (9.9)	86 (10.6)	159 (19.6)	195 (24.1)	300 (37.0)
My mentor corrects me right in front of the pupils which makes me feel cold towards him	62 (7.7)	123 (15.2)	89 (11.0)	150 (18.5)	386 (47.7)
My mentor shares my secrets with others which create tension between us	49 (6.0)	112 (13.8)	148 (18.3)	101 (12.5)	400 (49.4)
My mentor extends his or her dominion on me beyond school hours which create conflicts between us	40 (4.9)	43 (5.3)	19 (2.3)	183 (22.6)	525 (64.8)
My mentor discriminates among his mentees which create conflicts among us	105 (13.0)	138 (17.0)	110(13.6)	104 (12.8)	353 (43.6)
My mentor leaves all the work on me (mentee) which makes me feel bad	124 (15)	101(12.5)	113(14.0)	158 (19.5)	314 (38.8)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages

Source: Field work (2020)

The mentees' views on the issues relating to sources of conflicts in the mentoring process was sought and results are presented in Table 27. The situation was not different from that of the mentors since most of the sources were rejected. However, 301 (37.2%) mentees accepted the statement that intimate sexual relationship between mentors and mentees creates conflicts between them during the mentoring process. Religious, political and ethnic issues were rejected by about 725 (89.5%) 731 (90.2%) and 736 (90.9%) respectively as major sources of conflicts in the mentoring process.

Besides, 197 (24.3%) mentees accepted preparation of lesson notes as a source of conflicts, but only 106 (13%) blamed conflicts on the lateness and absenteeism on the part of the mentees. The mentees again did not see sharing of TLMs as conflicts situation with 717 (88.5%) of them rejecting the statement. Also, 690 (85.2%) rejected the statement that their mentors made fun of them that suggested the situation existed among some 14.8% of the mentors. Again, 325 (40.1%) of the mentees felt that the way their mentors corrected their mistakes made them feel bad since they were more of criticisms than critique and then 274 (33.9%) felt their mentors corrected them right in front of the pupils which made them feel cold towards him/her. Also, 309 (32.2%) of the mentees felt their mentors shared personal secretes of the mentees with other people, and this bred dispute between them.

The mentees rejected the view that their mentors extended their dominion beyond the school environment which could create conflicts. However, 353 (43.6%) of the mentees believed that their mentors discriminated among their mentees which bred discontent and created conflicts. Finally, 338 (41.8%) mentees felt that their mentors left all the work

on them without supporting them. Overall, the mentees identified intimate sexual relationship between mentors and mentees, preparation of lesson notes, sharing of mentees secretes, mode of correction, timing for correction, discrimination among mentees by mentors and the cases where mentors left all the work on the mentees as sources of conflicts in the mentoring process though it was minimal.

Table 28: Lead Mentors and Link Tutors' Perception of Conflicts in the Mentoring Process

	Lead Mentors					Link Tutors				
Sources of Conflict	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**DA**	**SDA**
Conflict is a major component of the mentoring process	8 (5.9)	20 (14.7)	13 (9.6)	38 (27.9)	57 (41.9)	6 (6.5`)	12 (13.0)	18 (19.6)	25 (27.2)	31 (33.7)
Issues of sexual relationships between mentors and mentees are major sources of conflicts	5 (3.7)	18 (13.2)	7 (5.1)	55 (40.4)	51 (37.5)	7 (7.6)	12 (13.0)	21 (22.8)	24 (26.1)	28 (30.5)
Issues of sexual relationships between other staffs and mentees are major sources of conflicts	9 (6.6)	25 (18.4)	19 (14)	47 (34.6)	36 (26.5)	4 (4.3)	13 (14.1)	20 (21.7)	32 (34.8)	23 (25.0)
Issues of sexual relationships between mentees of opposite sex are major sources of conflicts	9 (6.6)	22 (16.2)	19 (14)	45 (33.1)	41 (30.1)	9 (9.8)	15 (16.3)	17 (18.5)	24 (26.1)	27 (29.3)
Where the mentor and mentee are of the opposite sex, the spouse of the mentor can be a source of conflict	3 (2.2)	16 (11.8)	12 (8.8)	45 (33.1)	60 (44.1)	4 (4.3)	28 (30.4)	-	40 (43.5)	20 (21.7)
Religious and political difference has been a major source of conflict between mentors and mentees	1 (0.7)	10 (7.4)	3 (2.2)	42 (30.9)	80 (58.8)	4 (4.3)	4 (4.3)	16 (17.4)	36 (39.1)	32 (34.6)
Ethnicity play a major role in creating conflicts between mentors and mentees	1 (0.7)	8 (5.59)	8 (5.9)	47 (34.6)	72 (52.9)	8 (8.7)	7 (7.6)	10 (10.9)	35 (38.0)	32 (34.8)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages

Source: Field work (2020)

The views of the lead mentors and the link tutors were assessed on the sources of conflicts in the mentoring process as independent assessments of the mentors and mentees relationship. Hence, most of the issues they commented on mainly bothered on the activities of the mentors and the mentees. The results revealed that 41 (30.2%) of the lead mentors and 36 (39.1%) of the link tutors believed that conflict was a major component of the mentoring process. Also, 30 (22%) of the lead mentors and 40 (43.4%) of the link tutors indicated that issues of sexual relationships between mentors and mentees were major source of conflicts in the schools of attachment and this affects the mentoring programme.

Moreover, 53 (39%) of the lead mentors and 37 (40.1%) of the link tutors felt intimate sexual relationship between mentees and other staff in the schools of attachment created conflicts while as many as 50 (36.8%) of the lead mentors and 41 (44.6%) of the link tutors believed sexual relationships between mentees of opposite sex constituted a major source of conflicts in the mentoring process. Again, 31 (22.8%) of the lead mentors and 32 (34.7%) of the link tutors were of the views that in the case where the mentor and mentee were of the opposite sex, the spouse of the mentor could be a source of conflicts. It was again discovered that religious, political and ethnic differences were not key sources of conflicts in the mentoring process as very few lead mentors and link tutors endorsed the statements.

Table 29: Lead Mentors and Link Tutors' Perception of Conflicts in the Mentoring Process

	Lead Mentors					Link Tutors				
Sources of Conflicts	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**DA**	**SDA**	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**DA**	**SDA**
Lack of content knowledge of the mentor relative to the mentee creates conflicts as mentors feel intimidated.	6 (4.4)	12 (8.8)	28 (20.6)	50 (36.8)	40 (29.4)	4 (4.3)	28 (30.4)	20 (21.7)	32 (34.8)	8 (8.7)
Lesson note preparation is a major source of conflicts between mentors and mentees	1 (0.7)	12 (8.8)	28 (20.6)	43 (31.6)	52 (38.2)	8 (8.7)	36 (39.1)	20 (21.7)	20 (21.7)	8 (8.7)
Head teachers over empower mentees against their mentors which create conflicts	3 (2.2)	9 (6.6)	13 (9.6)	36 (26.5)	75 (55.1)	8 (8.7)	32 (34.8)	16 (17.4)	28 (30.4)	8 (8.7)
Female mentors create more conflicts than male mentors	12 (8.8)	17 (12.5)	25 (18.4)	44 (32.4)	38 (27.9)	4 (4.3)	24 (26.1)	24 (26.1)	32 (34.8)	8 (8.7)
Female mentees create more conflicts than male mentees	17 (12.5)	21 (15.4)	18 (13.2)	45 (33.1)	35 (25.7)	4 (4.3)	24 (26.1)	12 (13)	48 (52.2)	4 (4.3)
Conflicts are more likely to occur when mentors have same sex than in the case of opposite sex.	7 (5.1)	7 (5.1)	22 (16.2)	48 (35.3)	52 (38.2)	4 (4.3)	28 (30.4)	16 (17.4)	32 (34.8)	12 (13)
Mentors, mentees and all parties are often comfortable with the way conflict is resolved between mentor and mentee by the head teacher or the link tutors	50 (36.8)	49 (36)	13 (9.6)	3 (2.2)	21 (15.4)	8 (8.7)	64 (69.6)	16 (17.4)	-	4 (4.3)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentages

Source: Field work (2020)

However, 46 (33.8%) of the lead mentors and 52 (56.4%) of the link tutors agreed that conflicts arose when there was disparity in the content knowledge of the mentors as compared to the mentees since the mentors might feel intimidated. Lesson note preparation was also found to be a major source of conflicts by 41 (30.1%) of the lead mentors and about 64 (69.5%) of the link tutors.

Another source of conflicts was how the lead mentors orientated the mentees towards the mentors since about 56 (60.9%) of the link tutors felt the head teachers over empowered mentees against their mentors which created conflicts, but only 25 (18.4%) of the lead mentors accepted it. Also, 54 (39.7%) of the lead mentors and 52 (56.5%) of the link tutors believed that female mentors created more conflicts than male mentors while 56 (41.1%) and 40 (43.4%) of the lead mentors and link tutors respectively agreed that female mentees create more conflicts than male mentees.

Finally, 36 (26.4%) lead mentors and 48 (52.1%) link tutors were of the views that conflicts were more likely to occur when mentors had same sex with mentees than in the case of those of opposite sex. On the issue of conflict resolution, 112 (82.4%) of the lead mentors and 88 (95.7%) of the link tutors believed that mentors, mentees and all parties were often comfortable with the way conflicts were resolved between them by the head teachers and/or the link tutors.

Juxtaposing the views of the mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the link tutors, it was observed that issues of sexual relationships among various actors, preparation of lesson notes and the sharing of each other's secretes to others stakeholders, differences in content knowledge, over empowering of

mentees by head teachers, the gender composition of mentors and mentees were among major sources of conflicts by both mentors and mentees along their own peculiar sources of conflicts. Interestingly, religion, political affiliations and ethnicity did not significantly contribute to the perceived sources of conflicts in the mentoring process of the Central-Western Zone colleges of education in Ghana.

