UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

CHALLENGES FACING TEACHER MENTEES OF OFFINSO COLLEGE OF

EDUCATION AND SUPPORT SYSTEMS AVAILABLE TO THEM

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, HILDA ASUO BAFFOUR, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and that and that it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE: …………………………………

DATE: ………………………………………

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR'S: DR. HINNEH KUSI

SIGNATURE: ………………………………….

DATE: …………………………......................

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DEDICATION

To my parents whose support has brought me this far and to my husband whose encouragements have kept me going.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

This study sought to unveil possible problems that confront and intimidate mentees in their professional development. A case study design underpinned by the interpretive paradigm was adopted for this study. The main instruments used in gathering the data were a structured questionnaire and a semi – structured interview. The population used was the entire 2015 mentorship group with a population size of 152. The sample size used in this study was 76 teacher mentees selected through multi-stage sampling technique. The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed using descriptive statistics with the aid of frequencies and percentages. The interview data on the other hand was analyzed through the thematic approach. The study revealed that unpreparedness of some teachers to work collaboratively with mentees and absenteeism of mentors were the major challenges confronting mentees in their mentoring programme. It was revealed that the mentoring programme equipped mentees to be independent and objective in the ways of thinking about issues in the teaching and learning environment. The study therefore concluded that the necessary activities meant to impact practical skills to teacher trainees in the Offinso College of Education during their mentoring programme were in place in the attachment schools. The study recommended among others that the Offinso College of Education in collaboration with the schools within the district where teacher trainees are assigned should organize periodic training sessions for prospective mentors on their roles in the entire mentoring process.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Study

Teacher education in Ghana has been going through a process of change and development. This change and development is taking place in response to the need to provide quality teachers for the education of the youth at all levels of the country's educational system. This has become increasingly more demanding with respect to a rapidly changing society that needs a new crop of students who are molded to play new roles for the development of society. Aboagye (2002) reveals that educating more citizens develop their mentality and capabilities which lead to high productivity and freedom from mental slavery. Proficient teacher education, according to Duodo (2002), depends on the quality of instruction given to them in the schools they were trained in and the kind of mentoring they undergo in their place of internship and stations. It is not surprising then, that despite the best efforts of teacher-education programmes, ''teachers are much more likely to teach as they have been taught throughout their schooling than as they have been taught in teacher-education programmes'' (Watson, 1995, p.2).

The main concern of most countries is to improve their educational system and the academic life of their students (De Grauwe, 2001). Lookheed and Verspoor (1991) explained that quality education mostly depends on how well teachers are trained and supervised since they are one of the major contributors to education delivery. Aboagye (2002) explained that getting quality teachers depends on the quality of education and training giving to them. Hence quality teacher education has been seen as a crucial factor for effective educational outcomes in moving any nation forward.

1

The importance of teacher education has led many governments, including that of Ghana to place much priority on the development of education. The importance of teacher education in Ghana was further emphasised by the pronouncement in 1998, by the then Deputy Minister of Education responsible for Basic Education, that reform of teacher training was also on the agenda, alongside devolution of control, curriculum reform, competency-based training, and a decentralisation of the educational bureaucracy in the country (Kyere, 1998). Teachers make or break educational programme (Nacino-Brown, Oke & Brown, 1990). This means that quality teacher education should be taken seriously since teacher development starts at the training institution and continues throughout their working life.

Teacher education in Ghana has gone through a number of changes over the years. Several courses were offered at the training colleges leading to the certificates:

1. Two-year Post-Middle Teacher certificate 'B'

2. Two-year post-'B' Teacher Certificate 'A'

3. Four-year Post-Middle Teacher Certificate 'A'

4. Two-year Post-Secondary Teacher 4Certificate 'A'

5. Three-year Post-Secondary Teacher Certificate 'A'.

Currently the Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) programme which is offered by the various Colleges of Education is also schedule for three years. Teacher trainees spend the first two years on the college campus and the final year outside campus. In the first year, trainees are taught foundational courses related to subjects taught at the basic level. During the second year, curriculum studies integrated with methodology

(demonstration lessons and campus-based practice teaching, on-campus teaching practice) courses are offered to prepare them for their internship and field training.

The mentees are accommodated in groups in their various communities. They are expected to feed themselves, pay bills, travel to collect their allowances, among others (GES, 2001). Their duties include teaching, lesson notes preparation, marking of exercises and managing classroom. They are also expected to involve themselves in all co-curricular activities of the school. Mentees are to observe punctuality to school and good personal relationship with other mentees, staff and people of the community, link-tutors and District Directorate of Education (DDE) officers. They are also expected to be involved in various community activities and even observe taboos with the exception of politics and tribal issues. Additionally, mentees are to write their project work and attend study circle meetings to study Distance Learning Materials (DLMs).

As part of the professional preparation of the teacher, the teacher trainee has to practice teaching before they are qualified as professional teachers. A National Education Forum on Pedagogical skills was convened by the Ministry of Education on the 17th to 19th of November, 1999. The outcome of the forum suggested that all teacher trainees should undergo a one year teaching practice as well as field training and also serve a year's probation under experienced teachers after the teaching practice (Edusah, 1999).

Again, as part of the implementation of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme which states that most teachers should be proficient and well versed in teaching primary methodology (MOE/PREP, 1996), the epi-centre of quality education under the teacher education unit curriculum was reviewed to provide well-qualified teachers for basic schools. This brought about the introduction of the one

full year internship programme in 1998/99 academic year. Mentees stay in the communities of the practice schools other than that of their colleges and undertake school-based training whilst school authorities also use this opportunity to assess their students.

When a novice teacher starts work in a school, he or she is usually expected to take on the same responsibilities as veteran colleagues and is often disadvantaged by being allocated the least desirable and most difficult teaching assignments. At the same time he or she is expected to come to terms with and absorb a set of established rules, relationships, ways of behaving and understanding that give a particular school its unique character (Bullough, 1989). Commencing teaching resembles a process of transition or rite of passage that is often described as 'reality shock' (Veenman, 1984). The support provided to beginning teachers at this time is critical to the quality of their immediate professional experiences as well as to their long-term professional learning, hence the introduction of mentorship programme.

Mentoring is one such form of professional support that has received widespread attention in the literature and which has been implemented in a number of teacher education and induction programmes during the last two decades. Mentors are generally defined as individuals with advanced experience and knowledge who are committed to providing upward mobility and career support to their protégés (Kram, 1985).

Mentors come to the role with a wide range of professional experience and, consequently, they have different needs and expectations. An alternative approach is to provide opportunities for mentors to meet and engage in a professional dialogue focused on professional practice and the development of new understandings about learning and

teaching. The aim of the internship programme is to develop reflective teachers and encourage reciprocal learning that may lead to general school renewal (SIH, 2009). The internship programme (GES, 2001) includes mentorship training and supervision.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teacher education plays a crucial role in empowering a group of people to assist the greater majority of individuals to adapt to the rapidly changing social, economic and cultural environment to ensure the development of human capital required for the economic and social growth of societies. The underlying principle of teacher education in Ghana is to provide teachers with better knowledge and skills, together with better incentives to use their knowledge and skills for the benefit of children, through the creation of an accessible, integrated teacher education and training system which provides a structure for continuous professional development throughout their teaching careers (MOE, 1994). It is said that if teachers acquire the professional competence and attitudes that enable them to effectively perform their multiple tasks in the classroom, in the school and in the community, teachers become the single most important contributing factor in ensuring quality education provision (Dave & Rajput, 2000). A critical aspect of this professional competence is the mentoring programme which entreats the final year student teachers in colleges of education to have practical experience as teachers in a classroom setting. It is the heart of teacher education and an inseparable aspect of any professional training. .

The benefits of mentorship component in any teacher education programme cannot be overemphasized. According to Anamuah-Mensah (1997), the benefits include

strengthening the development of specific teaching competencies, providing opportunities for self-reflection, providing opportunities for sharing experiences with a mentor, supervisor and peers, promoting problem solving capacity and team skills in student teachers and an appreciation of the life of the whole school as distinct from teaching in individual classroom, encourage formation of learning communities and promotion of team work, providing opportunity for student teachers to establish themselves as generative and innovative teaching professionals through authentic participation in school and community activities and meeting real pupils/learners and real situations enables student teachers to develop a repertoire of skills in dealing with different learning situations.

Furthermore, studies have also revealed the relevance of mentoring, especially to education and one among them is the study by Bova and Phillis (1984) which concluded after a survey on the effectiveness of mentoring that protégés learn risk-taking behaviours, communication skills, survival in the organization and skills in their profession. Other benefits according to Bova and Phillis are that protégés learn to respect people, set high standards and try to attain them, become good listeners, and learn how to get along with all sorts of people, acquire leadership qualities and learn what it means to be a professional. Besides, Freiberg, Zbikowski and Ganser (1997) in their study on the importance of mentorship programme concluded that mentoring new teachers could provide professional development for both mentor and protégé. The mentors were transformed through team building, observing teachers at different schools, attending conferences and consulting with peers. The Internship Newsletter (2004) of University of Winneba explains that field-based experiences present opportunities for students to

6

enhance their ability to engage in reflective strategies and improve their teaching behaviours. It further states that mentees learn new skills and educational practices needed to develop and maintain excellence in teaching.

Notwithstanding these tremendous benefits of mentorship to the student teacher, their future learners, our society and the country as a whole, very little seem to be known of the experiences of the mentees on the field. As a tutor in college of education, almost every year some mentees complain vehemently about various difficulties they encounter ranging from attitude of some of the heads of the schools they are sent to, attitude of some of the mentors as well as the community members they lived with. It is against this background that this study seeks to explore the challenges of mentees at the Offinso College of Education.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges facing mentees from Offinso College of Education during their internship and the support systems available to the mentees.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

Specifically the study sought to:

1. Identify the activities that mentees are exposed to by their mentors during the mentoring programmes.
2. Examine the benefits of the mentoring programme to the mentees.
3. Identify the challenges facing mentees of the Offinso College of Education during their mentoring programme.

4. Identify the support systems provided to the mentees at Offinso College of Education.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What activities are the teacher mentees at Offinso College of Education exposed to by their mentors during the mentoring programmes?

2. What are the benefits of these activities to the mentees of the Offinso College of Education?

3. What challenges do the teacher mentees at the Offinso College of Education face during their mentoring programmes?

4. What are the support systems put in place for the teacher mentees at Offinso College of Education?
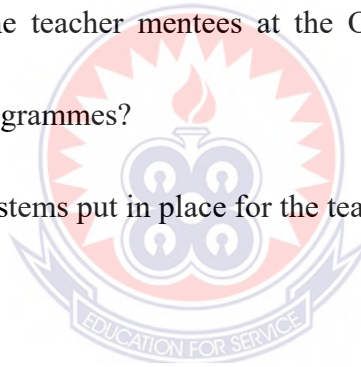
1.6. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would greatly contribute to the mentoring programme as a whole. First, the findings of this study would beef up the existing literature on the benefit and challenges facing mentees in the mentoring programme in Ghana. Also the findings would significantly point out the various challenges facing mentees, specifically mentees at the Offinso College of Education to policy makers and programme evaluators. Besides, the findings would assist the authorities of Offinso College of Education and the

mentors to institute effective measures to enable the mentees to have successful mentoring programme.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

There are several issues concerning mentoring programme in Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region of Ghana, but this study focused on Offinso College of Education. The study focused on 2015 mentorship group (final year students) of the institution and they provided data for the study. The study focused on activities the mentees were exposed to, the benefits of these activities to the students, challenges the mentees face as well as the support systems put in place for them.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to Offinso College of Education even though there were other Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region coupled with a small sample size used for the study, therefore, the result and the findings of this study cannot be used to make generalization for other Colleges of Education.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This study is organised into six chapters. The first chapter focuses on introduction to the study, which includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study and research questions. Other items in this chapter include significance of the study, delimitations, Limitations and definition of terms and organization of the study.