The qualitative response also offered an insight to some areas of conflicts in the mentoring process. Below are some of the comments from a *P*articipant in College four:

> Yeah! There are incidences of conflicts, and in my view, they are two, namely, the academic conflicts and non-academic conflicts with the later caused by social issues. When it comes to academic conflicts you know we train our students in a certain way to be in tune with modern trends in teaching. Particularly, the use of new technology, the approach and the techniques for teaching. In furtherance of that, what we teach them is what we expect them to practice when they go out. However, this may sometimes, be at variance with what the mentors practise as they may have been taught in a different era at the college and may not have attended any workshop on new trends in teaching. Consequently, mentees in their attempt to bring out what they've been taught to practise, risk running into conflict situations with their mentors. So that is one area of conflict. The second has to do with social issues, the attitude of I'm the boss, I'm a male, you are just a mentee and I can lord it over you pops up here and there. When they go above board it becomes a problem. With regard to the mentees and the communities, these students sometimes step on their toes when it comes to unofficial relationships. As usually few of them will go for girlfriends, boyfriends or whatever in the community, this creates problems. Sometimes, in the houses that they stay, there are certain issues that pop up such as payment of electricity and water

> bills as well as general cleaning of the house, among others. These are issues that normally create conflicts between the community members and the mentees. (Participant from College 4)

The respondent categorised the issue of conflicts into academic and non-academic sources. The academic sources identified included the differences in pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and exposure to technology or current trends in teaching between the mentors and the mentees. The non-academic sources included the ego of either the mentor or the mentee, sexual relationships, payment of utility bills and general cleaning of the places of residence which could be grouped into school environment (ego and sexual relationship among the mentees and mentors) and the community environment (sexual relationship with community members, payment of bills and cleaning of places of residence).

The participants (TPC & VP) from college 1 and 2 also recounted the situations in their catchment areas as:

> Dear, we have two categories. Usually, between the mentors or lead mentors and mentees, and between mentees and the community. With that of the mentors, some of the student-teachers, sometimes do show some sort of gross insubordination to the mentors and as a result, the mentors would not open up during the mentorship programme. Because one, the mentee may not come to class or school on time and two, the mentee may not come and probably mark class exercises or will be making phone calls during classes' hours. Such behaviours are not welcomed by many mentors because they have been trained and been told not to so. Secondly, in the communities, the challenges have to do with students' amoral relationship with some of the community members, more especially, the male mentees. It is even more

> worrying when it is female mentees snatching the husbands of some women in the communities. (*P*articipant from College 1).
>
> Hm! In terms of the male mentees, it is the girls in the communities who offer themselves to them. I don't know what they see in them. They do this through I want to fetch water for you, I want to cook for you which later develops into something else and they befriend them. Unknowingly to the mentees sometimes, such women already have boyfriends in the communities. When this happens, the community members would be chasing the mentees, beating or insulting them and this usually result in conflicts. (*P*articipant from College 2).

The responses confirm the cases of some levels of conflicts between the mentors and mentees and between the mentees and the community members of the schools of attachment. Aside sexual relationships, the *p*articipants identified insubordination among mentees such as lateness to school and making of long calls during school hours. It was obvious from the responses that sexual relationship with the community members had spilled over effects on the mentorship programme by generating tensions among the mentees and the community members.

Discussion of the Results

The analysis provided responses to address the objective four of the study. It was intended to examine sources of conflicts between mentors and mentees during the mentoring process. The results showed that, direct conflicts were not a major constraint to the mentoring process in the study area, though as a human institution, traces of them could be identified. The major sources of conflicts identified were issues of sexual relationships among various actors (mentors, mentees lead mentors and link tutor), preparation of

lesson notes, exposing of each other secretes, differences in content knowledge between mentors and mentees, over empowering of mentees by head teachers, the gender composition of mentors and mentees. The study revealed that, the sources of conflicts could be grouped into academic and non-academic. The major academic sources of conflict were the differences in the mentors and mentees exposure to current trends on pedagogy while the issues bothering on conduct were also identified as non-academic.

Interestingly, religion, political affiliation and ethnicity did not significantly contribute to the sources of conflicts in the mentoring programme in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana. The observation that ethnicity, especially was not a major source of conflicts was rather surprising as the schools of attachment were mostly within the catchment areas of the colleges, and students usually interacted with community members with different cultures. Jaspers et al. (2014) posited that, mentoring process has higher tendency to result in cultural clash between mentees and the community of attachment, but the outcome of this study proved otherwise, as both religion and ethnicity did not pose much threat to the smooth implementation of the mentoring process.

On the issue of lesson notes preparation, the issues were more likely to be verbal than substantive dispute. Verbal dispute occurs in a discourse if the parties defer on the right meaning of a concept or how something should be done. Since the student-teachers were preparing the lesson notes for the first time outside what they had learnt from their college tutors during the on-campus teaching practice, and the mere fact that the lesson notes preparation on the field might differ slightly from that of the college, predisposed the

mentors and the mentees to verbal dispute. When properly managed, verbal disputes became part of the learning process. When the disputes became substantive and degenerate into serious conflicts, the mentees, after resolving the differences on what to do and what not to do in lesson notes preparation might decide to write it only when they have external supervision.

The simple fact that the mentees attached more importance to their external supervision than their everyday activities with their mentors could escalate into serious conflicts. Bukari and Kuyini (2015) made an empirical observation about the differences in views of the mentors and mentees about issues, including the correct format for lesson notes preparation in Ghana, and concluded that, either both the mentors and mentees were ignorant about what was right or they were confused. The different views sought for this study resolves the dilemma of Bukari and Kuyini (2015), by concluding that, the differences are mere issue of perspectives, and that the way forward is to seek convergence of ideas rather than what is wrong and what is right.

Both mentors and mentees were found wanting when it came to lateness and absenteeism, which could be attributed to the fact that they might be over relying on each other. For example, mentors felt that, the mentees presence relieved them of their responsibilities, such as coming to school very early to see to the grounds work, teaching and marking among others while the mentees might not see these entirely as their (mentors) sole responsibility. The mentors, especially might take advantage of the mentees' presence to take permissions and sick leaves, knowing that their classes would not be without an instructor. To overcome that controversy there is the need for strict supervision from lead mentors and link tutors. The problem was linked to the

many complains of the mentees that mentors sometimes leave all the work on them to do.

As mentors and mentees shared common space in the classroom, they tended to discover more about themselves and also to cover some secrets and weaknesses of each other. Such information, when not well managed, could be the genesis of bigger conflicts that could destroy the mentoring process. The need to keep each other's secrets and cover each other's weaknesses while working together to improve on them formed the basis for training and orientation to address such issues.

Asuo-Baffour, Daayeng and Agyemang (2019) indicated that, the challenges facing mentees on out-programme include bad attitudes of mentors and some teachers as well as community related challenges. Asuo-Baffour et al. focused on the problems confronting the mentees, hence did not see the mentees themselves as part of the problem, as it was observed in this study due to different actors who were given the platform to air their views. Oduro-Arhin (2018) also blamed the staff of hospitals where mentees in the health sector had their mentoring sessions without including the student nurses as it was done by Asuo-Baffour et al. for student-teachers. Baidoo (2016) did extensive work on the challenges of the off-campus teaching practice as perceived by some mentees and found staff unreceptiveness, role ambiguity, supervision, assessment, lesson plan issues, trainee unpreparedness, poor trainee disposition and inappropriate teaching and learning methods, among the challenges that confronted the mentoring programme. Nti-Adarkwah, Ofori, Nantwi, and Obeng (2019) also found poor vetting of teaching notes, inadequate teaching and learning materials, lack of transportation from college

to schools of practice, inadequate advance preparation by mentees before teaching, poor remuneration and the supervisors' late arrival to the mentees' schools of attachment in Ghana. This study found almost all the aforementioned factors as challenges, but went further to demonstrate how they constituted a challenge by identifying them as sources of conflicts.

The current study found less conflicts between mentors and mentees which was consistent with the existing empirical literature. As explained earlier, conflicts are bound to occur once human beings converge to pursue a common goal as in the case of the mentors and mentees, but its severity depends on how issues are managed. Duman and Erdamar (2018) indicated that, mentors and mentees have different reasons for conflicts, hence it is tolerance that could survive the mentoring process. It was observed from the study that, the mentors and mentees maintained good relationship during the mentoring process and this automatically reduced the level of severity of conflicts. Leshem (2012) made a similar observation on a student-teacher mentoring, and discovered that, there was no major dispute between mentors and mentees in the mentoring relationship. Izadinia (2015) made a similar observation that, there was no serious dispute between the ideas of mentors and mentees, and both parties considered encouragement and support, an open line of communication and feedback as the most significant elements in successful mentoring relationship. The conclusion that the mentors and mentees had improved relationship for which they would want to extend beyond the mentoring period was consistent with the recent observation by Amedeker (2018), on student-teacher mentoring in Ghana.

According to Amedeker, mentees perceived dialogue sessions; reflective moments; and the mentors' supervisory skills as beneficial in Ghana that reflected the position of the respondents in this study. Amedeker identified three categories of mentoring situations in Ghana, including as absentee caregivers, minimal caregivers and committed caregivers. To that extent, the mentoring situation in this study could be described as committed caregivers. The results of the study as well, found traces of minimal caregivers who were not mostly present with mentees in the classroom, since some mentees complained of some mentors leaving a greater part of the work on them. Nti-Adarkwah, Ofori, Nantwi and Obeng (2019). also confirmed that the mentoring process of student-teachers in Ghana has been mostly successful.

The outcome of the study on gender were consistent with the theoretical position of the study and had a number of supports in the existing theory, though it refuted a number of empirical issues as well. The observation that gender played a significant role as a source of conflicts was consistent with the theory on how gender influences the positions of individuals. Malley (2019) contended that, males and females respond differently to stress and other major trigger of conflicts, which explain why one gender group would be more prone to conflicts situations than the other. Dietrich and Quain (2014) supported this position by asserting that, males and females are on different trajectory of conflicts. In this study, female presence was seen as a major driver of conflicts compared to male mentors or mentees.

This observation may appear to be counter intuitive since females are mostly perceived as victims in conflict situations (Okyere, 2018), but fresh evidence, according to Malley (2019), suggests that females are active conflict

actors and visible perpetuators. The distinction and recognition of how gender complicates a conflict situation, is key since according to Birkhoff (2020), conflicts resolution mechanisms that work for women may be less effective for men due to the way each perceives conflicts. Birkhoff's position further heightens the issue of conflict in mentoring since the mentoring process brings mentors and mentees of opposite sex together. It was even observed in this study that the conflicts situation intensifies when mentors are of the same sex than of the opposite sex.

Chapter Summary

The chapter investigated the sources of conflicts between mentors and mentees during the mentoring programme. It also sought the respondents' views on what could be done to improve the programme. The issue of conflicts was traced from the personal quality and communication attributes under the psychosocial domain. That is, the effectiveness of communication among actors in the mentoring process had bearing on conflicts to be expected from the process. It was observed that, conflicts were not a widespread phenomenon in the mentoring process, though pockets of it were identified.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study. A brief summary of the study was provided after which the summary of the main findings was outlined. A conclusion based on the main findings was drawn after which recommendations were made. A brief direction for further studies was provided based on the limitations of the study.

Summary of the Study

Teacher education required that the student-teacher was trained in both content and pedagogy as well as ensure that such pedagogical content knowledge was practically tested. To ensure that the practical aspect of the teacher training process was adhered to, the colleges of education in Ghana allow a one-year mentoring session (Teaching Practice) for final year students. This mentoring process introduced an entirely new twist to the teacher training process since the student-teachers would have to serve under an assigned mentor in a school of attachment. The students also found themselves back to the community, but this time, as student-teachers with greater control over their own affairs. This new freedom, however, come with cost, both financial and non-financial on the students.

The presence of the student-teachers (mentees) in the schools of attachment also presented both benefits and challenges to the mentees, mentors, school administration and the community at large. Though system was in place to mitigate the possible effects of the out-segment (mentoring period) on the stakeholders, literature suggested that more was needed in the

effective understanding of the challenges, modalities and benefits of the mentoring process to the stakeholders. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the mentoring process of student-teachers of the colleges of education in Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to perceived competencies of the mentors, source of conflicts between mentors and mentees, cost element to mentees and mentors, effects of financial cost of mentoring, and stakeholders' perception of the mentoring programme.

The descriptive survey and phenomenology designs were used to address the stated objectives along with the mixed method approach. The quantitative method was used to allow for rigorous hypotheses test to compare responses among the selected background characteristics of the respondents and as well as examining the relationship among the main variables. The qualitative data was used to conduct in-depth analyses into some of the main findings in the quantitative analysis for better understanding. Both structured questionnaires and interview guides were used for the data collection. Data were collected in a face-to-face survey where respondents were given ample time to fill and return the questionnaire immediately after filling to ensure very high response rate.

The qualitative data were collected through phone call interview after the quantitative analysis to allow for issues that needed further clarification to be reconsidered. The qualitative responses, therefore, provided data for concurrent triangulation of the issues in the study objectives. Descriptive and inferential statistics were actively involved in the quantitative analysis. Measures of location were used along with the measures of spread, where necessary to provide a description of the issues relating a to student-teacher

mentoring. Both parametric and non-parametric test were employed in the analysis to test the relationship and dependency among variables in the study.

The analysis was done in line with the purpose, research questions and hypotheses of the study. The research questions were mainly on what were the perceived competencies of mentors, what were stakeholders' perception of the mentoring programme, what were the cost areas of the mentoring process to the mentors and mentees and what were the sources of conflicts between mentors and mentees in the mentoring process of the Central-Western Zone colleges of education in Ghana? The main hypotheses were in the area of statistical differences among the views of the mentors, mentees, lead mentors and link tutors on selected issues of mentoring, rating of perceived competencies of mentors by mentees, lead mentors, link tutors and the mentors themselves and the statistical differences between the cost of living of male and female student-teachers during mentoring programme.

Main Findings

The analysis of the study provided the following results as a response to the stated research questions:

1. The mentors, mentees, lead mentors and the college respondents had positive perception about the current state of the mentoring process and perceived it as beneficiary to the participants. There were specific findings, namely:

    a. all stakeholders generally perceived the mentoring process in its current form as being well-organised

b. the mentees and college respondents perceived the duration of the mentorship programme to be too long, while the mentors and the lead mentors felt the duration is adequate.

c. with exceptions of the lead mentors, the mentees, mentors and the college respondents held view that the mentees should receive special allowance during their out-programme or mentoring period.

2. The mode of selection of mentors is less formal, views of stakeholders on the competencies of the mentors were mixed, but the mentors exhibited high levels of competencies in their work in most cases. There were specific findings:

   a. the major requirements for mentors were at least three years of service, professional qualification in education and mandatory training which did not include certification of participants.

   b. the appointment of mentors in the Central-Western Zone colleges of education were mainly done by verbal appointment from the head teachers of the schools of attachment.

   c. the mentors were mostly not certified in formal mentoring.

   d. mentors perceived themselves as competent mentors and their views were supported by their mentees and the head teacher though the colleges representatives held a divergent view.

   e. the link tutors indicated the least acceptance of the competencies as compared to mentees and the representatives from the colleges.

3. The mentoring process had major cost elements to mentees and mentors in the areas of accommodation, utility bills, feeding, stationery and transportation. The cost element largely depends on the role of the

participant in the mentoring process as well as the location of the participant in the mentoring process. The following were the specific findings:

a. the cost areas to the mentees as a result of the mentoring programme were in order of magnitude, stationery, utility bills, feeding, rental and transportation costs.
b. the major cost areas to the mentors as results of their involvement in the mentoring process were feeding, stationery and in some rare cases accommodation cost. The mentors' costs were mainly to support their mentees out of their financial difficulties.
c. gender and location individually explained the magnitude of the cost of the mentoring programme on the mentees but their joint effect does not.
d. the results indicated that more mentees in the urban areas, irrespective of gender, provided for their own accommodation than mentees in the rural areas. But, more males in the urban areas provides for their own accommodation than females in the urban areas.
e. the results further indicated that females, both in the rural and urban, paid more utility bills and feeding than the male mentees.
f. cost was identified as a binding constraint on the smooth implementation of the student-teacher mentoring programme in the Central- Western Zone college of education in Ghana.
g. mentors perceived cost less as having adverse effects on the mentoring process than mentees.

4. The study revealed that conflicts were not a wide spread phenomenon in the mentoring process though packets of it were identified.
    a. major sources of conflicts from the mentees' point of view were sharing of secrets, time of correction, mode of correction on the part of the mentors; lateness and absenteeism, preparation of lesson notes on the part of the mentees and intimate sexual relationship among actors.
    b. from the mentors' perspective, the major sources of conflict were preparation of lesson notes, lateness and absenteeism, sharing of secrets on the part of mentees and intimate sexual relationship among actors.
    c. interestingly, religion, political affiliation and ethnicity did not contribute significantly to the perceived sources of conflicts in the Central-Western Zone colleges of education in Ghana.

Conclusions of the Study

The findings of the study formed the premises for which a number of conclusions were drawn. This section stated the findings as premises and drew appropriate conclusions from them in line with the stated objectives.

The outcome of the study also formed the basis to conclude that the mentees and the colleges at the centre of mentoring process were not comfortable with the duration of the mentoring process though the mentors and the head teachers were comfortable with the duration. It was also concluded that the trade-off between the mentoring session and the academic session on campus was disproportionally aligned such that the length of the

mentoring session impacted negatively on the acquisition of content and pedagogical knowledge of the student-teachers.

The outcome of the study also suggested that all the stakeholders had positive perception of the mentoring process and perceived it as beneficial, which implied that the major issues were how to improve upon the process through consensus building. The study, therefore, concluded that the usefulness of a student-teacher mentoring or teaching practice was not in doubt on any ground in Central -Western Zone of Ghana.

The findings that the competencies of the mentors could not be guaranteed, but they still exhibited high levels of commitment to their work in most cases implied that mentors were ready to contribute their quota to support the training of modern teachers and with the right kind of support, they could be very good mentors. It could also be concluded from the results that the mentors had the academic and professional competencies in teaching, but lacked the professional competencies by a way of specific training in mentoring.

Also, the observation that the mode of selection of mentors were less formal can be concluded that the contractual link between the mentors and the colleges of education was weak and could reduce the level of influence that the link tutors and the teaching practice coordinators could exert on the mentors where necessary.

It was also clear that the hiding cost of the mentoring process impacted on all the stakeholders, but most of them received no financial rewards for their involvement. The study also concluded that hiding cost was a major binding constraint on the smooth running of the mentoring process.

The results on the gender of the mentees led to the conclusion that the male mentees felt the cost of the mentoring process more than the females, mainly because the schools of attachment considered the females first in any incentive package before the male students.

It was also concluded from the findings of the study that though conflicts were an integral part of the mentoring process, it impacted less on the mentoring relationship and its outcomes.

Recommendation of the Study

The study made the following recommendations based on the findings:

1. Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC), the mentoring institutions (universities) and PRINCOF need to deliberate on the duration of the mentoring process, but must factor the views of mentors, lead mentors, link tutors and teaching practice coordinators into the consideration.
2. the colleges of education must intensify their training for mentors with special attention on professional mentoring, attitudes and social aspects of the mentoring process with an improved mentoring contract. For example, a renewable certificate must be awarded to mentors on annual basis.
3. the developers of the colleges of education curriculum need to introduce courses on mentoring in the colleges of education programme.
4. the colleges of education in Central-Western zone of Ghana needs to follow through the mentoring appointment process to the latter and issue appointment letter on the colleges' letter heads to the mentors.