9

Chapter Two reviews literature on the concept mentoring and mentorship, pedagogical growth of mentees and Mentors, Mentors absenteeism and Pedagogical development of mentees and the relationship between mentees and mentors and their professional practices. The methodology used in the development of Mentees pedagogical, growth is discussed in chapter three under the following headings: research design, population, sample size and Sampling technique and instruments used for data collection. The reliability and validity of the instrument was also tested, procedures for data collection and analysis was also captured in this chapter. Chapter Four consists of the findings and chapter five talks about the analysis and the discussions of the findings whiles the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the sixth Chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

As indicated earlier, this chapter focused on the related literature of this current study. The chapter touched on theoretical framework of the study as well as the conceptual framework of the study. The major theory on which this study was grounded was constructivist theory of learning. On the other hand the conceptual review focused on related relevant existed literature. Areas the conceptual review focused on have been categorised under the following subheadings:

1. Theoretical framework of the study

2. Professional context of Learning

3. Concept teaching

4. Initial Teacher Education in Ghana

5. Concept mentorship

6. Structure of mentorship programme

7. Characteristics of a Good Mentorship Programme

8. Role of teacher training institutions in mentorship programme

9. Role of mentor in mentorship programme

10. Role of mentee in mentorship programmes

11. Importance of mentorship programme

12. Activities of mentees

13. Impact of activities

14. Pedagogical growth of mentees

15. Challenges of mentees

16. Support systems for mentees

2.1. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The main theory on which this current study was grounded is the constructivist paradigm of learning. Constructivism, according to Richardson (1997) is the lens that is used to examine the world and thus provides a manner in which the events of teaching and learning are described and understood. In the early 19th and 20th century the role of the teacher was seen as being to impart knowledge to the learner, whilst constructivism provides the platform to create knowledge and understanding (Richardson,1997). Knowledge and skills were thought to be obtained through formal education and training. The constructivist viewpoint considers what happens "inside the minds" of individuals (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002:12). The following examples in Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002:12) are provided to illustrate the constructivist viewpoint;

1. Learning is a dual process where the learner accumulates and interprets information and knowledge according to their previous knowledge and personal experiences.

2. Personal experiences, practice, literature and information from people are viewed as new ways to reconstruct the "learners' existing internal knowledge". Thus new information is not perceived as additional knowledge to be stored by the learner.

3. The learner's knowledge is viewed as being created personally regarding constructs of understanding that can be critically challenged in a purposeful

12

manner particularly to the needs of a learner, hence the knowledge of the learner is no longer regarded as a storage of 'transmitted information'.

4. Learning is viewed as building knowledge pertaining to new or prior knowledge which is an ongoing process throughout a person's lifetime. Moreover, knowledge is perceived as a creation of social and joint interaction amongst people.

In the this study the constructivist theory of learning was deem appropriate because, Gagnon and Collay (2005) revealed that constructivist learning is grounded in learners constructing their own meaning to achieve a particular task. Campbell and Brummet (2007) posits that to cultivate the culture of learning in a mentoring context, teacher educators should reposition their way of thinking in line with constructivist perspectives of learning. Also Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) supported the use of this theory in a research which is related to teacher's mentorship because, they are of the opinion that mentoring is deeply embedded within the constructivist viewpoint. They believe that mentoring uses the idea that opportunities for potential learning include situations that enable the mentee to think or reflect about constructs that exist, and that the mentor should facilitate reflection. Further knowledge is created through the social and joint interaction of people. Hence learning of teaching occurs between the interaction of mentor and mentee. The ultimate objective of the mentoring relationship is to make it possible for the mentee to reflect on the mentor's overall input and for the mentee to absorb and accumulate the input according to what is relevant to their own professional development. To add to the discussion, Wang and Odell (2007) stresses that mentoring is not always aligned with the constructivist perspective of learning to teach and, as a result,

13

mentoring according to the constructivist perspective remains limited. The foregoing researchers found that there is a variation of both mentor and novice teachers' ideas of learning to teach which is different from constructivist mentoring.

Furthermore, constructivist theory underpinned this study because, Tomlinson (1995) advises that for pre-service teachers to become skilful at teaching they need two types of learning achievement. This includes learning to understand and clarify the complex elements and procedures that are involved in any related aspect of teaching and, how to integrate the elements necessary for teaching. Accordingly the two types of learning need to be combined with the development of learning how to be aware of, and how to understand and react to a particular teaching situation. Tomlinson (1995) asserts that the two forms of learning are mandatory in teaching, and for pre-service teachers to develop these forms of learning, they will need ongoing active assistance from their mentors. To adhere to the foregoing considerations, Tomlinson (1995:30) stresses that mentors and pre-service teachers will not start their relationship with "blank slates". Both pre-service teachers and their mentors come into the mentoring relationship with prior knowledge of teaching and learning. A detailed discussion of learning and teaching within the context of mentoring is presented in the following paragraphs.

2.1.1. Other Models of Mentorship Guiding this Study

Furlong and Maynard (1995) came out with a model in mentoring. They stated that there are many models of mentoring. The selection of the best suited model should be based on the protégé's needs and organizational contexts. This section aims to provide

an overview of the different theoretically and empirically derived models. The models discussed here are:

(1) The Counselling Model for Effective Helping

(2) The Competence-Based Model and the Mentor as Trainer

 (3) The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring

 (4) The Reflective Practitioner Model and

 (5) The True and Pseudo Mentoring Relationship.

The first model is The Counselling Model for Effective Helping. Effective mentors will use counselling skills to enhance the achievements of protégés. Egan (1998) describes the three stages of counselling as: (1) identifying and clarifying problem situations and unused opportunities; (2) goal setting with the developing of a more desirable scenario; and (3) action and moving towards the preferred scenario. These three steps can be used when giving protégés guidance and support in working out their own action plans. Integral to the process is the concept of client self-responsibility, which is strengthened by success, modelling, encouragement and reducing fear or anxiety. In the context of teacher training, mentoring is essentially about classroom craft and articulating the knowledge, theory, skills and experience which make trainees into good teachers. Successful counselling by the mentor will both depend on and enhance the ability of the trainee to be self-aware and engage in constructive self-appraisal of his or her practice. Besides, this model also underlines the importance of negotiation and problem-solving in sorting out conflict. It is important that all parties involved are able to maintain their self-esteem at all stages in the negotiation. The basic skills of good negotiation are anticipating and avoiding possible conflict, non-confrontational verbal or body language,

15

good verbal and non-verbal communication, choosing appropriate settings for the negotiation to take place, clearly identifying and separating issues, the ability to review and summarize the other person's view points, acknowledging the value of the other person's point of view and identifying issues of agreement (Egan, 1998).

The second model is the Competence-Based Model and the Mentor as Trainer. As stated by Brooks and Sikes (1997), this model is based on the view that teaching involves the acquisition of a specific set of competencies. In this approach, the mentor's role is fundamentally to act as a systematic trainer who observes the trainee with a pre-defined observation schedule and who provides regular feedback upon the progress made by the trainee in mastering the required skills. This is in effect, the role of a coach. This approach has the advantage that standards and expectations are clear to both mentor and trainee.

Certainly, the mentee will benefit from knowing about the standards as learning goals from the beginning of their course and using the standard statements regularly with mentors to chart their progress. Nonetheless, critics of competence training in education have argued that teaching cannot easily be broken down into a series of tasks. The fact that the 'standards' are currently under revision is an indication of the level of debate which has been generated in the education world about how to describe the complex act of teaching. In summary, the competence model, in which the mentor performs the role of a trainer, is central to government thinking and provides the basis for the regulations with which all initial teacher education courses must comply.

The third model is The Furlong and Maynard (1995) Model of Mentoring, which is empirically based. They propose that good-quality mentoring is a complex,

16

sophisticated and multifaceted activity incorporating different strategies and requiring high-level skills. Furlong and Maynard's Model is a staged one, which depicts learning to teach as a series of overlapping phases in which mentoring strategies need to be carefully matched to protégé's developmental needs as stated in Table 2. Therefore, the stages need to be interpreted flexibly and with sensitivity. The model is grounded in the conviction that: Like any form of teaching, mentoring must be built on a clear understanding of the learning processes it is intended to support protégés. Mentoring cannot be developed in a vacuum; it must be built on an informed understanding of how protégés develop (Furlong & Maynard, 1995).

If the points stated in Furlong and Maynard's Model are accepted: (1) effective mentoring is based not on a single generic model but is a collection of strategies used flexibly and sensitively in response to changing needs; (2) different stages in the mentoring process are likely to be cumulative rather than sequential. As the course progresses, the range of strategies employed is likely to expand and the balance between them is likely to shift; (3) mentoring is an individualised form of training, often conducted on a one-to-one-basis, which needs to be tailored to the needs of the individual; and (4) mentoring is a dynamic process, aimed at propelling protégé forward, which needs to combine support with challenge.

The fourth model is The Reflective Practitioner Model. Arthur, Davison & Moss (1997) argue that teaching involves values and attitudes, which are largely ignored in the competence models. They note that the terms reflection and critical reflection are used in many descriptions of approaches to teacher education. It should, however, be noted that there is no one specific set of strategies constituting the reflective practitioner approach.

17

Some writers stress that the reflective practitioner should be concerned with the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching as well as the pedagogical and practical ones. Hence, the term reflective practitioner has been used in different ways. Also, it is worth noting that research by Tann (1994) suggests that many protégés want mentors to just give them their opinions on their teaching, rather than to question them and encourage them to reflect. However, it has also been argued that by reflecting on practice, protégés can derive 'personal theory' from experience and may relate this to formal theory which they have acquired from reading and other sources.

Pollard (2001) says that reflective action involves a willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development. He identifies six characteristics of reflective teaching: (1) aims and consequences, which means that teachers should consider their goals and intended outcomes, not only within the classroom, but also within the wider context of society; (2) competence in classroom enquiry which means that reflective teachers give consideration, at all times, to the effectiveness of their teaching skills; (3) attitudes towards teaching which means reflective teachers regularly review new information and research topics concerning issues in the classroom; (4) teacher judgment which means that reflective teachers not only reflect on their teaching styles but also adjust them according to their interpretation of new evidence and research; (5) learning with colleagues, which means that a reflective teacher is prepared to listen, discuss and consider issues with other professionals; and (6) reflective teaching which is an ongoing process whereby teachers review and adapt their classroom practice.

Pollard (2001) also comments on the benefits of mentoring with regard to reflective teaching. He states that mentoring and being guided by a mentor provides

18

excellent opportunities for the development of both practical skills and reflective understanding. Schon (1983) identifies reflection-on-action (after the event) and reflection-in-action (during the event) as essential characteristics of this professional artistry, which is distinguished by its reference to a store of relevant previous experiences and detailed contextual knowledge, rather than relying simply on the knowledge and skills acquired during initial training. However, Elliot (1991) contrasts this model with the new professional images which are similar in many aspects to Schon's characterisation of the reflective practitioner in that they involve: (1) collaboration with clients, who may be individuals, groups or communities, in identifying, clarifying and resolving their problems; (2) the importance of communication and empathy with clients as a means of understanding situations from their point of view; (3) a new emphasis on the holistic understanding of situations as the basis for professional practice, rather than on understanding them exclusively in terms of a particular set of specialist categories; and (4) self-reflection as a means of overcoming stereotypical judgments and responses.

The fifth model is The True and Pseudo Mentoring Relationship. Classical mentoring and contract mentoring can be considered as true mentoring, as both contain the vital elements essential to mentoring, namely the helper functions, mutuality and sharing, and identified stages and duration. Pseudo-mentoring or quasi-mentoring approaches have probably occurred due to the initial lack of understanding of the roles, purposes, processes and formal applications of mentoring (Cooper and Palmer, 1993).

2.2. Professional Context of Learning

Learning as a process is a vital feature of peoples' everyday lives. Learning is multidimensional as revealed by Elliot and Calderhead (1993) who state that irrespective of where or how learning occurs, it always remains the same phenomena. To Tomlinson (1995), learning is the process of acquiring abilities which may include values, attitudes and methods of behaving. Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) believe that learning can provide the competitive edge to sustain global competition which is on the increase and 'learning to learn' is regarded as the most significant skill of life that enables individuals to achieve increased effectiveness in the world of work and to lead lives that are fulfilling. In this light several reasons for the importance of learning have been provided by Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002):

1. All the knowledge that a person possesses has been learned;

2. Everything a person can do has been learned apart from basic reflexes, for example breathing.

3. The development of attitudes, beliefs and values has been learned and consequently influence how people behave.

According to literature, there is a difference between professional learning and learning in general. Morrow (2007) posited that general learning is not only a result of teaching that happens in formal educational programmes but occurs from many other sources, for example within the home, community, society, where an individual lives. Hence past experiences of individuals must be taken into account to prepare them for the future (Dewey, 1938).

20

Unlike learning in general, professional learning takes place in different contexts for the student teacher. Student teachers need to learn in a school context and the whole school environment, encourage professional debate and present challenges to develop students teachers' orientation to the practice of teaching (Elliot & Calderhead, 1993). To establish close cooperation between all stakeholders involved in assisting student teachers' learning *about* teaching requires three viewpoints concurrently: "the perspective of the individual learning to teach, the perspective of the teacher in a school, and the perspective of the teacher educator in the university setting" (Korthagen, 2004:1034).

Expert believed that when mentees or student teachers learn, they are able to structure meanings which will expose them to new opportunities for their learning (Van Louw & Waghid, 2008). Thus teaching and learning are ongoing for the mentee. Taking risks should be encouraged by the mentors as the mentee will experience unforeseen situations and learn how to deal with them (Van Louw & Waghid, 2008). Hamilton (2003:28) proposes a 'learning from experience cycle' that can be utilized by mentors to promote the learning of their mentees.

According to Hamilton (2003), at the first stage of the cycle mentors should assist mentees on how to plan, for example experiencing a lesson presentation as opposed to dictating how the lesson presentation should be done. The mentee will gain self-confidence and this will educate him/her on what the expectations of a teacher are. Although experience is a requirement for learning, it is insufficient on its own as mentees should reflect on their own experience to develop and understand new experiences (Matoti, Junqueira & Odora, 2011). It is therefore important that at the second stage of the above model the mentee reflects and examines, for example, a lesson presentation.

21

Otherwise learning from experience would not occur. The key role of the mentor is to assist the mentee to reflect on different parts of a particular experience that the mentee can learn from (Hamilton, 2003).

At the third stage the mentor helps the mentee to draw on past experiences and knowledge to enable the mentee to connect these to the current situation. The mentor's personal professional experiences can assist the mentee to 'see the bigger picture' and to better understand the idiosyncrasies of the teaching profession (Hamilton, 2003:31). As result, Dewey (1938) argues that to understand the implications of a particular situation, individuals need to reflect on past experiences to assess how future experiences will be dealt with. The final stage of the learning cycle entails the mentor coaching the mentee to take into consideration their past experiences and challenges when drawing up a current plan of action to ensure that possible problems are taken into account (Hamilton, 2003). It is important that the mentors bear in mind that they are not responsible for the mentees' actions. However, their role as mentor is to ensure that the mentee derives optimal benefit from his/her experiences (Hamilton, 2003).

Learning to teach for the mentees is a difficult and time consuming process as it is challenging to obtain all the required aspects of a professional teacher (Maynard and Furlong, 1995). Tomlinson (1995) provides an overall framework to understand how pre-service teachers as mentees learn in a mentoring context. He proposes learning from others' teaching, learning through own teaching attempts, learning through progressive collaborative teaching and learning by exploring basic and background issues. These concepts will be discussed individually below.

2.2.1. Assisting Mentees to Learn From Others' Teaching

According to Tomlinson (1995) is of the opinion that observation is influential in acquiring methods to take action. In his view, observing the teaching of 'others', for example, mentors provide the mentees with ideas and action plans of potential teaching methods. Directly observing the mentor should be used as a source for the mentees to experiment with different teaching strategies as opposed to 'cloning the mentor teacher' (Tomlinson, 1995:48). Tomlinson added that a concern regarding observation is that mentor teachers are often reluctant to observe and assess mentees and instead prefer the role of offering general assistance (Frost, 1993). The aforementioned author emphasizes the need for a more systematic approach to address the lack of confidence displayed by mentors to observe and assess mentees. The basic aspect of such a systematic approach is to negotiate and agree upon expected competencies of the mentee and to utilize these as a basis of a profiling system. According to Frost (1993) the mentee should be observed regularly and a standard instrument, for example a checklist, should be utilized to assess these competencies. Observation alone is not enough to assist the development of the pre-service teacher. Dewey (1938) contends that observation alone is insufficient to improve a situation. Mentees are not equipped to look for pitfalls and challenges of the mentor's teaching performance and therefore need assistance to familiarise themselves with the complete teaching cycle which is planning, attempt, monitoring and reflection (Tomlinson, 1995). To understand the complex nature of teaching, mentees should be given opportunities to understand the planning, action and reflection of teaching to create a connecting relationship between teaching and learning (Korthagen, 2004). Hence mentors need to assist the mentees with unravelling the planning of the lesson, guiding

23

what to observe, showing and encouraging, monitoring and reflection (Tomlinson, 1995). Loughran (2002) views reflection as an important tool to 'learn through practice'. Pre-service teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their teaching for learning to transpire (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000).

2.2.2. Assisting Mentees to Learn Through their Own Teaching Attempts

All students learn by doing (Schön, 1987). Doing is therefore essential for learning. Tomlinson (1995) supports that learning is achieved by doing. Echoing a similar sentiment, Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) argue that it is a myth that mentors need to teach the mentee at all times, but that learning comes from doing. The mentor should give the mentee an opportunity to learn from their mistakes and take initiative to implement their own strategies to rectify their mistakes.

For a mentee to acquire the skill of teaching encompasses the ability to choose, decide flexibly and put together aspects of particular teaching methods (Tomlinson, 1995). Mentees therefore need more than just taking action to acquire the skill of teaching. To learn by doing requires the mentor to assist with planning the lesson and providing support with the actual teaching activity. Moreover, the mentor needs to give feedback after the lesson presentation and to encourage analysis and reflection (Tomlinson, 1995). Reflection provides the mentee an opportunity to make sense of the situation in which teaching occurs and to develop different viewpoints of teaching (Loughran, 2002).

2.2.3. Assisting Mentees in Collaborative Teaching

Tomlinson (1995) asserts that while supporting mentees 'learning from others' teaching' and 'learning through their own teaching' are useful strategies on their own, it can be more powerful to combine the two. Collaboration between the mentor and pre-service teacher can play a vital role in the pre-service teacher's pursuit to learn to teach. Campbell and Brummet (2007:98) summarised collaboration in the following context of mentoring:

> *'Collaboration with the school-based mentor is key to the learning process and is necessary if student teachers are to refine their teaching role orientation and move from knowing about teaching to knowing how to teach, and ultimately knowing why they teach. This is especially important for connecting pre-service teacher learning to inquiry in the highly contextualized situations that classrooms provide'.*

Collaboration is possible if the pre-service teacher works jointly with one or more mentors according to a structured way over a particular time frame (Tomlinson, 1995). The mentee will jointly plan with the mentor a particular lesson and co-teach. Mutual monitoring of the lesson presentation will take place and they will jointly analyse and reflect on the presentation (Tomlinson, 1995).

A valuable learning experience for mentee during teaching practice is possible if collaboration between mentor and mentee takes place and this will contribute towards the

25

"development of theories and philosophies of teaching" (Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010:425).

Collaboration between the mentor and mentee will enhance mentoring during teaching practice. Added to this the pre-service teacher will view collaboration as an opportunity to establish a partnership with the mentor (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). To create a culture for mentoring, it will require a stance that is based on the conception that mentees and their mentors are both learners and collaborators (Campbell & Brummet, 2007).

2.2.4. Mentees learning to teach by exploring basic and background issues of teaching

Literature revealed that teaching is a skill that requires an in-depth understanding of issues that are broader than planning and presenting lessons. In this light Tomlinson (1995:54) alludes to the fact that mentees' learning requires three sub-forms, namely: directly investigating specific issues relating to teaching and broader aspects of the school context; accessing literature relating to issues of teaching and, to arrange discussions which entail the aforementioned sub-forms. It is thus essential for pre-service teachers to critically engage in the exploration of the proposed sub-forms provided by Tomlinson to develop their skill of teaching.

Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) sum it up by stating that mentees should be provided with the opportunity to practice, adjust and to think carefully about their intentions and procedures in the place of work. This must be done in a protected manner to ensure that confidence and competence is developed. In light of this, mentees' self-

awareness and interpersonal skills should be developed in order for the mentees to operate effectively in the world of work.

Furthermore, this will enable the mentees to develop a professional viewpoint in terms of positioning their performance in a broader context of society and place of work. In conclusion, the mentee will develop autonomy with regards to learning, which will enable the mentee to derive maximum benefits from all learning experiences and to explore on their own other avenues of learning initiatives.

2.3. The Concept Teaching

Teaching is considered as a type of social activity where teachers interact with learners to grasp what is taught in order to achieve the necessary outcomes of what needs to be known by the learners (Tomlinson, 1995). Darling-Hammond and Snyder (2000) argue that teaching is an evolving process developed to enhance learning and is strongly influenced by the aims of learning. According to Dewey (1938) the role of the teachers is to examine the learners' needs and ensure that the environment where teaching occurs will sufficiently address and develop the learners' competencies. Thus, teachers are not only required to provide explicit information of content but should be able to clarify why the information is relevant and link it to real life context (Shulman,1986). Teaching has to deal with its purpose, for example the subject and the realities of the teaching process and the basic characteristics of the learners within a particular context (Tomlinson, 1995). Ultimately the objective of teaching is to promote learning (Malderez & Bodóczky, 1999; Morrow, 2007).

27

Dewey (1938) believes that teaching becomes more challenging for the teachers when they are dealing with children, for example, in their teenage years as opposed to toddlers. In this regard it becomes more difficult for the teacher to acquire knowledge of the history of individual learners' learning experiences and thus teaching of a particular subject matter becomes more complex. Similarly, Mishra and Koehler (2006) describe teaching as a difficult activity which is influenced by various types of knowledge. Shulman (1986) conceived of three knowledge domains in teacher education, namely: Pedagogical Knowledge (PK), Content knowledge (CK) and Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Pedagogical knowledge of teaching refers to "generic principles of classroom organization and management". Content knowledge, on the other hand, refers to the formal knowledge teachers acquired in a particular field. According to Shulman (1986) pedagogical content knowledge comprises an understanding of the content and the complexity of a specific subject content. In the teaching profession, teachers are required to develop innovative ways to teach the content to facilitate the learners' understanding.

According to Mishra and Koehler (2006), there are numerous knowledge structures that relate to the basic nature of teaching, which include; knowledge of the subject matter and student thinking and learning. Elliot and Calderhead (1993) believe that knowledge growth in teaching begins before the pre-service teacher embarks on a formal teaching programme. Pre-service teachers' ideas about how to teach are sometimes influenced by their past experiences of their own schooling (Maynard and Furlong, 1995). Echoing a similar sentiment, Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1995) who states that pre-service teachers learn how to teach long before they begin their teacher education training. For example, pre-service teachers learned to teach during their

28

primary and secondary education. The problem with the foregoing notion is that pre-service teachers perceive teaching as how their previous teachers modelled lessons in the classroom. Writing along the same lines Tomlinson (1995) says that pre-service teachers have been exposed to several years of teaching as learners and often focus on the superficiality of teaching as opposed to how it works. Hence the image that the pre-service teacher has of teaching does not encapsulate what teaching entails and cannot be utilized as a basis of planning and action in teaching (Elliot & Calderhead, 1993).

Tomlinson (1995) notes that pre-service teachers will start their formal teacher training programme with preconceived ideas regarding teaching. Hence pre-service teachers will have positive or negative notions of teaching and would know which style of teaching they would aspire to or avoid. Campbell and Brummet (2007) emphases that the primary mentoring responsibility of a teacher education programme is to assist pre-service teachers to critically examine the beliefs about teaching and learning they bring to the programme. The objective is to educate the students about teaching strategies they have not been exposed to as learners at their respective schools. Elliot and Calderhead (1993) warn that traditional university or teacher training institutions environments may not provide the support necessary for pre-service teachers to be able to understand previous ideas of teaching in their primary and secondary educational years, which is the root of their learning of teaching. The challenge therefore for tertiary institutions is to develop professional growth of the pre-service teacher by incorporating their existing ideas of teaching and to increase their level of understanding of learning how to teach. Teaching, on the other hand, has become "intuitive and second nature" for experienced teachers (Elliot & Calderhead, 1993:170).

Numerous stages of pre-service teachers' development and concerns during the mentoring process have been identified by Maynard and Furlong (1995:12-14). These are grouped as follows: 'early idealism; survival; recognizing difficulties; hitting the plateau; and moving on'. At the first stage, early idealism, the pre-service teacher has several idealistic views of how teaching should be and tries to embark on teaching according to these views (Maynard & Furlong, 1995). At the survival stage, the pre-service teacher starts to realise that their idealistic views do not match the realities of teaching and becomes pre-occupied with survival strategies (Maynard & Furlong, 1995). In this regard pre-service teachers are fixated on finding ways to solve the problems they are facing. At the next stage, pre-service teachers become aware of the demands of teaching and are enthusiastic to perform adequately as a teacher (Maynard & Furlong, 1995). In this particular phase, pre-service teachers tend to concentrate more on different teaching styles and refer to challenges such as insufficient resources and classroom management issues. When pre-service teachers 'hit the plateau' stage, they have now found a method of teaching that the learners respond to and are adamant to maintain it (Maynard & Furlong, 1995:13). At the last stage, there is an indication that pre-service teachers are concerned about their pupils' learning but are incapable of implementing effective intervention strategies to overcome this challenge (Maynard & Furlong, 1995:13). It is therefore imperative that the role of the mentor must be clear to assist pre-service teachers during the different stages of development and concerns.