5. the governing councils of the colleges of education in Central-Western zone of Ghana must initiate a move with the Ministry of Education to offer special allowances for the student-teachers even when allowances are not being paid to the regular session.
6. Ghana Education Service, principally the District Education Directorate, needs to make special provisions to supply stationery and other teaching and learning aids to the schools of attachment during the mentoring period.
7. the authorities of schools of attachment (the basic schools) especially those in urban areas, must necessarily provide decent accommodation for all student-teachers posted to them.
8. Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC), the mentoring institutions (universities) and PRINCOF need to adopt and enforce anti-sexual harassment act to be signed and obeyed by stakeholders in the mentoring process.

Limitation and Direction for Further Study

The study had a number of limitations which include funding and time which limited the study to only the Central-Western Zone. Future studies can focus on the other zones to replicate the content of this study. The study also considered the moderating effects of gender of the mentees, but it did not consider the gender of the mentors. Future studies could enhance the role of the mentor-mentee gender relationship on the mentoring relationship. The material attribute of the resource domain in the extended framework was also less enshrined as compared to the financial cost which required further assessment. The study's scope of participants for conflict also excluded the

communities which further studies must concentrate to complete argument on conflict in mentoring.

Contribution to Knowledge and Literature

The outcome of the study contributes to bridging the knowledge gap on the student-teacher mentoring process in Central-Western Zone colleges of education in Ghana. The study shed light on the factors that militates against progress of the student-teachers' mentoring process and indicated that in the Ghanaian context, conflict has less effect on mentoring, but rather the issue of cost and competencies are of great concern. The study therefore contributes significantly to the effective understanding of the student-teachers' mentoring process and shed light on the moderating role of gender of the student-teacher and the location of the school of attachment in the mentoring relationship in Central-Western Zone of Ghana.

Finally, the study made contributions to the theory by extending and validating the framework of Yob and Crawford (2012) by including the resource domain. The outcome of this study confirms the validity of resource domain in the assessment of mentoring as construct. Hence, instead of two domains, academic and psychosocial domain proposed by Yob and Crawford (2012), the framework now has an additional domain in the area of resource domain with financial and material attributes. By this extension, cost (both explicit and implicit) can be considered as variables in the mentoring process instead of treating them as fixed or given in earlier work. Also, the moderating role of gender and location of schools of attachment were also introduced and assessed in the resource domain. The argument was further expanded

conceptual framework on the assessments of student-teacher mentoring by including other domain and attributes.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF LEGAL STUDIES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MENTORS

This research seeks to undertake an investigation into teacher-trainee mentorship programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process, sources of conflict between mentors and mentees, the effects of financial cost on mentoring, benefits and challenges. The study is purely for academic purpose and secrecy of your data is assured.

Direction: Please answer the following questions by choosing the most appropriate options or writing down your answer (s) in the space provided. Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Please **Tick** your answer or write where appropriate. **Thank you.**

==========

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Location Urban [ ] Rural [ ]
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Indicate your Age group
   - 20 and below [ ]
   - 21-30 [ ]
   - 31-40 [ ]
   - 41-50 [ ]
   - 51 and above [ ]
4. What is your highest level of qualification?
   - Cert A [ ]
   - Diploma [ ]
   - HND [ ]
   - Degree [ ]
   - Master's Degree [ ]

   Others (Specify) ……

5. Do you have professional certificate in teaching? Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. If no how do you mentor your mentees?.....
   ……
7. Are you currently on further studies? Yes [ ] No [ ]

SECTION 2: COMPETENCE LEVEL OF MENTOR

8. Have you had any formal training in mentoring? Yes [ ] No [ ]
9. If yes, do you have any certificate to that effect? Yes [ ] No [ ]
10. Do you currently consider yourself as a **QUALIFIED** mentor? Yes [ ] No [ ]
11. Give reason for your response……..
    ……
12. How were you appointed as a mentor?
    - Verbal appointment from the head teacher [ ]
    - Written appointment from the head teacher [ ]
    - Written appointment from the College [ ]
    - Written appointment from the district education office [ ]

    Others (Specify) ……

13. How long have you been teaching?

4 Years and Below	[ ]
Between 5-8 Years	[ ]
Between 9-12 Years	[ ]
Between 13-16 Years	[ ]
17 Years and above	[ ]

14. For how long have you been mentoring?

Below 4 years	[ ]
Between 5-8 Years	[ ]
Between 9-12 Years	[ ]
Between 13-16 Years	[ ]
17 Years and above	[ ]

15. How many years did you teach before you started mentoring?

4 years and below	[ ]
Between 5-8 Years	[ ]
Between 9-12 Years	[ ]
Between 13-16 Years	[ ]
17 Years and above	[ ]

16 How would you rate your current performance as a mentor?

Very poor	[ ]
Poor	[ ]
Not sure	[ ]
Good	[ ]
Very good	[ ]

17. Do you believe that further education or training in mentoring could assist you to be more effective mentor Yes [ ] No [ ]

Give reason for your response……..

18. In general, my attitude to mentoring is:

Very Negative	[ ]
Negative	[ ]
Neutral	[ ]
Positive	[ ]
Very Positive	[ ]

19. How would you rate your knowledge of mentoring?

Very High	[ ]
High	[ ]
Low	[ ]
Average	[ ]
Very Low	[ ]

20. From what sources have you gained knowledge of mentoring? **(Multiple choice is allowed)**

Personal experience of mentoring	[ ]
Observation of others	[ ]
Reading (Not Internet).	[ ]
Internet	[ ]
Peer discussion	[ ]
Involvement in a formal mentoring programme as a mentor	[ ]
Formal educational institution	[ ]
Workshops on mentoring	[ ]

21. Are you willing to undertake any future studies in mentoring to enhance your knowledge in mentoring?

Yes, if I do not have to sponsor it [ ]
Yes, even if I am to sponsor it [ ]
No, I am not interested [ ]

22. Has it become necessary to offer counselling services to your mentee or any other mentee? Yes [ ] No [ ]

23. If yes how often

Rarely [ ]
Occasional [ ]
Often [ ]
Very often [ ]

Q24. In each of the statement below indicate whether you, Strongly Disagree (SDA), Disagree (DA), Moderately Agree (MA), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA)

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Mentors mostly ask questions that are self-reflective					
B	Mentors challenges their mentees to perform and does it in a friendly manner					
C	Mentors establish good rapport and trust with their mentees					
D	Mentors give quick and effective feedback which are very helpful to mentees.					
E	Mentors support their mentees to identify their areas of strength and weakness in a way that feel comfortable					
F	Mentors support their mentees to reflect upon their weaknesses and suggests measures for improvement					
G	Mentors demonstrate great content and expertise in mentees areas of academic needs					
H	Mentors demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process					
I	Mentors provide constructive and useful critiques of mentees work					
J	Mentors motivate mentees to improve on their work output.					
K	Mentors are helpful in providing direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking).					
L	Mentors suggest appropriate resources (e.g., experts, electronic contacts, source materials).					
M	Mentors challenge mentees to extend their abilities beyond the classroom					
N	Mentors are mostly accessible and available for lesson supervision and discussions.					
O	Mentors communicate regularly with mentees on matters of great concern to our mentoring engagement					
P	Mentors assist mentees with their career development					
Q	Mentor assist mentees with their understanding of the academic routes to achieve my career goals					

Q25. SECTION 3: CONFLICT SITUATION FROM MENTORS' POINT OF VIEW

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Intimate sexual relationship creates conflicts between mentors and mentees during mentoring					
B	My mentor draws religious issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
C	My mentor draws political issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
D	My mentor draws ethnic issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
E	Lesson plan preparation creates conflicts between me and my mentor					
F	Lateness and absenteeism of mentee to class creates conflicts between me and my mentor					
G	Sharing of TLM creates conflicts between mentors and mentees (does not offer any support)					
H	Conflict usually arises between mentees and mentors					
I	Conflict usually arises between mentee and other mentees					
J	Conflict usually arises between mentees and other mentors					
K	Conflict usually arises between mentees and lead mentors					
L	Conflict usually arises between mentees and school pupils					
M	Conflict usually arises between mentees and community members					
N	My mentees do not respect me as a mentor					
O	Sometimes I schedule a meeting with my mentee but he/she fails to honour which makes me disappointed					
P	My mentee does not submit to correction					
Q	My mentee shares my secrets with others which creates tension between us					
R	My mentee extends the relationship beyond school hours which creates conflicts between us					
S	My mentee sometimes challenges my authority as a mentor					
T	My mentee leaves all the work (does not support) on me which makes me feel bad					
U	My mentee wants to take all the time in the classroom					
V	I don't enjoy given my class to my mentee most of the time because I feel it slows the chances of completing syllabus					

SECTION 4: COST IMPLICATION OF MENTORING

26. Has it ever become necessary to pay for or provide accommodation for the mentee?
    Never, the school has special arrangements for that [ ]
    Never, the mentee pays for it [ ]
    Yes, most of the time [ ]
27. Has it ever become necessary to pay for utility bills (electricity/water) for your mentee?
    Never, the school has special arrangements for that [ ]
    Never, the mentee pays for it [ ]
    Yes, most of the time [ ]
28. If yes, what is the bill in a typical month? ……

29. Do you have to provide food for your mentee?
    Yes, mostly [ ]
    Yes, but occasionally [ ]
    No, the school provides for that [ ]
    No, they buy their own food [ ]