Elliot and Calderhead (1993) examined several aspects of learning to teach. They believe that pre-service teachers need to develop a practical knowledge base, form concepts and interpersonal skills. Practical classroom knowledge can be understood in

30

four terms; knowledge of learners, situation, subject matter and strategies. The pre-service teacher should firstly understand the background and capabilities of the learners in the classroom, and assess the school environment by developing an understanding of the classroom, school and community culture. Shulman (1987) argues that teachers should understand what they teach thus comprehend what they teach to critically engage learners. According to Maynard and Furlong (1995) school-based mentors are in a unique situation where they can assist pre-service teachers to develop 'practical classroom knowledge'.

An aspect of learning how to teach raised by Adler and Reed (2002:25) is that content knowledge is not sufficient, as more emphasis should be on how to connect "learning of the subject with learning how students in schools acquire subject knowledge". A more recent study confirmed the foregoing notion and revealed that pre-service teachers' Pedagogical Content Knowledge in science was not sufficient to teach science during their internship. Pre-service teachers appeared to know the content of science but lacked the skills to present the content to the learners in an "innovative and creative manner" namely Pedagogical Content Knowledge (Botha & Reddy, 2011:266).

Good teaching requires hard work and effort, as indicated by Winberg (1999) who writes that it involves in-depth preparation and reflection. Furthermore, teaching does not start and end in the classroom. Selecting mentors who can perform numerous tasks is vital to the process of learning to teach (Zanting & Verloop: 2001).

2.4. Initial Teacher Education in Ghana

Teacher training in Ghana began with a four-year teacher training programme, followed by two- year Certificate-B and Post-B programmes that were designed to meet the growing need for more teachers in the country. Later, the Certificate-A (Post-Secondary) and the two-year Specialist Programmes were introduced. In 1978, all of these programmes were phased out giving way to a 3-Year Post-Secondary Teacher Training Programme, which has since undergone different reforms. The rationale for the various restructurings was, first and foremost, to produce enough teachers to reduce the high numbers of untrained teachers in the system, and secondly, to upgrade the qualifications of teachers to meet the standards required to teach (Akyeampong, 2003).

In 2004, teacher-training colleges were converted into Diploma awarding institutions with a new structure that still operates today. The current structure of basic teacher training is a three-year pre-service Diploma in Basic Education programme, which is divided into Programme A and B to prepare teachers for teaching in primary and junior secondary schools respectively. The strategic mission of teacher training in Ghana is to provide comprehensive Teacher Education programmes that would produce competent committed and dedicated teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning in Ghanaian classrooms (TED, 2003). To achieve this vision, the Government of Ghana reformed the ITT programme, creating an innovative mentoring component in "Out" stage of the new teacher-training programme dubbed "In-In-Out programme".

According to the Teacher Education Division (TED, 2003), the In-In-Out Scheme is a reconstruction of the existing teacher curriculum. It was initially designed for three-year Post-Secondary Teacher's Certificate-A, which was later (in 2004) upgraded to the

three-year Diploma programme as part of a national policy strategy to raise teachers' entry-level skills. The first two years are spent on the college campus, when teacher trainees are taught a range of subjects including Mathematics, English, Science, Vocational skills, Social studies, Music and dance, Religious and moral education, Physical education, Ghanaian language and Educational studies. The rationale for this taught–programme is to refresh the knowledge of the teacher trainees and equip them with the requisite knowledge, which they need to use when they go for the one-year practicum in the 'Out' –segment in their third year. In the first two years (In-In Stage) the trainees are 'filled' with a large amount of subject content knowledge to which they will be expected to 'apply' the 'theory' of teaching during their practicum and also when they become fully- fledged teachers. In the 'Out" stage, trainees spend the full year in a school under a mentor.

2.4. Concept Mentorship

The concept of mentorship is thought to originate in Greek mythology. "In the Odyssey by the Greek poet, Homer, Odysseus one of the characters, was to go and fight in the Trojan War. He was leaving behind his son, Telemachus and realised that he might be away for quite a while. While he was away Telemachus would need coaching and guidance, he therefore hired a trusted friend, with the name Mentor to be his son's tutor" (Clawson, 1980).

Campbell and Brummet (2007) suggests that in order "to determine the meaning of an expression…one would have to ascertain the conditions under which the members of the community use – or, better, are disposed to use – the expression in question" Often the concepts presented are suggestive, identifying the attributes of mentoring rather than

33

stipulating the meaning of the concept itself and, in particular, its boundary conditions. More than a few researchers fail to even provide a definition of mentoring (Allen & Johnston, 1997; Burke & McKeen 1997; Chao 1997; Green & Bauer 1995; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). The few formal, stipulated definitions provided in the mentoring literature sometimes do not have the coverage or plasticity required for research to move easily to new topics. They suggested that many of the current problems in conceptualizing mentoring and, consequently, developing theory, stem from an inattention to the conceptual needs of a growing field of study. Conceptual development of mentoring has for some time been stunted. Concepts and, thus, theory seem held hostage to early precedent.

Its contemporary popularity notwithstanding, serious research on mentoring began relatively recently (Kram, 1980). While it is impossible to identify a single work and say categorically that it is the beginning of mentoring research, one can make a good argument that Kathy Kram's dissertation (1980) and her 1983 *Academy of Management Journal* paper provided a beginning to the contemporary research tradition. The 1983 article is still the most frequently cited journal article on the topic of mentoring and her conceptualization of mentoring has been either directly quoted or reworked only slightly in many subsequent studies. In her seminal paper, Kram identified four stages of mentoring, but at no point provided an exacting definition. Eby, Butts, Lockwood and Simon (2004), noted that mentoring involves an intense relationship whereby a senior or more experienced person (the mentor) provides two functions for a junior person (the protégé), one function being advise or modelling about career development behaviours and the second function being personal support, especially psycho-social support.

The early, relatively imprecise Kram conceptualization of mentoring has influenced subsequent work to a considerable extent. While the early definition (or, more accurately, the early *discussion*) of the term was entirely suitable for the topic's 1980's level of explanatory and empirical development, subsequent application and conceptual stunting is more troubling. Eby (1997: 126) provides an appropriation of the Kram conceptualization that is quite typical:

> *'Mentoring is an intense developmental relationship whereby advice, counselling, and developmental opportunities are provided to a protégé by a mentor, which, in turn, shapes the protégé's career experiences. This occurs through two types of support to protégés: (1) instrumental or career support and (2) psychological support.'*

Other researchers (Chao, 1997; Ragins and Scandura 1997) use close variants of this definition. To be sure, there has been a great deal of refinement and articulation of mentoring concepts and measures. However, as we see in Table 1, most of the branches connect to the same conceptual taproot. For example, Eby (1997) expands the Kram (1985) conceptualization to the idea of peer mentoring, moving away from the original focus on the mentor-protégé dyad. Whitely, Dougherty, and Dreher (1991) distinguish between "primary mentoring" (i.e. more intense and longer duration) and more ephemeral "secondary mentoring," but still beginning with the Kram conceptualization. Chao, Waltz and Gardner (1992) use Kram's conceptualization in connection with both "formal" and "informal" mentoring. Ragins and Scandura (1997) examine diversity and

35

power relations, beginning with the Kram conceptualization. Scandura (1992) examines a number of questionnaire items, factor analyzing them and interpreting the results in terms of the dimensions initially suggested by Kram.

Perhaps one reason why early, somewhat imprecise concepts continue to hold sway is, ironically, the fragmentation of the literature. Early mentoring concepts seem to be the only glue holding together highly diverse research. Still, there have been some extensions and departures in conceptualization. For example, researchers now address the possible negative outcomes of mentoring, where barriers prevent mentors from providing guidance to protégés (Eby, McManus, Simon, Russell, 2000; Eby & Allen, 2002; Scandura, 1998). Eby and colleagues define negative mentoring "as specific incidents that occur between mentors and protégés, mentors' characteristic manner of interacting with protégés, or mentors' characteristics that limit their ability to effectively provide guidance to protégés" (2002:3). Some researchers have extended their mentoring definitions to include alternative forms of mentoring such as peer mentoring (Bozionelos, 2004), formal and informal mentoring (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992), and diversified mentoring, relationships where individuals of different racial, ethnic, or gender groups engage in mentoring (Ragins and Scandura, 1997). While one can perhaps argue that the core meaning for mentoring remains in wide use, it is certainly the case that multiple meanings have added complexity and in some instances ambiguity. Conceptual clarity seems to have hampered theory development. As Merriam 1983(165) notes, "how mentoring is defined determines the extent of mentoring found."

2.5. Structure of Mentorship Programme

Mentoring programmes encompass various aspects that require meticulous planning, implementation and monitoring for effective results (Hamilton, 2003). According to Hamilton (2003), at the initial phase of the mentoring programme the following aspects need to be communicated to the mentor, mentee and the supervisor of the programme.

Firstly, the rationale of the mentorship programme; secondly the objectives; thirdly the responsibilities of the participants and lastly the regulation regarding confidentiality and other issues which may arise (Hamilton, 2003).The lack of these considerations could pose risks for an organisation as pointed out by Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002). A mentorship programme that lacks explicit objectives and details can cause frustration and ultimately lead to poor mentoring, thus an attempt to introduce a follow-up programme could be rejected by the potential participants to the programme.

Furthermore, Kardos and Johnson (2008) note that not all mentoring programmes are carefully structured and mentors are not always aware of what is expected of them. Hence mentoring programmes that are disorganized are not a useful tool for the mentor and mentee and should be avoided as they will serve no purpose for the effective development of the mentee.

It is thus evident that if mentor teachers are not aware of the purpose of a mentor programme it could influence their role as mentors negatively (Frick, Arend& Beets, 2010). A vital step when developing a mentoring programme is to assess the needs and expectations of the mentees and mentors, otherwise the danger is that the programme can be underutilized and consequently be ineffective (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002). Garvey

and Alfred (2000) suggest that the following considerations be taken into account when developing a mentoring programme: (a) The role of the mentor must be specified and clear;(b) The organisation must understand the purpose of mentoring; (c) Mentoring is a process and it facilitates the learning of the mentee; (d) Both the mentor and the mentee must be committed; (d) Mentoring requires hard work and (e) the focus of the mentorship programme must be on the mentee (Garvey & Alfred, 2000). Mawoyo and Robinson (2005) alluded to the fact that a mentoring programme should address the specific needs of the mentee.

Also, Quick and Siebörger (2005) postulates that gradual changes by all stakeholders can lead to an improvement and this can be achieved by coordinating the realistic intricacies of the teaching practice programme. Moreover, Hamel and Fischer (2011) argue that it is vital to develop a mentoring programme in relation to the lived experiences of mentors and interns. Hamilton (2003) suggests several methods and principles to structure formal mentoring programmes that will facilitate the success of the programme which is to communicate, coordinate, monitor, be flexible and integrate. In light of these methods firstly, a detailed explanation should be provided to management and staff regarding the objectives of the mentoring programme. Secondly, staff should be informed when the mentees will be joining them and how the mentorship programme will align itself with the staff development activities. Thirdly, mentors should be trained to create an awareness of their role as mentors and what type of support will be offered during the mentoring programme. Lastly, clarity should be provided regarding the person who is responsible for initiating the first meeting. To arrange the first meeting between mentors and mentees a social event such as a lunch can be hosted to ensure that everyone

38

taking part in the programme meet. The development of the mentoring relationship can be checked on a regular basis, for example once a month. In addition, in-depth interviews or questionnaires can be designed by an external person to evaluate the success of the programme.

A mentor's role encompasses that of a friend, parent and supervisor, thus a brief orientation session will not be sufficient to equip the mentor regarding the foregoing aspects (Hamilton, 2003). Mentees also need training to inform them regarding their role expectations of the mentorship programme, such as how to learn from experience and how to formalise their relationship with the mentor. The foregoing sentiments will minimise problems and enhance the learning of the mentee. Maphosa, Shumba and Shumba (2007) contended that in order to establish a meaningful mentoring programme more attention should be focused on the way the programme is structured. The realities of teaching practice should be investigated to provide appropriate guidance to mentors. The enhancement of mentoring programmes can only be possible if colleges of educations and schools co-ordinate the programme collectively to ensure effective mentoring (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007).

To facilitate the aforementioned recommendation Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) asserted that colleges of educations should take it a step further and arrange workshops with the schools to equip and assist mentor teachers, whilst Quick and Siebörger (2005) have shown that collaboration between mentor and teachers at the various colleges is vital. The greater the collaboration the greater assistance the mentees will receive regarding their professional development during teaching practice. In addition, when there is a strong collaboration between colleges and schools, mentees will receive a better

quality of mentoring and, consequently, a more meaningful learning experience (Mawoyo and Robinson, 2005). It is evident that collaboration between the stakeholders could result in realizing the optimal benefits of mentoring. Schools' contribution to mentoring programmes during teaching practice can be valuable if the colleges of education communicate with them directly and give appropriate guidance of what is expected of school-based mentors (Quick & Siebörger, 2005). Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) suggested that at the start of the mentoring programme all the stakeholders involved in the mentoring programme should: (a) develop an understanding of what the mentoring programme entails; (b) discuss and clarify the aims of mentoring; (c) describe clearly the needs of the mentees; (d) compile structured time frames for mentors and mentees to dialogue and (e) construct an instrument to evaluate the mentoring programme. The foregoing suggestions will ensure ongoing self-reflection of the mentees, thus developing their levels of competency. These considerations are supported by Frick, Arend and Beets (2010) who pointed out that a mentoring programme that focuses on developing the teaching competences of the student teachers, and which illustrates empathy and understanding from the mentor can be a valuable tool to enhance teacher preparation. It is important that individuals are not forced into mentoring and that only individuals who are willing to be mentors be allowed to do so (Garvey & Alfred, 2000). The skills and qualities of the mentor will differ according to the aims of the mentoring programme and the manner in which the organization would like to achieve the objectives (Hamilton, 2003).

Knowledgeable and skilled mentors should not be the only focus to ensure a successful mentorship programme (Hamilton, 2003:34). The responses of the mentees

40

who participated in the study of Allan (2007) indicated that the choice of mentors should also be based on their personal qualities, as opposed to only their professional status within an organisation.

This provides a clear indication that the criterion for choosing mentors should be based on the teachers' skills and qualities. Mentoring programmes are most likely to fail if appropriate support is not provided from management and the coordinators of the programme (Hamilton, 2003). Mentoring programmes may cause less time for other obligations and conflict with the mentor's personal life and other commitments (Winberg, 1999). Therefore, before a teacher commits to the role of a mentor they should consider how it may impact on their other activities within the school context.

2.5.1. Characteristics of a Good Mentorship Programme

A good mentorship programme gives all the responsibilities and describes the role of the mentor (Rowley, 1999). Many times mentors do not know how to help their mentees. They are confused about their role; are they more of a guide, instructor, advisor, friend or all of the above? Frick, Arend, Beets, (2010) described mentoring as a complex role that encompasses criticism and praise, pressure and nurturing, logistics, organization, and persistence.

Many teachers that are serving as mentors have not participated in a formal mentoring training programme. Heeralal and Bayaga (2011) were of the view that this prevalent aspect of school based mentoring programmes presents special challenges that are further exacerbated when mentor teachers receive no or inadequate training and only token support for their work. They may find the role of mentor especially complex and

41

confusing. They are unsure of how to share their years of teaching experience without being overbearing (Ganser, 2002). Some mentors express concerns about being seen as interference rather than a helpful guide (Ganser, 1995). It is vital that mentors know what the expectations of them are. This will alleviate concerns about the role of the mentor and where they fit in with the mentee. Mentoring encompasses so much more than simple support and help. Danielson (2002:184) describes the typical mentor support as including, "assistance in planning and delivering lessons, working with students with special needs, interacting with parents and staff, and providing encouragement." It is important that the mentor have the training in order to know how to fulfil the needs of the novice teacher. The training can range from a short orientation to extensive training (Ganser, 2002).

Frick, Arend and Beets (2010) described three characteristics of a good mentor programme. First, a mentor programme requires formal training for all mentors, it provides specific examples of the roles and responsibilities expected of a mentor, and it requires mentors to document all conferences and activities involving the mentee and mentor. If a mentor does not have clear expectations and high quality training then it minimizes their ability to help and support beginning teachers (Ganser, 2002). According to Huling-Austin (1992), research has also shown that teachers should be trained in schema theory, how to discuss the subject matter with the mentee. The mentor should focus on how they solve problems and try to explain the organization of their thinking to their mentee. Records indicate that in the beginning stages of the mentee/mentor relationship focus on providing information about the system rather than curriculum and instruction (Korthagen, 2004). As a result, mentors need to be trained in how to

42

incorporate subject matter in their conversations with their mentees. Mentors may also need to be trained in how to collaborate with other teachers. After years of working in isolation they need to work on developing the skills to mentor novices (Korthagen, 2004).

2.5.2. Role of teacher training institutions in mentorship programme

According to Dreher and Cox (1996) a country that neglects the standard of how they train their teachers will eventually influence the standard of their education negatively. Recent studies have revealed concerns regarding the quality of teacher preparation (Martinez, 2004; Campbell and Brummet, 2007; Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010). Martinez (2004) places the blame on teacher training institutions for the poor quality of teachers. Similarly, Campbell and Brummet (2007) accused teacher training institutions of continuously reproducing the status quo. The challenge remains for teacher training institutions to therefore rethink their teacher education programmes in order to ensure better quality teachers.

Research conducted by Quick and Siebörger (2005) has shown that, despite mentoring having so much potential to assist student teachers during teaching practice, it does not always yield the desired outcomes. In their view, there were disparities in the role expectation of mentors and teacher training institutions during teaching. Schools that these student teachers are attached, on the one hand, expected teacher training institutions to take a bigger level of responsibility regarding the supervision of student teachers and also to provide feedback to mentors regarding the development of the students. Rather, teacher training institutions wanted schools to take sole responsibility for the professional development of students during teaching practice (Quick & Siebörger, 2005). Their study

showed that responsibilities should be shared fairly between schools and the training institutions.

According to Campbell and Brummet (2007), teacher training institutions lecturers' primary mentoring roles are those of "coach, critical friend and co-inquirer". As coaches, lecturers should assist student teachers through discussions to ascertain what they know and provide strategies for understanding teaching and learning. Whilst supporting pre-service teachers' ways of thinking, as critical friends, lecturers should challenge the student teachers' practices and actions. As co-inquirers, lecturers should see student teachers as learning partners. It can be argued that one of the core purposes of a teacher education programme is to influence the actions and thinking of pre-service teachers (Campbell & Brummet, 2007).

Moreover, teacher education programmes should assist student teachers to develop effective teaching skills and to comprehend the requirements of the teaching profession. A tool that can assist teacher training institutions to achieve this objective is mentoring. Several studies strongly argue that mentoring can be used as a valuable tool to enhance teacher preparation (Maynard & Furlong, 1993; Van Wyk & Daniels, 2004; Martinez, 2004; Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010). Hence the question remains what role should teacher training institutions play to implement an effective mentoring programme?

According to Van Wyk and Daniels (2004), higher education institutions play a vital role in the implementation of an effective mentoring programme. Van Wyk and Daniels (2004:366) postulate that a mentoring programme requires a "vigorously critical process of integrated procedures of pre-planning of both mentor and mentee". To ensure that both mentor and mentee are briefed regarding the objectives of the mentoring

44

programme, higher educational institutions are responsible for the following considerations: Firstly; who will be the person to coordinate the programme? Secondly, in what manner will the system be coordinated? Lastly, how will the mentors be selected?

Mentoring programmes continuously need to be monitored. Regular meetings should be held with the mentor and mentee, and a level of commitment is necessary from all the participants to ensure an effective mentoring programme. Hence the structure and implementation of teacher education mentoring programmes need careful consideration, and teacher training institutions are saddled with the major task of how to implement an effective mentoring programme. Mentoring student teachers does not merely involve attaching them to a mentor but, rather, ensuring that meaningful mentoring takes place. Dreher and Cos (1996), notes that a careful selection criterion for mentors must be in place to train mentors. The training must equip mentors to assist, coach and direct pre-service teachers. Echoing this sentiment Mawoyo and Robinson (2005) asserted that, when mentor training takes place, mentors should learn how to nurture, develop and understand the needs of student teachers. However, if mentor training does not take place, mentors will rely on their teaching experience to mentor the mentees. Thus clear guidelines are important for mentors to know precisely how to guide student teachers (Mawoyo & Robinson, 2005). It is therefore necessary for lecturers in the teacher training institutions and mentor teachers to work together in developing a mentoring programme conducive for teacher development (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007).

In light of this, Martinez (2004) emphasises that mentoring should be structured according to the needs of the mentee. Moreover, Martinez suggests that mentoring programmes should be examined carefully to provide "convincing evidence" that

45

mentoring has the potential to improve the quality of teacher education. Campbell and Brummet (2007:52) argue for a "social learning structure" where pre-service teachers, mentors and lecturers create a common set of goals, unpack problem solving methods and are willing to learn from one another. They perceive the latter stakeholders as a "community of learners". Frost and Frost (1993) contend that schools and teacher training institution have the option to maintain the status quo or to enhance professionalism. This author argues that the second option can only be achieved if the expectations of mentoring mentees are raised to develop critical pedagogy for both mentee and mentor. Furthermore, Frost believes that the second option is the teaching profession's hope for the development of quality teachers. The views expressed by this researcher on the development and implementation of teacher education mentoring programmes centre around the needs of the mentee to ensure the facilitation of their professional development and growth. Therefore it can be argued that the mentees' needs should be a key component when structuring an effective mentoring programme. In light of the aforementioned, the needs of the mentee can be assessed during their teaching practice.

In conclusion, Quick and Siebörger (2005) proposed three important aspects that could improve mentoring pre-service teachers during their teaching practice experience. Firstly, ongoing communication between mentors, lecturers and the teaching practice co-ordinators is important and can be facilitated by arranging meetings between the various stakeholders. Secondly, teacher training institutions lecturers should visit the schools more than is currently required of them to meet with the mentors and to observe lessons

of the mentee. Thirdly, teaching practice could greatly improve if lesson presentations by students are observed by their subject lecturers.

2.5.3. Roles of a mentor in mentorship programme

Literature reviewed indicates several roles of the mentor to facilitate the professional development of a mentee (Tomlinson, 1995; Winberg, 1999; Hamilton, 2003; Portner, 2003; Mohono-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006; Campbell & Brummet, 2007; Michael & Ilan, 2008; Rheineck & Roland, 2008). A mentor's role is multifaceted and fulfilling a mentor's role should not be taken lightly (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007:297). Mentors are referred to as counsellors, role models and advisers who share their experience with inexperienced individuals and provide the mentee with information on the logistics of how the place of work functions (Mohono-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006:384). The mentor's primary role is to purposefully bring the mentee to a standard of acceptable professionalism (Portner, 2003:7). A mentor can function optimally in their primary role by assessing, relating, guiding and coaching. The last two functions "draw upon the eclectic body of knowledge that informs the mentoring process and are carried out through a variety of skills and behaviours" (Portner, 2003:7). A mentor typically assists the mentee to understand the realities of the workplace and how to utilize their strengths to best influence situations (Hamilton, 2003:3). Corbett and Wright (1993) sum it up and state that the school-based mentor's role is not merely an administrative one or attending meetings, but encompasses collaborating with the mentees and lecturers.

Also, mentors play the role of coach in that they assist the mentee to locate resources, to improve their understanding of subject knowledge and to expand their skill of teaching (Portner, 2003). The foregoing can be achieved if the mentor shares their

47

experiences of teaching, providing the mentee with examples of teaching methods and creating a pathway where mentees can, through self-reflection, take ownership of improving their teaching. According to Hamilton (2003), coaches need to be knowledgeable regarding the skills involving recognising what the mentee is doing wrong and providing detailed steps for mentees to improve their performance. To enable this notion, mentors should be able to provide feedback that the mentee can understand, practice and be motivated to act on.

Furthermore, the role of the mentor is to provide expert advice to the student teacher about the elements of their lesson presentation and to give suggestions for improvement. Similarly, Hamilton (2003) contends that the "wisest" role of the mentor would be to showcase their subject knowledge to a mentee. For example, the mentor shows the mentee how a lesson presentation is done following a particular teaching method, whilst the mentee observes the mentor who tells the mentee beforehand what the lesson will entail. The aforementioned is reflective of a teacher that models exemplary behaviour that is expected of a teacher. Moberg (2008) describes wisdom as a behaviour that exudes positivity as wise people are capable of making practical decisions and are often drawn into conditions where such decisions are necessary. Wise people often choose to mentor as they realize how beneficial it can be to their own growth and development (Moberg, 2008). Whilst Moberg (2008) argues that wise people are more capable of mentoring, his research did not show evidence of the foregoing argument. In his study he found that wise persons are not more likely to be drawn to mentoring than people who are not perceived as wise. However, when the mentor and mentee engage in an open discussion about the development of the mentee, the collective decision they

48

make appears to be wiser than making an individual decision. Consequently, mentors who lack in wisdom may have been forced to mentor and thus had no say in the matter.