30. If yes, please, specify the amount spent on food daily on mentee ……

31. By how much do you think your expenditure on food has increased compared to when the mentee was not around?

    Between 1% and 10 % [ ]
    Between 10% and 20 % [ ]
    Between 20% and 50 % [ ]
    Between 50% and 100 % [ ]
    More than doubled [ ]
    No increment [ ]

32. Do you have to provide stationery for your mentee?
    Yes, mostly [ ]
    Yes but occasionally [ ]
    No, the school provides for that [ ]
    No, they buy their own food [ ]

33. Do you think your expenditure stationery has increased compared to campus?

    Yes [ ] No [ ]

34. If by how much do you think your expenditure on stationaries has increased?
    Between 1% and 10 % [ ]
    Between 10% and 20 % [ ]
    Between 20% and 50 % [ ]
    Between 50% and 100 % [ ]
    More than doubled [ ]

35. To what extent does a financial challenge become an obstacle to the mentoring process for you?
    No obstacle [ ]
    Minor obstacle [ ]
    Moderate obstacle [ ]
    Major Obstacle [ ]
    Sever Obstacle [ ]

36. To what extent does financial challenge as an obstacle affect the smooth running of the mentorship programme?
    No effect [ ]
    Minor effect [ ]
    Moderate effect [ ]
    Major effect [ ]
    Sever effect [ ]

37. Has your mentee ever asked you for financial assistance? Yes [ ] No [ ]

38. If yes, what are some of the reasons given for the request of such money?

    ……
    ……
    ……

39. Will you generally say your participation in this mentoring programme comes with some form of financial cost to you? Yes [ ] No [ ]

40. If yes, in what form?.....
……

41. Do you receive any form of financial re-imbursement as a mentor?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

42. If yes from which sources?

School of attachment [ ]
College of Education [ ]
Government [ ]
Others (Specify) ……

43. If No, do you think some form of financial remuneration to you as a mentor will impact positively on your performance as a mentor? Yes [ ] No [ ]

44. What in your view can be done to improve the situation of cost and its implication on the mentoring process? .....
.....
.....

Q45. SECTION 5: BENEFITS OF THE MENTORING PROGRAMME

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	The mentoring programme was a key factor in helping mentees adjust to the teaching profession.					
B	The mentoring programme helped reduce my feelings of isolation as a new or beginning teacher.					
C	The mentoring programme helped me develop a positive attitude towards teaching.					
D	The mentoring programme helped me develop a sense of professionalism about teaching					
E	The mentoring programme improves mentees teaching skills and makes them confident					
F	The mentoring process makes mentees understand the teaching process better and make them feel they can do it					
G	The mentoring programme afforded mentees the opportunities to discuss classroom management strategies.					
H	The mentoring programme has helped me as a mentor to gain more insight into current trends in teaching					
I	The presence of mentees has reduced classroom stress in terms of marking, class control					
J	The presence of mentees helps with effective extra curricula activities in the school					

Q46. SECTION 6: MENTORSHIP RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MENTORS AND MENTEES

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Mentees mostly respect mentors' time and professional responsibilities.					
B	Mentees make use of feedback provided throughout the mentoring relationship					
C	Mentees are mostly accessible and available					
D	Mentees mostly communicate regularly with mentors					
E	Mentees are concerned about academic problems and work to reduce the deficiencies					
F	Mentees usually contact mentors for an assistance to improve on their course work performance.					
G	Mentee's behaviour and attitude are generally professional and courteous.					
H	Mentee show interest and participate in all extracurricular activities of the school					
I	Mentee is open for correction and quick to adapt					
J	Mentee maintains good relationship with other mentees.					
K	I have issues with the way mentees relate to the other staff members.					
L	I have issues with the way mentees relate to the pupils					
M	My mentees usually demonstrate a reasonable interest/concern towards me in my quest to offer assistance.					
N	I mostly have to come to my mentee's defence with the school authorities for some kind of misconduct.					
O	I see seriousness in my mentee only when external supervisors are coming to the school					
P	My mentees are punctual to school and work hard					
Q	My mentees mostly ask for permission and look for excuse to stay out of school					
R	Overall, my mentees participate in most mentoring activities.					

Q47. SECTION 7: PERCEPTION ABOUT MENTORING AND MAJOR CHALLENGES

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	I think that the duration of the mentoring programme is too long					
B	I think the mentoring programme is important for both the mentees and the mentors					
C	I feel it was worth my time and effort in taking part of this programme since I am training the next generation					
D	I think the mentoring programme reduces the content knowledge of the student teachers in colleges due to the time spent outside the college.					
E	I think the out programme should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges to allow for more content studies					
F	I have gained personal satisfaction from the mentoring programme and I will repeat it any time					

G	The fact that mentees prepare for final exams on campus reduces their commitment to the mentoring process					
H	I wish that students are given the opportunity to choose their own school of attachment					
I	I wish that mentors are given the opportunity to choose their own mentees after proper orientation					
J	I feel students on mentorship programme should be given special financial assistance					
K	I feel the mentoring duration must be reduced to one semester to make room for more academic work on campus.					
L	I have improved upon my personal knowledge and experience as a mentor through the mentoring process.					
M	I strongly believe as mentors we need further training in mentorship as well					
N	In sum I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					

48. What are some of the **MAJOR PERSONAL** challenges you face as a mentor?
    a……
    b……

49. What are two (2) **MAJOR GENERAL** challenges facing the smooth implementation of the mentorship programme:

    a……
    ……..
    b……

50. What in your view should be done differently about the mentorship programme?
    ……
    ……

Thank you

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF LEGAL STUDIES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MENTEES

This research seeks to undertake an investigation into teacher-trainee mentorship programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process, sources of conflict between mentors and mentees, the effects of financial cost on mentoring, benefits and challenges. The study is purely for academic purpose and secrecy of your data is assured.

Direction: Please answer the following questions by choosing the most appropriate options or writing down your answer (s) in the space provided. Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Please **Tick** your answer or write where appropriate.

==========

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Location Urban [ ] Rural [ ]
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Indicate your Age group
   - 20 and below [ ]
   - 21-30 [ ]
   - 31-40 [ ]
   - 41 and above [ ]
4. What is your programme of study?
   - General [ ]
   - Mathematics and Technical [ ]
   - Mathematics and Science [ ]
   - Science and Technical [ ]
   - Others (Specify) ……
5. What is the gender of your mentor? Male [ ] Female [ ]

SECTION 2: COMPETENCE LEVEL OF MENTORS

6. How long have you been allocated your mentor?
   - 12 Months [ ]
   - 10 Months [ ]
   - 8 Months [ ]
   - 6 Months [ ]
   - Others (Specify) ……
7. How would you rate the current performance of your mentor?
   - Very poor [ ]
   - Poor [ ]
   - Not sure [ ]
   - Good [ ]
   - Very good [ ]
8. Do you believe that further education or training in mentoring for your mentor could assist him/her to be a more effective mentor Yes [ ] No [ ]

9. In general, my mentor's attitude to mentoring is:

Very Negative	[ ]
Negative	[ ]
Neutral	[ ]
Positive	[ ]
Very Positive	[ ]

10. Has there ever been a scheduled meeting with your mentor to discuss your progression in the mentoring process? Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. If yes, how often have you had such scheduled meetings with your mentor?

Rarely	[ ]
Occasionally	[ ]
Often	[ ]
Very often	[ ]

Q12. In each of the statements below indicate whether you Strongly Disagree (SDA), Disagree (DA), Moderately Agree (MA), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA)

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Mentors mostly ask questions that are self-reflective					
B	Mentors challenges their mentees to perform and does it in a friendly manner					
C	Mentors establish good rapport and trust with their mentees					
D	Mentors give quick and effective feedback which are very helpful to mentees.					
E	Mentors support their mentees to identify their areas of strength and weakness in a way that feel comfortable					
F	Mentors support their mentees to reflect upon their weaknesses and suggests measures for improvement					
G	Mentors demonstrate great content and expertise in mentees areas of academic needs					
H	Mentors demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process					
I	Mentors provide constructive and useful critiques of mentees work					
J	Mentors motivate mentees to improve on their work output.					
K	Mentors are helpful in providing direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking).					
L	Mentors suggest appropriate resources (e.g., experts, electronic contacts, source materials).					
M	Mentors challenge mentees to extend their abilities beyond the classroom					
N	Mentors are mostly accessible and available for lesson supervision and discussions.					
O	Mentors communicate regularly with mentees on matters of great concern to our mentoring engagement					
P	Mentors assist mentees with their career development					
Q	Mentor assist mentees with their understanding of the academic routes to achieve my career goals					

R	My mentor runs effective sessions, beginning the sessions on time and setting and adhering to an agenda					
S	My mentor demonstrates a reasonable interest/concern towards me					
T	My mentor's behaviour and attitude generally is an example of professionalism					
U	I recommend my mentor for future professional or personal development activities					
V	My mentor is always interested in what I do					
W	Given the opportunity I would want to change my mentor					
X	When I am with my mentor, I always feel excited					
Y	I anticipate an extended future relationship with my mentor.					
Z	Overall, my mentor is an asset and beneficial to me.					