Another role of a mentor is to guide the mentees as opposed to dictating how to teach (Oetjen & Oetjen, 2009). Mentors need to develop an understanding of how student teachers learn to teach specific subject content and generate skills to aid them effectively. Moreover, they need to develop an understanding of what the pre-service teacher is attempting to do in the classroom thus figuring out how teaching works (Tomlinson, 1995). This view is supported by Oetjen and Oetjen (2009) who stated that mentors should act as a guide to enable the student teachers to make appropriate decisions on how to embark on their task as teachers. Hence a mentor's role is not to illustrate the perfection of teaching but in fact create awareness that teaching is complex and ever-changing. Mentors teach a range of classes in a school, and within the limitation of their own timetable they have to arrange observation and teaching periods for pre-service teachers for a particular time period. The major concern for mentors is to ensure that mentees are given an opportunity to create an awareness of possible problems, are given assignments that are challenging, and that a wide range of sufficient experience is obtained (McIntyre & Hagger, 1993). Hence it is vital that the mentor guides the mentee towards independence to create their own understanding of teaching and learning strategies (Portner, 2003). Decisions regarding teaching and learning should be driven through reflection thus empowering the mentee to make informed decisions and take suitable action for future situations regarding teaching and learning. The aim of guiding the mentee is to wean the mentee away from depending on the mentor for ongoing guidance and suggestions. The objective of weaning the mentee is to make the mentor's

role redundant, and to achieve this goal the mentee must display a level of autonomy, to show confidence when acting on decisions and to reflect on the accuracy of their actions (Portner, 2003).

In conclusion, despite the increasing attention of mentoring mentees, Hamel and Jaasko-Fisher (2011) argue that the position mentor teachers hold in the teacher fraternity continues to be vague. In their view finding teachers who are capable of mentoring student teachers is a challenge due to the mismatch of role expectations between the mentor and mentee.

2.5.4. Role of a mentee in mentorship programme

Recent literature pays attention to the role of a mentee as well. For mentees to experience optimal benefits of mentoring they should be aware of their role expectation and practice these expectations to the best of their ability (Karel & Stead, 2011). In a study conducted by Beard (2007), he emphasises that colleges of education together with their students should assume responsibility for ensuring that the internship will be a value-added experience. The responsibility of the students is to be clear about what their roles and objectives will be during the internship and find suitable work places that are aligned with these objectives. For students to become aware of their role as mentees they should be empowered through workshops on how schooling, teaching and the curriculum are structured (Long, Moran, Harris & Ryan, 2007).

Furthermore, mentees can also hamper the mentoring relationship if they do not comply with the requirements of reflecting and talking with their mentors (Hamilton, 2003). This perspective is given weight by Johnson (2007) who adds that regardless of

50

appointing the most competent mentor, a mentee can display behavioural traits that could lead to conflict. For example, the mentee could have a low self-esteem and could perceive critical feedback from the mentor as punitive. A mentee that is interested in learning will seek critical feedback from a mentor and will accept it without being defensive (Karel & Stead, 2011). If the mentee is not in agreement with the mentor's feedback it is important that a discussion is pursued for clarification. On the other side of the coin the mentor is also required to motivate the rationale behind the feedback provided to the mentee (Nillas, 2010).

It has also been shown by Hamel and Fischer (2011) that mentees can be perceived as an additional burden to the mentors' workload. Hence mentees should tread carefully so that they are not intruding upon a mentor's work environment. It is therefore important that a mentee acknowledges the mentor's input and concern for the mentee's pursuit for learning (Karel & Stead, 2011). For mentees to illustrate a genuine interest in learning they should show initiative for seeking opportunities that are not confined to what is expected from them in the written mentorship policy, for example, offering their services to assist with the extra-mural activities or assisting marginal learners with additional classes (Karel & Stead, 2011).

2.5.5. Relationship between Mentees and Mentors in mentorship programme

It is important to mention that every mentoring relationship is unique, just as every individual is unique. Although each person develops unique perspectives of how to improve instructional practices for the benefits of their students, it is significant to mention that the beginning of a positive mentoring relationship between a mentor and

51

mentee will influence the success of the outcomes of any implemented programme (Feiman– Nemser, 1996; Jones & Straker, 2006). Yendol-Hoppey and Dana (2007) supported this stance with the argument that, by establishing a trusting relationship with the mentee, the mentor can capitalise on the mentee's ability to be responsive to coaching sessions.

Clutterbuck (1991) summarises the criteria needed for fulfilling the role as a successful mentor. According to Clutterbuck (1991:36), a mentor must:

1. Manage the relationship

2. Encourage the mentee

3. Nurture the mentee

4. Teach the mentee

5. Offer mutual respect

6. Respond to the mentee's needs

The value of Clutterbuck's criteria for being a successful mentor is that it provided me with a framework for criteria to use in this study to evaluate the relationship of the mentees with their mentor.

Mentoring Relationship refers to the day-to-day functioning of the mentor and mentee whilst they are taking part in the mentorship programme. This relationship can be successful, meaning that the mentor is playing his or her role effectively and that the mentee is benefitting from the relationship. This relationship focuses on the development of the mentee through the regular intervention of the mentor (Caruso, 1992). Framed in a continuous professional developmental context, Daresh (2003) considers mentoring as an

52

on-going process in which individuals in an organisation provide support and guidance to others who can become effective contributors to the goals of the organisation.

Tellez (1992) suggests that the best mentoring relationships emerged from a positive organisational climate in schools. Nevertheless, the existence of a supportive school climate might have been a product of the work of mentoring or, alternatively, the mentoring relationships for beginning teachers could be attributed to the existence of the supportive school climates.

Mutual Benefit of Mentoring to Mentor and Mentee

According to Smith (2002), the relationship between a mentor and a mentee is essential to successfully assist new teachers. Through these relationships, beginning teachers will be able to better handle the day-to-day challenges of a classroom. Collaborative mentoring involves the mentor and mentee working together as equals in the mentoring programme. The mentor acts as a probe and mirror, as in the non-directive mentoring, but also participates in the problem solving process by offering solutions and proposing actions (Vonk, 1993). Wildman, Magliaro, Niles and Niles (1992) also reported that mentors can provide assistance by sitting in on parent conferences, planning together, allowing the mentee to observe class, and helped to set up class routines.

According to Phillip - Jones (1998), one will leave the world a better place if he or she makes time to help others. He emphasizes that sharing your knowledge and wisdom developed from many years of working can make a significant change in a person's life and this is what happens in mentoring. Relationships are developed in

53

organizations both unilaterally and bilaterally. Power is not just a gun, a baton, a hundred dollar bill that can be passed from hand to hand but a relationship among human beings. A unilateral relationship is one-sided in that one human being is influencing or affecting another. A bilateral relationship, in contrast, is interactive; one human being can both influence and be affected by another.

Phillip-Jones (1998) further explained that both mentors and mentees benefit from the mentoring programme if there is a cordial relationship. To achieve this, critical measures need to be in place to enable both develop and grow professionally and personally. He listed the following as some of the measures:

1. Purpose - both mentor and mentee need to develop an agreed understanding of the purpose on why they are together and meeting. There is common agreement on the work that will be undertaken, and there is recognition of when the purpose has been met and goals of the relationship have been met.

2. Communication - occurs in a manner that is mutually agreeable and within agreed timeframes. A number of active communication skills are required to enable an effective partnership including, active listening and responding; monitoring of nonverbal language; clarifying questions and concepts; and providing opportunity for feedback.

3. Trust - is critical and includes maintaining confidentiality of information, honesty to act and follow through on promises and sharing of yourself to explore possibly difficult questions/issues.

4. Process – the programme occurs in a staged approach – planning; building relationships/negotiating agreement; developing and maintaining the momentum; and ending the relationship.

5. Progress – the mentee must take responsibility for the progress of the mentoring relationship. The mentee works actively to firstly identify appropriate goals and build competencies to reach those goals and identifying interesting learning experiences and explores these with the mentor.

6. Feedback – the way of receiving feedback has been agreed to and the information received reinforces the efforts of both.

Positive mentor-mentee relationship would help to facilitate a flourishing teaching experience, hence it is important to discover ways mentors and mentees can contribute to the relationship development (Margolis, 2007). A positive mentoring relationship where mentors employ personal attributes can help mentees to reflect on practices towards achieving student outcomes (Sempowicz & Hudson, 2012), yet the process begins with forming the mentor-mentee relationship in teaching and in other occupations (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008; Gibson, 2004; Gormley, 2008). Mentors can gain personal benefits through a mentoring programme (Huling & Resta, 2001). Mentors can develop strong connections with mentees and a sense of esteem from the mutual efforts and satisfaction in what they create together (Bainer, 1997).

Anastos and Ancowitz (1987); Joyce, Showers and Bennetts (1987); Neubert and Bratton (1987) suggests that the relationship between mentor and mentee could develop to peer relationship. They viewed this kind of mentoring relationship as age peers (those

55

of the same age but different organizational level). It also takes on some qualities of a mentor relationship, but are peer like in the sharing of common experiences and career dilemmas (Kram, 1985).

. Cluterbuck (2011) also explained some benefits of mentoring to mentees. He listed the following as some benefits of mentoring to mentees: greater clarity about personal development and career goals, being able to discuss, in an open and unthreatening environment, issues about their career and development, improved networking, practical advice on organizational politics and behavior, the opportunity to be challenged constructively, transfer of knowledge and, in particular judgment and having a role model.

Negatives aspect of mentoring

To come to an understanding of effective mentoring, it is necessary to be aware of negative aspects of mentoring and concerns in the mentoring process. Indeed, mentors and mentees have identified and expressed concerns about personal and professional problems affecting the mentoring process, and the management of the mentor's time for delivering effective mentoring. There are negative aspects of mentoring pre service teachers in professional experience programmes, and negative experiences can affect the mentoring process (Sudzina & Coolican, 1994). For example, McLaughlin (1993), Fullan and Hargreaves (1996), and Long (1997) have found collaborative environments that stifle innovation and reinforce traditional practice, even though this appears not to be the norm (Little, 1993).

In general terms, three problem areas have been identified in the highly complex field of mentoring, namely, "the definition of mentoring, the role of mentors, and the selection of mentors" (Giebelhaus & Bendixon-Noe, 1997, p. 22). Although problems vary from pre service teacher to pre service teacher (Bullnough, 1989; Jonson, 2002), there appears a lack of solidarity and agreement on all the issues.

For example, Breeding and Whitworth (1999), and Veenam (1984) report on four prominent issues that emerged as needs for beginning teachers were strategy sharing, access to facilities and supplies, effective classroom discipline, and appearing competent. Yet, according to Campbell and Kovar (1994), typical mentoring problems occur in these four main areas: mentee's academic preparation, mentee's accountability, mentor's skills, and appropriateness of the professional experience site. Regardless of the different perspectives, negative experiences in any of these areas have implications for learning how to teach successfully, and can have a negative effect on the mentee's development as a teacher.

2.6. Importance of mentoring programme for student teachers

The rationale for mentoring rests within the benefits that both mentors and mentees receive during or as a consequence of the mentoring process. These benefits motivate and encourage the recipients to partake in a mentoring programme (Long, 1997; Miller, Thomson, & Roush, 1989). In general, both mentors and mentees find professional and personal benefits associated with mentoring. Many researchers have investigated the impressions of mentor-teachers concerning their roles, and the professional and personal benefits gained from assuming these roles, for both mentors

and mentees (e.g., Edwards, 1998; Ganser, 1996a, 1996b; Godley, 1987; Long, 1997), which are further discussed in the following.

2.6.1. Mentoring as a change agent

During the 1990s, mentoring became a feature of many organisations (Edwards & Collison, 1996). Mentoring is now established as a collaborative programme for developing teaching practice, which occurs within professional experiences in schools. As mentoring programmes are designed to "induct novice teachers, reward and revitalize experienced teachers, and to increase professional efficacy" (Huling-Austin, 1989:5), educators (Mullen, Cox, Boettcher, & Adoue, 1997) have pushed for new patterns of mentoring within student teacher education. Mentoring can be a means of guiding change by constructing knowledge about the curriculum, teaching, and learning (Little, 1993; Looney, 1997).

Mentoring can also act as an agent of change where mentors and their mentees can learn together (Rodrigue & Tingle, 1994) by using collaborative teaching to parallel professional development within school settings. "The result is improvement in what happens in the classroom and school, and better articulation and justification of the quality of educational practices" (Van Thielen, 1992, p. 16). Mentees generally rely on their mentors for learning experiences in teaching subjects, such as primary science. Therefore, learning current teaching practices from mentors will require strategic planning for enhancing the pre-service teachers' practices (Jarvis et al., 2001). However, for mentors to be effective, mentoring programmes need to focus on specific objectives for developing teaching practices. Mentoring can be a change agent but will require a

readiness from mentors to guide pre-service teachers towards effective teaching.