Q13. SECTION 3: CONFLICT SITUATION IN THE MENTORSHIP PROCESS

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Intimate sexual relationship creates conflicts between mentors and mentees during mentoring					
B	My mentor draws religious issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
C	My mentor draws political issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
D	My mentor draws ethnic issues into the mentoring process which creates conflict					
E	Lesson plan preparation creates conflicts between me and my mentor					
F	Lateness and absenteeism of mentee to class creates conflicts between me and my mentor					
G	Sharing of TLM creates conflicts between mentors and mentees (does not offer any support)					
H	Conflicts usually arise between mentees and mentors					
I	Conflicts usually arise between mentee and other mentees					
J	Conflicts usually arise between mentees and other mentors					
K	Conflicts usually arise between mentees and lead mentors					
L	Conflicts usually arise between mentees and school pupils					
M	Conflicts usually arise between mentees and community members					
N	My mentor makes fun of me in ways I do not like which creates conflicts between us					
O	Sometimes my mentor schedules a meeting, but fails to honour which makes me disappointed					
P	The way my mentor corrects me makes me feel bad since they are more of criticisms than critique					
Q	My mentor shares my secrets with others which creates tension between us					
R	My mentor extends his or her dominion on me beyond school hours which creates conflicts between us					
S	My mentor corrects me right in front of the pupils which makes me feel cold towards him					
T	My mentor discriminates among his mentees which creates conflict among us					

U	My mentor leaves all the work on me (mentee) which makes me feel bad					
V	My mentor puts me on spot to teach without informing me of what topic I am to teach					
W	My mentor does not give me enough time in the classroom for me to get the training I came for					
X	My mentor's attitude and comment suggest he does not believe in my academic capabilities					

SECTION 4: COST IMPLICATION OF MENTORSHIP

51. Who paid for or provided the accommodation for the mentorship period?

    Personal Arrangement [ ]
    School of Attachment [ ]
    College of Education [ ]

52. How much did you pay for accommodation for the period? ……

53. Do you pay utility bills (electricity/water)?
    Yes, from personal contributions of mentees [ ]
    No, the school of attachment pays for it [ ]
    No, my mentor pays for it [ ]
    No, the college of education pays for it [ ]

54. If yes, what is your personal contribution in a typical month ……

55. Do you go to school by public transport?
    Yes [ ]
    No, the distance is relatively short [ ]
    No, the distance is relatively long but I walk due to transport fare [ ]

56. If yes, please specify the amount spent on transportation daily (in and out) ……

57. How much do you spend on food on daily basis on the average? ……

58. Do you think your expenditure on food has increased compared to campus?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]

59. If by how much do you think your expenditure on food has increased?
    Between 1% and 10 % [ ]
    Between 10% and 20 % [ ]
    Between 20% and 50 % [ ]
    Between 50% and 100 % [ ]
    More than doubled [ ]

60. How much do you spend on stationery on weekly basis on the average? ……

61. Do you think your expenditure stationaries has increased compared to campus?

    Yes [ ] No [ ]

62. If by how much do you think your expenditure on stationery has increased?
    Between 1% and 10 % [ ]
    Between 10% and 20 % [ ]
    Between 20% and 50 % [ ]
    Between 50% and 100 % [ ]
    More than doubled [ ]

63. Where do you get financial support from? (Thick as many as apply)

Parent/Guardian [ ]
Partner/fiancé [ ]
Student Loan [ ]
Mentor [ ]
Others (please specify) …….

64. If you take student allowance, what percentage of the total monthly expenditure does the amount cover?

Between 0% and 25 % [ ]
Between 25% and 50 % [ ]
Between 50% and 75 % [ ]
Between 75% and 100 % [ ]

65. To what extent do financial challenges become obstacles to the mentoring process for you?

No obstacle [ ]
Minor obstacle [ ]
Moderate obstacle [ ]
Major Obstacle [ ]
Severe Obstacle [ ]

66. To what extent does financial challenge as an obstacle affects the smooth running of the mentorship programme?

No obstacle [ ]
Minor obstacle [ ]
Moderate obstacle [ ]
Major Obstacle [ ]
Severe Obstacle [ ]

67. What in your view can be done to improve the situation of cost and it implications on the mentoring process?

a. ……
b. ……
……

Q31. SECTION 5: BENEFITS OF THE MENTORING PROGRAMME

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	The mentoring programme was a key factor in helping mentees adjust to the teaching profession.					
B	The mentoring programme helped reduce mentees' feelings of isolation as beginning teachers					
C	The mentoring programme helped mentees developed a positive attitude towards teaching.					
D	The mentoring programme helped mentees develop a sense of professionalism about teaching					
E	The mentoring programme improved on mentees teaching skills and made them confident					
F	The mentoring process made mentees understood the teaching process better and made me feel I can do it.					
G	The mentoring programme afforded mentees opportunities to discuss classroom management strategies.					
H	Mentors gave mentees the amount of help needed for their teaching practice					

Q32. SECTION 6: MENTORSHIP RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MENTORS AND MENTEES

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	Mentees mostly respect mentors' time and professional responsibilities.					
B	Mentees make use of feedback provided throughout the mentoring relationship					
C	Mentees are mostly accessible and available					
D	Mentees mostly communicate regularly with mentors					
E	Mentees are concerned about academic problems and work to reduce the deficiencies					
F	Mentees usually contact mentors for an assistance to improve on their course work performance.					
G	Mentee's behaviour and attitude are generally professional and courteous.					
H	Mentee show interest and participate in all extracurricular activities of the school					
I	Mentee is open for correction and quick to adapt					
J	Mentee maintains good relationship with other mentees.					
K	I have issues with the way mentees relate to the other staff members.					
L	I have issues with the way mentees relate to the pupils					

Q33. SECTION 7: PERCEPTIONS ABOUT MENTORING

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	I think that the duration of the mentoring programme is too long					
B	I think the mentoring programme is important for both the mentees and the mentors					
C	I feel it was worth my time and effort in taking part of this programme as a teacher to be.					
D	I think the mentoring programme reduces the contact hours of the student teachers in their due to the time spent outside the college which may affect content knowledge of students					
E	I think the out programme should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges to allow for more content studies					
F	I have gained personal satisfaction from the mentoring programme and I will repeat it any time					
G	The mentoring has changed my negative perception about teaching.					
H	Preparing for final exams on campus alongside the mentorship programme is a big challenge.					
I	I wish that students are given the opportunity to choose their own school of attachment					
J	I wish that students (mentees) are given the opportunity to choose their own mentors after proper orientation					
K	I feel students (mentees) on mentorship programme should be given special financial assistance					
L	I am satisfying with the way conflict are resolved by all parties					

M	In sum I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					

34. What are some of the **MAJOR PERSONAL** challenges you face as a mentee?

    a……...
    b……...
    c……...

35. What are three (3) **MAJOR GENERAL** challenges facing the smooth implementation of the mentorship programme.

    a……..
    b……..
    c……..

36. What in your view should be done differently about mentorship programme?
    a. ……
    b. ……
    c. ……

Thank you

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF LEGAL STUDIES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEAD MENTORS

This research seeks to undertake an investigation into teacher-trainee mentorship programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process, sources of conflict between mentors and mentees, the effects of financial cost on mentoring benefits and challenges. The study is purely for academic purpose and secrecy of your data is assured.

Direction: Please, answer the following questions by choosing the most appropriate options or writing down your answer (s) in the space provided. Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Please **Tick** your answer or write where appropriate. **Thank you.**

==========

SECTION 1- BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Location Urban [ ] Rural [ ]
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Indicate your Age group
   - 20 and below [ ]
   - 21-30 [ ]
   - 31-40 [ ]
   - 41-50 [ ]
   - 51 and above [ ]
4. What is your highest level of qualification?
   - Cert A [ ]
   - Diploma [ ]
   - HND [ ]
   - Degree [ ]
   - Master's Degree [ ]
   - Others (Specify)……
5. Do you have professional certificate? Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. Are you currently on further studies? Yes [ ] No [ ]
7. How long have you been teaching?
   - 5 years and below [ ]
   - 6 – 10 years [ ]
   - 11 – 15 years [ ]
   - 16 – 20 years [ ]
   - 21 years and above [ ]
8. How long have you been a head teacher?
   - 5 years and below [ ]
   - 6 – 10 years [ ]
   - 11 – 15 years [ ]
   - 16 – 20 years [ ]
   - 21 years and above [ ]

9. What is your current rank?

Senior Superintendent	[ ]
Principal Superintendent	[ ]
Assistant Director I	[ ]
Assistant Director II	[ ]
Director	[ ]

Others (Specify)……

10. Are you given special allowance as a Lead Mentor? Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. If Yes, how much are you given?

50 per year	[ ]
100 per year	[ ]
150 per year	[ ]
200 per year	[ ]
250 and above	[ ]

Others (Specify)……

12 Are you satisfied with the allowance? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. If No, do you think it impacts on your performance negatively?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

SECTION 2: GENERAL INFORMATION

In each of the statement below indicate whether you, Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Moderately Agree (MA), Disagree (DA) and Strongly Disagree (SDA)

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
Q14	**Competence Level**					
A	I don't fully trust the competencies of all my mentors to serve as the effective mentors that I want					
B	The mentors under me often ask mentees questions that are self-reflective					
C	The mentors under me challenge mentees to perform and do it in a friendly manner					
D	The mentors under me give quick and effective feedback which are very helpful to my mentees.					
E	The mentors under me support mentees to identify their areas of strength and weakness in a way that make them feel comfortable					
F	The mentors under me demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process					
G	The mentors under me demonstrate great content and expertise in the areas of academic needs of mentees.					
H	The mentors under me provide constructive and useful criticisms to mentees' work					
I	The mentors under me provide direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking) to mentees					
J	The mentors under me suggest appropriate resources (e.g., expertise, source materials) to my mentees					
Q15	**Cost Implication**					
A	The mentorship process introduces **additional** cost into the school administration which is not fully covered in our budgets					
B	I feel further funding for the mentorship programme will improve the effectiveness of the mentoring process					
C	I feel the mentors must be properly remunerated to motivate them for effective mentoring					