2.6.2. Professional benefits for mentors

A teacher can grow professionally as they engage in dialogue with mentees and assume the role of a pre-service teacher educator (Huling & Resta, 2001; McIntyre et al., 1993). Bellm, Whitebook, and Hnatiuk (1997) states that, "mentor programmes strengthen the voice of practitioners in efforts to improve services for children and to enhance the professional growth of adults" (p. 13).

Furthermore a mentoring programme can promote growth, recognition, experience-enhancing roles, and collegiality for mid- to late-career teachers who serve as mentors (Killion, 1990). Additionally, the mentor's professional reputation can be enhanced (Newby & Heide, 1992). Mentors can develop a sharper focus on teaching by increasing the amount of time spent on reflecting on practice for both themselves and their mentees (Hagger, 1992; Huling & Resta, 2001).

Also, mentors' professional lifelong learning can be enhanced, as they constantly reflect and assess the knowledge, values and beliefs that guide teaching practice (Stanulis, 1994). "This re-examination and reassessment, combined with the exposure to new ideas in subject matter pedagogy and effective teaching research often brought by the beginning teacher, stimulates professional growth on the part of the mentor as well" (Loucks-Horsley, Harding, Arbuckle, Murray, Dubea, & Williams, 1987, p. 90).

2.6.3. Personal benefits for mentors

Mentors can gain personal benefits through a mentoring programme (Huling & Resta, 2001). Mentors can develop strong connections with mentees and a sense of esteem from the mutual efforts and satisfaction in what they create together (Bainer, 1997). A mentoring partnership can increase the mentor's confidence in their own teaching abilities, which in turn can motivate the mentor towards risk taking for new teaching strategies (McCann & Radford, 1993).

Furthermore, mentoring not only results in improved teaching skills and further risk taking, but also has the personal benefits of increased self-respect, and a renewed enthusiasm for teaching (Huling & Resta, 2001; Miller, Thomson & Roush, 1989). Some educators (Thies-Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1987) claim that many teachers are often discontent because of the somewhat repetitive nature of teaching and that these teachers need new experiences to continue educational growth.

Again, teachers who become mentors can benefit with a rejuvenated interest in work, contributions to professional development, assistance on projects, and friendship. There may also be a sense of having input into developing and extending the teaching profession through the mentoring process with the excitement of discovering new teaching talent (Willis & Dodgson, 1986) and nurturing this talent as a "coach." In a case study between a mentor and pre-service teacher, a mentor reported to Gomez (1990) about the "pleasures of helping another teacher" (p. 54). Generally, mentors gain personal benefits from mentoring and, as a result, mentors are usually willing to continue their involvement in mentoring (Scott & Compton, 1996).

2.6.4. Benefits for mentees

Although mentors receive benefits from mentoring programmes, the mentoring process is primarily for the mentee's benefit. Mentees need to make sense of teaching (Brown & McIntyre, 1993), and it appears undisputed that careful and systematic assistance for learning how to teach can aid a mentee's development as a teacher (Berliner, 1986; Thies-Sprinthall 1987 & Gerler, 1990; Veenman, 1993). Essentially, professional experiences are opportunities for mentees to emulate many of the mentor's positive attributes (Matters, 1994), and aim to make mentees feel significantly better prepared in tasks most critical to their careers. Mentoring is an important career start by providing professional contacts (Seibert & Sypher, 1989). For example, the mentor can provide increased collegial networks for the mentee (Matters, 1994), which makes mentoring a "powerful training tool and the one that [may provide] mobility within the organization" (Fleming & King, 2007).

Apart from learning how to teach, mentees are known to receive personal benefits from mentoring as well. Mentees emphasise the importance of mentors for emotional support and insights (Scott & Compton, 1996). Indeed, a study by Ganser (1995) reports that encouragement and support, particularly emotional support affirms the mentee's value and worth as a human being. Mentoring was found to be most helpful to mentees in the areas of self-image and self-confidence (Lankard, 1996), and learning some leadership behaviours and skills (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Jean & Evans, 1995). Such mentoring benefits may also apply for developing behaviours and skills in teaching.

2.6.5 Pedagogical benefit

The provision of effective mentoring by supervisors and mentors may be enhanced by a reappraisal of the professional learning opportunities open to these key personnel. The literature often makes reference to the need for training of mentors (McIntyre, Hagger and Wilkin 1993). However, mentors come to the role with a wide range of professional experience and, consequently, they have different needs and expectations. An alternative approach is to provide opportunities for mentors to meet and engage in a professional dialogue focused on professional practice and the development of new understandings about learning and teaching.

Furthermore, the relative professional isolation of teachers in schools and classrooms means that experienced teachers often value opportunities to learn about professional practice elsewhere and to make comparisons with their own experience and practice. This requires collaboration in the development of shared understanding of, and insight into, mentoring and teacher competence.

Beginning teachers had a high regard for mentors' professional expertise, assistance and support and mentors were valued for providing personal practical knowledge and situational specific assistance in a diversity of teaching roles.

2.7. Professional identity and Practices of Mentees

Despite increasing scholarly interest in identity in the   last   two   decades, consensus about what precisely this term means is far from being reached. Identity has become a powerful issue, despite its complex and varied meanings and interpretations, including those relating to people's internal systems (Schwartz, 2001); group

membership (Brown, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986); nationalism (Schildkraut, 2007); or positions taken in conversations (Bamberg, 2006b; Benwell & Stoke, 2006).

The role played by others in the construction of identity is argued to be crucial (Hall, 2004). Identity evolves as individuals participate in social life or as they act as members of a group. This leads towards the conceptualisation of collective identities when an individual identifies with a group and builds up a sense of group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

A teacher's identity not only comprises personal knowledge and action, but is also influenced by the ideological, political and cultural interests and circumstances surrounding teachers' lives and work Teacher identity is argued to be constructed as part of the process of learning to teach (Britzman, 2003). This process generally starts when students choose teaching.

Hassan (2011) argues that a mentor, one should understand that the individual must be considered as a whole person and each mentee is a unique person and must be treated as such. In order to play their role effectively, mentor must aware that the mentee's total environment is educational and must be used to help the mentee achieve full developmental potential. The development of the mentee has to say about how institutions and people around them can best challenge and support individual to promote their psychosocial and cognitive development.

According to Hassan (2011) in reviewing the mentee/student development process and blending the positive contributions of the emotional mind (affective learning), several important elements emerge. These elements need to be addressed in

63

mentee/student development programmes that strive to balance cognitive and affective learning:

(1) Systemic and sustained as a normal part of the educational experience

(2) An emphasis on the understanding of meaning rather than an accumulation of knowledge facts

(3) Communal with respect to the development of individuation and community

(4) Team building and human relationship development are inherent aspects of the learning environment

(5) Cross-disciplinary, interconnected, integrated, and holistic

(6) Cognitive and affective learning given great breath, depth and width throughout the curriculum

(7) Active and collaborative learning maximized

(8) Service learning integral to the process of education and leadership development

(9) Powerful partnerships between those responsible for "in-class" and "out-of-class" learning (seamless transition from in-class to out-of-class learning environments)

(10) Learning viewed as an inherent (casual) outcome of the total environment and

(11) Applied institutional research used as a mechanism for improvement.

The mentee development focuses on human growth and environmental influences and designs that provide environments to promote mentees' learning and maturation. Mentees. Develop1ment encourages educational interventions that strengthen skills, stimulate self-understanding and increase knowledge. Therefore, the development of mentee requires consideration of equality, cooperation and collaboration among all parties. Individual can be assisted to build on their own unique developmental processes.

The more individualized this development and the activities that support it, the better. The well-rounded development of the whole person is the primary goal of those who promote mentee development.

2.8. Impact of Activities on Mentees

It might be expected that some more confident and capable beginning teachers and more committed and enthusiastic mentors, would be likely to produce knock-on gains for these teachers' pupils and schools, notably in terms of enhanced pupil teaching (Moor et al., 2005). The evidence on this particular outcome is however limited, partly, we feel, because of the complexity of researching it. There is a growing body of evidence, though, largely from the USA, which tells us that mentoring programmes for beginning teachers promote increased retention and stability: teachers who are mentored have been found to be less likely to leave teaching and less likely to move schools within the profession (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Johnson, Berg & Donaldson, 2005; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

It is also possible that both schools and educational systems may benefit from the enhanced retention of those teacher-mentors who become more confident and committed as a result of their participation in mentoring, which is one of the aims of some mentoring schemes, though again there is limited direct evidence of this to date. In their report of the evaluation of the Pilot Professional Development Programme for Teachers Early in their Careers in England, Moor et al. (2005) suggested a number of additional benefits to schools in general, of their involvement in this kind of mentoring programme. For example, it was found that, through mentoring relationships and the raised profile of

65

beginning teachers and of early professional development activities within the school, staff came to know each other better, which led to their increased collaboration and enjoyment. In addition, and related to this, some mentors involved in the programme reported that more experienced teachers had also begun to come to them for individual help and advice on specific areas and/or their own professional needs, suggesting that the programme had fostered a more developed culture of professional development and support within participating schools. Finally on this theme, it is sometimes argued that mentoring is a cost-effective method of training and developing staff, since mentors are able to carry out their role in conjunction with their normal teaching job and there is no cost incurred for external training providers or premises (Murray, 1991).

Edwards (1998) argued that partly due to the assessment framework of ITP in England and partly due to their concern to protect their 'own' pupils and their learning, primary phase teacher-mentors in her study tended to guide their student teacher-mentees into 'low risk' activities (Malderez et al., 2007); some primary and secondary phase ITP mentors in England had been reluctant to let their trainees take on responsibilities in the classroom; and Beck and Kosnick (2000) concluded that many mentors in their study did not give their mentees sufficient 'freedom to innovate'.

Numerous studies have shown that mentors have tended to see their role primarily in terms of the provision of safe sites for trial and error learning (Edwards, 1998; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996) or have tended to focus, in their interactions with mentees, on matters of technical rationality (Wright & Bottery, 1997), and/or on practical issues such as classroom management, craft knowledge and mentees' teaching of subject content (Lee & Feng, 2007; Sundli, 2007). In doing so, they have devoted little or

66

insufficient attention to pedagogical issues, to the promotion of reflective practice incorporating an examination of principles behind the practice, or to issues of social reform and social justice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Lindgren, 2005).

Indeed studies have shown that some teacher-mentors themselves hold a 'transmission perspective' on teaching and learning (Clarke & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005), that some have a limited understanding of concepts such as critical reflection and/or continue to hold dualist notions of theory and practice (Sundli, 2007), and that some (perhaps as a consequence) lack the confidence to incorporate 'theoretical' insights into their work with mentees (Evans & Abbott, 1997). One of the actual or potential outcomes of these various failings is that, in spite of the explicit aim of some mentoring programmes being to reduce teacher attrition, the lack of social and psychological support experienced by some trainee and early career teachers (when they had been led to expect it) has actually been a contributory factor in their decisions to withdraw from their ITP courses or leave the profession (Hobson, Malderez, Tracey & Giannakaki, 2006).

Another is that the restricted range of approaches employed by some mentors serves to restrict their mentees' learning and development in a variety of ways. We have thus found little evidence, for example, of school-based mentoring achieving what in some contexts at least was one of the main reasons behind its introduction, namely that of reducing theory–practice dualism amongst beginning teachers and helping mentees to recognise the relevance of and make more effective use of 'theoretical' work covered in their ITP programmes (Bullough, 2005; Graham, 2006; Hascher, Cocard, & Moser, 2004). Finally, a number of studies have suggested that some of the restricted (and

restrictive) forms of mentoring in use, outlined above, can result in the promotion and reproduction of conventional norms and practices (Feiman, Nemser, Parker, & Zeichner, l993), rendering beginning teachers less likely to develop or consolidate their knowledge (and use) of progressive and learner-centred approaches, and less likely to challenge the inherent conservatism in teaching or to advance social reform and social justice agendas (Clarke & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005; Sundli, 2007; Wang & Odell, 2002).

2.9. Challenges of mentees

Literature pointed out that mentees at their mentorship programmes faced various challenges faced by pre-service (Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Bradbury & Koballa, 2008; Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007; Mawoyo & Robinson, 2005; Quick & Siebörger, 2005).