D	I suggest the student-teacher is given special allowance by the government during their out-programme session					
E	I feel this additional fund must come from mentees as part of their fees					
Q16	**Sources of Conflicts**					
A	Conflict is a major component of the mentoring process					
B	Issues of sexual relationships between mentors and mentees are major sources of conflicts					
C	Relations between mentees and link tutors sometimes lead to conflicts					
D	Issues of sexual relationships between other staffs and mentees are major sources of conflicts					
E	Issues of sexual relationships between mentees of opposite sex are major sources of conflicts					
F	Lesson note preparation is a major source of conflict between mentor and mentee					
G	Lateness and absenteeism to class on my part create conflicts between me and my mentor					
H	Where the mentor and mentee are of the opposite sex, the spouse of the mentor can be a source of conflicts					
I	Religious difference has been a major source of conflicts between mentors and mentees					
J	Ethnicity plays a major role in creating conflicts between mentors and mentees					
K	Lack of content knowledge of the mentor relative to the mentee creates conflicts as mentors feel intimidated.					
L	Other mentors instigate mentees against their mentors which creates conflicts					
M	Head teachers over empower mentees against their mentors which create conflicts					
N	Female mentors create more conflicts than male mentors					
O	Female mentees create more conflicts than male mentees					
P	Conflicts are more likely to occur when mentors have same sex than in the case of opposite sex.					
Q	In the case of same sex, male mentor -male mentee relationship leads to more conflicts than female mentor – female mentee relationship.					
R	Issues of sexual relationships between male mentees and pupils of opposite sex are sources of conflicts.					
S	Issues of sexual relationships between mentees and opposite sex of community members are major sources of conflicts.					
T	I have to intercede on behalf of mentees in the community due to conflicts					
U	Mentors, mentees and all parties are often comfortable with the way conflict is resolved between mentor and mentee by the head teacher.					
V	Conflict usually arises between mentees and mentors					
W	Conflict usually arises between mentee and other mentees					
X	Conflict usually arises between mentee and other mentors					
Y	Conflict usually arises between mentees and community members					

Z	Conflict usually arises between mentees and lead mentors					
AA	Conflict usually arises between mentees and school pupils					
Q17	**Benefits of Mentoring**					
A	The mentoring programme was a key factor in helping mentees to adjust to the teaching profession.					
B	Mentor-teacher gives mentees the amount of help needed with their teaching practice					
C	The mentoring programme helps reduce mentees feeling of isolation as new or beginning teachers					
D	The mentoring programme helps mentees develop a positive attitude towards teaching.					
E	The mentoring programme helps mentees develop a sense of professionalism about teaching					
F	The mentoring programme affords mentees the opportunity to discuss classroom management strategies.					
G	Presence of mentees reduces loss of contact hours resulting from teachers on excuse duty					
H	The mentoring programme has helped mentor gain more insight into current trends in teaching					
I	The presence of mentees has reduced classroom stress in terms of marking, class control					
J	The presence of mentees has helps with effective extra curricula activities in the school					
K	In sum, I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					
Q18	**Mentoring Relationship**					
A	My mentees mostly respect my time and professional responsibilities.					
B	My mentees make use of feedback provided throughout the mentoring relationship					
C	My mentees are mostly accessible and available.					
D	My mentees mostly communicate regularly with me.					
E	My mentees are concerned about academic problems and work to reduce the deficiencies					
F	My mentees usually contact me for an assistance to improve on their course work performance.					
G	My mentees usually demonstrate a reasonable interest towards me in my quest to offer assistance.					
H	My mentee's behaviour and attitude are generally professional and courteous.					
I	My mentee shows interest and participate in all extracurricular activities of the school					
J	My mentee is open for correction and quick to adapt					
K	My mentee maintains good relationship with other mentees.					
L	I mostly have to come to my mentee's defence with the school authorities for some kind of misconduct.					
M	I see seriousness in my mentee only when external supervisors are coming to the school					
N	My mentees are punctual to school and work hard					
O	My mentees mostly ask for permission and look for excuse to stay out of school					
P	I have issues with the way my mentees relate to the other staff members.					

Q	I have issues with the way my mentees relate to the pupils					
R	Overall, my mentees participate in most mentoring activities.					

Q19. SECTION 3: PERCEPTIONS ABOUT MENTORING

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	I think that the duration of the mentoring programme is too long					
B	I think the mentoring programme is important for both the mentees and the mentors					
C	I feel it was worth my time and effort in taking part of this programme as a teacher to be.					
D	I think the mentoring programme reduces the content knowledge of the student teachers in their respective colleges due to the time spent outside the college.					
E	I think the mentoring period should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges to allow for more content studies					
F	I have gained personal satisfaction from the mentoring programme and I will repeat it any time					
G	Preparing for final exams on campus alongside the programme mentorship programme is a big challenge for mentees.					
H	I wish that mentees (students) are given the opportunity to choose their own school of attachment					
I	Mentees (students) are given the opportunity to choose their own mentors after orientation.					
J	Mentors are given the opportunity to choose their own mentees after orientation					
K	I strongly believe mentors under me need further training in mentorship to be effective					
L	I feel the mentoring duration must be reduced to one semester to make room for more academic work on campus.					
M	I am fully satisfied with how conflicts are resolved					
N	In sum I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					

20. What are some of the **MAJOR PERSONAL** challenges you face as a Lead mentor?
    a. .....
    b. .....

21. *What are some of the **MAJOR GENERAL** challenges face the smooth implementation of the mentoring programme?*
    a. .....
    b. .....

23 What in your view should be done differently about mentorship programme?
    a. .....
    b. .....

Thank You

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF LEGAL STUDIES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LINK TUTORS

This research seeks to undertake an investigation into teacher-trainee mentorship programme of the Colleges of Education in the Central-Western Zone of Ghana with special reference to mentor competencies, stakeholders' perception of the mentoring process, sources of conflict between mentors and mentees, the effects of financial cost on mentoring, benefits and challenges. The study is purely for academic purpose and secrecy of your data is assured.

Direction: Please, answer the following questions by choosing the most appropriate options or writing down your answer (s) in the space provided. Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Please, **Tick** your answer or write where appropriate. **Thank you.**

==========

SECTION 1- BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Location Urban [ ] Rural [ ]
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Indicate your Age group
   - 30 and below [ ]
   - 31-40 [ ]
   - 41-50 [ ]
   - 51-60 [ ]
   - 61 and above [ ]
4. What is your highest level of qualification?
   - First Degree [ ]
   - MA [ ]
   - Med [ ]
   - M.Phil. [ ]
   - PhD [ ]
5. Do you have professional certificate? Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. Are you currently on further studies? Yes [ ] No [ ]
7. Are you currently a Link Tutor? Yes [ ] No [ ]
8. How many students (mentees) are under your care as a Link Tutor?
   - 1 - 5 [ ]
   - 6 - 10 [ ]
   - 11 - 15. [ ]
   - 16 - 20 [ ]
   - 21 and above [ ]
9. How many times do you visit your mentees at their school of attachment as a link tutor in a term?
   - Once in a term [ ]
   - Twice in a term [ ]
   - Three times in a term [ ]
   - Four times in a term [ ]
   - Five times and above [ ]

Others (Specify) ……

10. Are you given special allowance as a Link Tutor? Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. If yes, how much are you given?

50 per year	[ ]
100 per year	[ ]
150 per year	[ ]
200 per year	[ ]
250 and above	[ ]

Others (Specify) ……..

12 Are you satisfied with the allowance? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. If No, do you think it impacts on your performance negatively? Yes [ ] No [ ]

14. Please, explain your answer ……
……
……

SECTION 2 GENERAL INFORMATION

In each of the statement below indicate whether you, Strongly Degree (SDA), Disagree (DA), Moderately Agree (MA), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA)

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
Q15	**Competence Level**					
A	I don't fully trust the competencies of all my mentors to serve as the effective mentors that I want					
B	The mentors for our students often ask mentees questions that are self-reflective					
C	The mentors for our students, challenge them to perform and do it in a friendly manner					
D	The mentors for our students give quick and effective feedback which are very helpful to my mentees.					
E	The mentors for our students support mentees to identify their areas of strength and weakness in a way that make them feel comfortable					
F	The mentors for our students demonstrate professional integrity in the mentoring process					
G	The mentors for our students demonstrate great content and expertise in the areas of academic needs of mentees.					
H	The mentors for our students provide constructive and useful criticisms to mentees' work					
I	The mentors for our students provide direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking) to mentees					
J	The mentors for our students suggest appropriate resources (e.g., source materials) to my mentees					
K	The mentors for our students are highly committed to our student teachers					
Q16	**Cost Implication**					
A	The mentorship process introduces additional cost into the school administration which is not fully covered in their budgets					
B	I feel further funding for the mentorship programme will improve its effectiveness					
C	I feel the mentors must be properly remunerated					
D	I suggest the student teacher is given special allowance by the government during their out-programme session					

E	The remuneration to link tutors is far below the cost associated with delivering their duties					
F	I scarcely meet my mentees as a link tutor due to inadequate funds					
G	Link tutors lack logistic to effectively deliver on their responsibilities					
Q17	**Sources of Conflict**					
A	Conflict is a major component of the mentoring process					
B	Issues of sexual relationships between mentors and mentees are major sources of conflicts					
C	Relations between mentees and link tutors sometimes lead to conflicts					
D	Issues of sexual relationships between other staffs and mentees are major sources of conflicts					
E	Issues of sexual relationships between mentees of opposite sex are major sources of conflicts					
F	Lesson note preparation is a major source of conflict between mentor and mentee					
G	Lateness and absenteeism to school to school is a major source of conflict between mentors and mentees					
H	Where the mentor and mentee are of the opposite sex, the spouse of the mentor can be a source of conflict					
I	Religious difference has been a major source of conflict between mentors and mentees					
J	Ethnicity play a major role in creating conflicts between mentors and mentees					
K	Lack of content knowledge of the mentor relative to the mentee creates conflicts as mentors feel intimidated.					
L	Other mentors instigate mentees against their mentors which creates conflicts					
M	Head Teachers over empower mentees against their mentors which creates conflicts					
N	Female mentors create more conflicts than male mentors					
O	Female mentees create more conflicts than male mentees					
P	Conflicts are more likely to occur when mentors have same sex than in the case of opposite sex.					
Q	In the case of same sex, male mentor -male mentee relationship leads to more conflicts than female mentor – female mentee relationship.					
R	Issues of sexual relationships between male mentees and pupils of opposite sex are major sources of conflicts.					
S	Issues of sexual relationships between mentees and opposite sex of community members are major sources of conflicts.					
T	I have to intercede on behalf of mentees in the community due to conflicts					
U	Mentors, mentees and all parties are often comfortable with the way conflict is resolved between mentor and mentee by the head teacher.					

V	As a link tutor I am comfortable with the way conflict is resolved between mentors and mentees by the head teacher.					
Q18	**Benefits of the Mentorship**					
A	The mentoring programme was a key factor in helping mentees to adjust to the teaching profession					
B	Mentor teacher give mentees the amount of help needed with their teaching practice					
C	The mentoring programme helps reduce mentees feeling of isolation as new or beginning teachers					
D	The mentoring programme helps mentees develop a positive attitude towards teaching.					
E	The mentoring programme helps mentees develop a sense of professionalism about teaching					
F	The mentoring programme affords mentees the opportunity to discuss classroom management strategies.					
G	Presence of mentees reduces loss of contact hours resulting from teachers on excuse duty					
H	The mentoring programme has helped mentor gain more insight into current trends in teaching					
I	The presence of mentees has reduced classroom stress in terms of marking, class control					
J	The presence of mentees helps with the extra curricula activities in the school					
K	In sum I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					

Q19. SECTION 3: PERCEPTION ABOUT MENTORING

	STATEMENT	SDA	DA	MA	A	SA
A	I think that the duration of the mentoring programme is too long					
B	I think the mentoring programme is important for both the mentees and the mentors					
C	I feel it was worth my time and effort in taking part of this programme as a teacher to be.					
D	I think the mentoring programme reduces the content knowledge of the student teachers in their respective colleges due to the time spent outside the college.					
E	I think the mentoring period should have been done during the long holidays of the colleges to allow for more content studies					
F	I have gained personal satisfaction from the mentoring programme and I will repeat it any time					
G	Preparing for final exams on campus alongside the internship programme (mentorship programme) is a big challenge for mentees.					
H	I wish that mentees (students) were given the opportunity to choose their own school of attachment					
I	Mentees (students) are given the opportunity to choose their own mentors after orientation.					
J	Mentors are given the opportunity to choose their own mentees after orientation					
K	I strongly believe that mentors under me need further training in mentorship to be more effective					
L	I feel the mentoring duration must be reduced to one semester to make room for more academic work on campus.					

M	I am fully satisfied with how conflicts are resolved					
N	In sum I am fully satisfied with how the mentorship programme is currently organised					

20. What are some of the **MAJOR PERSONAL** challenges you face as a Link Tutor?
    a. ……
    b. ……
    c. ……
21. *What are some of the MAJOR GENERAL challenges face the smooth implementation of the mentoring programme?*
    a. ……
    ……
    b. ……
22. What in your view should be done differently about mentorship programme?
    a. ……
    b. ……
    c. ……

Thank you

APPENDIX E

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF LEGAL STUDIES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY
INTERVIEW GUIDE USED TO INTERVIEW VICE PRINCIPALS AND TEACHING PRACTICE COORDINATORS

General information

1. Gender
2. Indicate your Age group
3. Sir may I please know your portfolio and how long you have held this office?

Selection and competence of mentors

1. How are the mentors for mentor student teachers recruited or selected?
2. What are the most important criterial one must meet before considered qualified to mentor?
3. Do most of your mentors meet these criteria?
4. Do you fully trust the competencies of all the mentors to serve as the effective mentor?
5. Do you organise in service training for your mentors and how often?

Sources of conflict

1. To what extend is conflict a challenge to the mentoring process?
2. In your view what are the sources of conflict between mentors and their mentees?
3. In your view what are the nature of the conflict in the mentoring process?
4. Do you think conflict significantly affects the smooth running of the mentorship programme?
5. How are the conflicts resolved if they occurred?
6. Will you say parties including yourself are satisfied with the resolution process?

Cost implications

1. Does the mentorship process have any cost implication on the follow?
    - The college
    - School of attachment
    - Mentor
    - Mentees
2. Do you remunerate the mentors, lead mentors and link tutors and in what form?
3. Do you sincerely believe that **inadequate / lack** of remuneration affect the smooth implementation of the mentoring process?

Other issues

1. Would you consider the duration of the mentoring process to be too long?
2. Do you think the level of supervision from the College is enough?
3. Do you think involving the school of attachment in the assessment of the student teacher could help?
4. To what extent does incidence of sexual harassment or sexual relationship between mentors and mentees a challenge to the programme?
5. How are such issues addressed?

Benefit of the programme

1. In your view what are some of the benefits of the mentoring programme to the mentee, mentor and school of attachment?

APPENDIX F
APPROVAL LETTER FROM IRB UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309/ 0244207814
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
C/O Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/586
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096

7TH FEBRUARY, 2020

Mr. Eric Sekyi
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
University of Cape Coast

Dear Mr. Sekyi,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CHLS/2019/37)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research protocol titled **Status of the Mentorship programme in the Colleges of Education in Ghana: Central –Western Zone in Perspective.** This approval is valid from 7th February, 2020 to 6th February, 2021. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

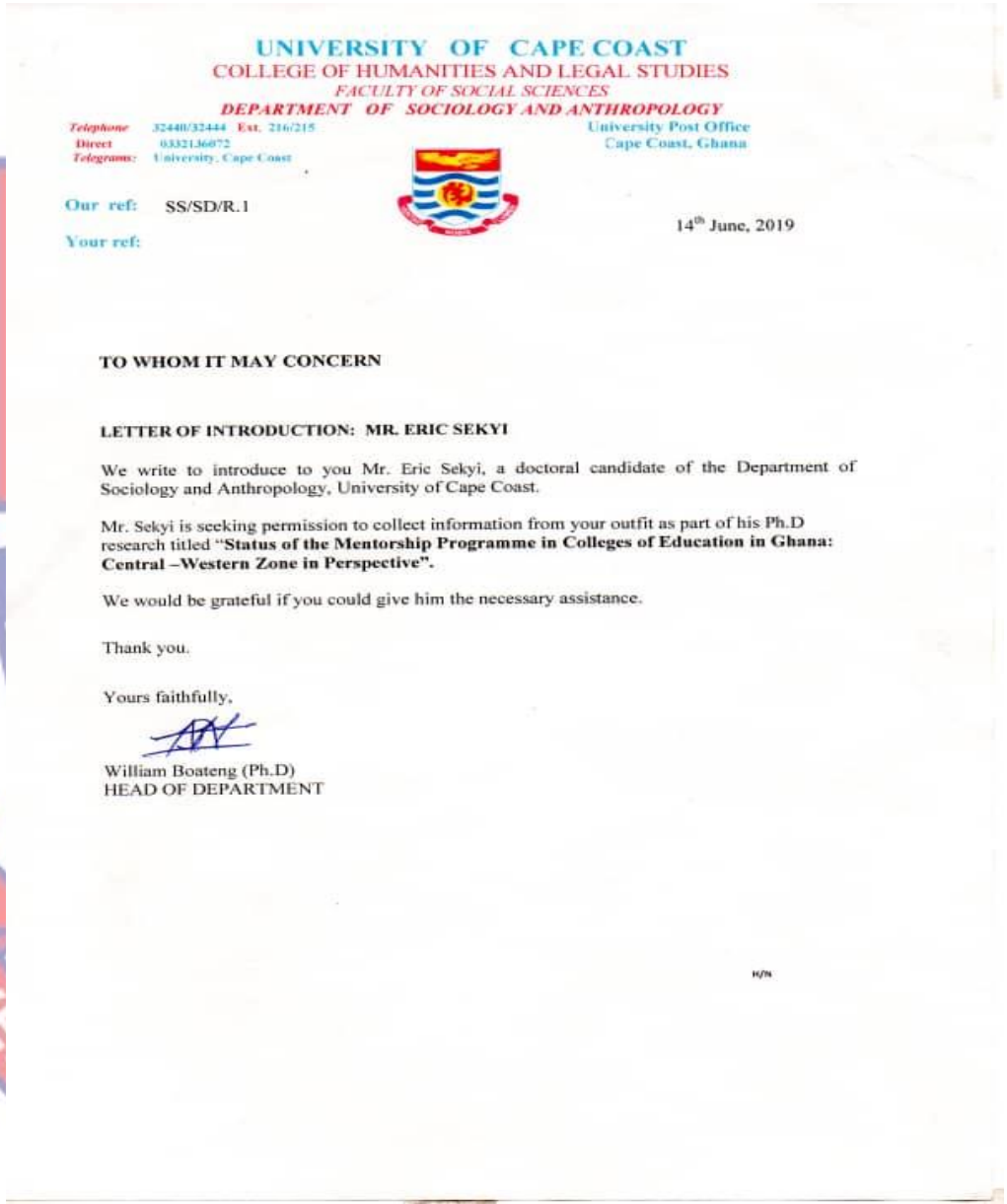
Yours faithfully,

Prof. P.K. Buah-Bassuah
UCCIRB Chairperson

CHAIRPERSON
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

APPENDIX G

AN INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE DEPARTMENT



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY

Telephone 32440/32444 Ext. 216/215
Direct 0332136072
Telegrams: University, Cape Coast

University Post Office
Cape Coast, Ghana

Our ref: SS/SD/R.1

Your ref:

14th June, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: MR. ERIC SEKYI

We write to introduce to you Mr. Eric Sekyi, a doctoral candidate of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Cape Coast.

Mr. Sekyi is seeking permission to collect information from your outfit as part of his Ph.D research titled "**Status of the Mentorship Programme in Colleges of Education in Ghana: Central –Western Zone in Perspective".**

We would be grateful if you could give him the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

William Boateng (Ph.D)
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

H/N