First of all, mentees are challenged with conflicting role expectations during their mentorship programme. Bradbury and Koballa (2008) explored the difficulties that arose in a mentoring relationship during a one year internship and claim that tension between the mentor and mentee is inevitable during an internship. School-based mentors and mentees had different expectations of the mentoring relationship and thus problems arose because they did not communicate their expectations at the beginning of the mentoring relationship. The mentors, on the one hand, expected the mentees to assume more responsibility of classroom duties and eventually become more autonomous as they would be when they become qualified teachers. The mentees on the other hand wanted the mentors to give them 'prescriptive advice' on how to teach. These findings are given weight by Hamel and Fisher (2011) whose study revealed that mentors appeared

68

frustrated when the pre-service teachers expected the mentors to take initiative for planning lessons. Moreover, the mentors wanted the pre-service teachers to be more inquisitive about how to improve their teaching skills, while the pre-service teachers wanted the mentors to give ongoing feedback of their teaching without being requested to do so. To avoid conflicting role expectations, Portner (2003) recommends that setting ground rules at an early stage of the mentoring relationship will prevent confusion regarding the role expectation of the mentor and protocol to adhere to in the relationship.

Another challenge faced by mentees is that they are compelled to emulate the mentor. According to Zanting and Verloop (2001) mentees were compelled by their mentors to emulate their teaching style. For example, a pre-service teacher complained that her mentor wanted her to model his method of teaching and she refused as it did not suit her personality and her belief that there is not only one suitable method of teaching a particular subject. Hence pre-service teachers found it difficult to develop their own initiative for lesson preparation and other teaching duties (Zanting & Verloop, 2001). Nillas (2010) found that in some cases the school-based mentors were not flexible when the mentees wanted to try new teaching methods and would communicate their viewpoint harshly. Similarly, Wang and Odell (2007) found that when mentees implemented their own style of teaching as opposed to emulating the mentor, learners in the classroom were confused about which strategy to apply to a task given by their teacher. Therefore conflict arose between the pre-service teacher and the school-based mentor, and pre-service teachers felt a lack of support by their mentors in this regard because they had to defend their style of teaching to the mentor (Wang & Odell, 2007). Wang and Odell's (2007) study revealed that pre-service teachers in certain cases avoid the advice of the mentor

69

due to conflict regarding teaching style and attempt to devise their own coping strategies to overcome challenges, or seek advice from other teachers. Portner (2003) maintains that a mentor should not assume that the mentee will agree with their suggestions for improvement. It is crucial that the mentor and mentee work in unison and reach an agreement concerning the mentee's development.

Furthermore, mentee exploitation is also faced by mentees on their mentorship programme. There were a number of complaints by mentees who felt that their mentors exploited them (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba (2007). Complaints about mentors not attending to their classes and only giving the textbook to student teachers where they should carry on with a lesson have been made (Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009). Pre-service teachers felt that while they were still in a learning capacity they needed their mentors' ongoing support (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). Maphosa, Shumba and Shumba (2007) revealed that some mentor teachers' perceived student teachers as 'relief teachers' to make their workload lighter. In addition, mentees teachers feel that mentors are evading their teaching responsibility when they (mentees) are requested to present a lesson which they did not develop, and also find it difficult to present someone else's ideas (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008). Mentee exploitation could be a result of mentor teachers not always being aware of their expected role as mentors (Hamel & Fischer, 2011:439). Mentees complained that mentors being unaware of what is expected of the pre-service teachers resulted in these mentees being given a workload that does not allow them to concentrate on other assignments required by the university (Hamel & Fischer, 2011:439). Added to this, mentees wanted mentors to notify them in advance if they wanted them to perform a particular task. In this regard Maphosa,

70

Shumba and Shumba (2007:300) propose that clear guidelines should be defined in respect of pre-service teachers' workload. Dissatisfaction in the mentoring relationship can occur when mentors exploit the mentees (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009).

Also, lack of constructive feedback from mentors another challenge faced by mentees Maphosa, Shumba and Shumba (2007) found that most of the mentors in their study did not provide professional advice to pre-service teachers under their guidance, for example demonstrating lesson presentations, providing opportunities to venture new ideas and providing feedback on their attempts. Similar findings were reported by Kardos and Johnson (2008) who revealed, in their study, that mentors did not observe the mentees and had few discussions regarding managing a classroom, lesson planning and lesson presentation which resulted in minimal feedback received by the mentees. The need for feedback from mentor teachers is for the pre-service teachers to determine if their ideas on how to teach are plausible before they embark on a lesson presentation (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008). Whilst it was found that school-based mentors do provide feedback, the problem pre-service teachers faced was the lack of constructive feedback provided by teachers (Nillas, 2010). According to Nillas (2010), the pre-service teachers indicated that the school-based mentor provided feedback that was "inconsistent and unspecific". For example a mentee wanted the mentor to give more than just a "good job" comment that s/he received for a lesson. The pre-service teachers felt that constructive feedback provided by the school based mentor will positively influence their professional growth (Nillas, 2010). Pre-service teachers are motivated when they receive ongoing feedback from their mentors (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009).

71

Finally, another challenged faced by mentee is Mentor distrust Kiggundu and Nayimuli, (2009) found that mentors would not allow student teachers to take over their classes as they felt that the student teachers were wasting time, since the mentors had to complete the syllabus before the academic year ended. This was a clear indication that the mentors had trust issues with the pre-service teachers and viewed the mentees as incompetent to teach. Consequently, the student teachers felt demoralised and incompetent. The foregoing feelings could have a detrimental effect on the mentees' view of the teaching profession. A number of challenges in the literature were reviewed to gain an understanding of mentees' interactions with their school-based mentors during teaching practice.

2.10. Support and Systems Format to Help Mentees

Some studies have also suggested that successful mentoring is dependent on the 'willingness' to be mentored on the part of the beginner teacher-mentee (Little, 1993; Malderez & Bodóczky, 1999), a matter over which policymakers and teacher educators may appear to have only limited influence. Nevertheless, though research on this particular question is scarce, it seems likely that a mentee's willingness and openness to getting the most out of a mentoring relationship will be influenced to at least some extent by the context within which the mentoring takes place, the suitability and characteristics of the mentor allocated, and the preparation received and strategies employed by that mentor (Wang & Odell, 2007).

Research shows that the success of mentoring programmes and mentoring relationships is influenced by a range of contextual factors. The most consistent finding in this area is that, other things being equal, mentoring is more likely to be effective

where teacher-mentors are provided with additional release or non-contact time to help them prepare for and undertake the mentoring role (Altricher, Feldman, Posch, & Somekh, 2008), while successful mentoring is further facilitated where timetabling allows mentors and mentees to meet together during the school day (Gagnon & Collay, 2005). Some studies have also suggested that mentoring is more likely to lead to positive outcomes where mentors receive financial reward and/or some other form of incentive or recognition for their work (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney & O'Brien, 1995; Evans &Abbott, 1997; Simpson, Hastings & Hill., 2007) where it takes place in contexts which are relatively free from excessive emphases on externally determined goals and agendas such as prescriptive criteria for teaching practices (Edwards, 1998; Gay & Stephenson, 1998; Yusko & Feiman-Nemser, 2008); where mentors are involved in the design and evaluation of, and are committed to, the broader (ITP, induction or early professional development) programmes of which mentoring is a part (Evans & Abbott, 1997); and where such programmes are coherent and not characterized by 'fragmentation' (Goodlad, 1990) between different (e.g. school-based and university- based) contributors (Hascher, Cocard & Moser, 2004; Hobson et al., 2008).

In addition, beginner teacher mentoring is more likely to be successful where it takes place within schools which are characterized by collegial and learning cultures (Edwards, 1998; Lee & Feng, 2007); where both mentors and mentees have access to support outside of the mentoring relationship, such as from other teachers in the school or from external networks of peers (Whisnant, Elliott, & Pynchon, 2005); and where mechanisms exist that enable mentees and mentors to initiate the establishment of an alternative pairing, without blame being attached to either party, where they feel that the

73

relationship is not (or is no longer) productive (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development,1999).

2.11. Summary

The literature review was guided by the research questions. Based on this, the review focused on the mentorship programme aimed at producing competent, skilful and quality teacher who would assist in development of knowledge and skill for the future generation. Also, the review touched on the role of mentor and mentees as well as the appropriate relationship that ought to exist between these two stakeholders in the success of the mentorship programme. The review again focused on the impact of the mentorship programmes as well as challenges mentees are confronted with. Finally, the review then looked at the various support systems available to the mentees which aimed at cushioning them at all time.
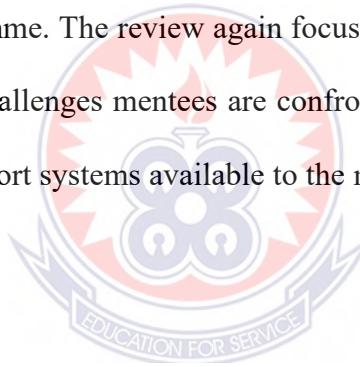
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

In the preceding chapter the review of related literature was presented. This chapter focuses on the methodology employed for the study. Methodology is the "*strategy, plan of action, process or design"* lying behind the choice and use of particular research methods (Crotty, 1998:3).A detailed overview is provided of the research design, which is a case study. Furthermore, the context of the research, sample and sampling strategy, data collection methods, procedures and analysis were discussed. The final section discusses the validation of findings and ethical considerations.

3.1. Research Design

A research design is the overall plan for obtaining answers to the questions being studied and for handling some of the difficulties encountered during the research process (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2004). Research designs are developed to meet the unique requirements of a study. According to Denscombe (2003) a research design is a blueprint or a detailed plan for how a research study is conducted. Polit, Beck and Hungler (2004) indicated that selecting a good research design should be guided by an overarching consideration, namely, whether the design does the best possible job of providing trustworthy answers to the research question. The major aim of a research design is to assist the researcher to collect and analyse evidence that addresses the research questions, hence a research design deals with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin,

2009). Furthermore, a research design provides a detailed explanation of planned activities within a research project.

The purpose of the study was to explore the challenges facing mentees from Offinso College of Education during their internship and the support systems available to them. The researcher used a case study design approach in conducting this study.

This study used mainly qualitative methods of data collection and was highly descriptive in nature. However, a quantitative method of data collection was also employed to provide empirical data to substantiate the qualitative data.

Qualitative approach, according to Creswell (2003:18) is 'one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e., political, issue-oriented, collaborative. or change oriented) or both'.

This approach happens in the socio-cultural setting of participants of a study and, therefore, it involves an interaction between the researcher and the researched. Qualitative research also enables the researcher to use smaller but focused sample in order to elicit in-depth information or views from the participants and the data mostly characterised into patterns as a primary basis for organising and reporting results (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Qualitative researchers are often more concerned about uncovering knowledge about how people feel about circumstances in which they find themselves than they are in, making judgements about those thoughts and feeling (Denscombe, 2003). A qualitative research is an umbrella term that encompasses many

research approaches, ethnographies, grounded theory, case studies and phenomenological studies (Creswell, 2003; Smith & Eatough, 2007).

Among the various types of research designs, the researcher considered case study design as most appropriate for this study. A case study design is a strategy used when the emphasis of the study tends to be upon an intensive examination of a phenomenon in a specific setting, which involves an empirical investigation of a particular phenomenon within its real life context using a multiple source of evidence (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). This current study focused on the real life challenges mentees faced during their mentorship programme. A case study design was appropriate because Denscombe, (2003) believed that it allows a researcher an investigation into real life events; such as individual life cycles, organisational and managerial processes, neighbourhood change, international relations, and the maturation of industries. A case study approach also allows a researcher to use multiple instruments to explore a phenomenon like the one under study.

3.2. Context of the Research

The major consideration for selecting the study area for the research is primarily based on the aim of the study which sought to explore the challenges facing mentees from Offinso College of Education during their internship. The phenomenon under study was a typical one, implying that it could be conducted with mentees from other Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region but the researcher decided on mentees from Offinso college of Education because of the following reasons. Offinso College of Education is one of the major mixed colleges in the region and therefore have both male and female

participants. Secondly, the researcher also teaches at the college and therefore access to data would be less stressful.

3.3. Population

Polit, Beck and Hungler (2004:289) define population as 'the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria'. The target population is the aggregate of cases about which the researcher would like to make generalisations (Polit, Beck & Hungler, 2004). The target group for this study was the 2015 mentorship group with a population of 152 (92 males and 60 females). All the 152 students consented to their participation.

3.4. Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

After defining the population that is eligible for inclusion in the study, the next crucial step in the study was sample size as well as the appropriate sampling techniques. This stage in the study was crucial because, Howit and Cramer (2011) revealed that the quality of a piece of research does not only stands or falls by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted.

A sample is the set of actual participants that are drawn from a larger population of potential data sources (Creswell, 2005). In this study, a sample size of 76 mentees was selected through multi-stage sampling techniques. Multi-stage sampling approach requires the use of more than one sampling technique when selecting sample size in a particular study (Creswell, 2003).

78

Stratified sampling technique was the first technique employed in selecting sample for the study. Stratified sampling is a type of probability sampling approach used to group the entire population into strata. Stratified random sampling is a probabilistic sampling option. The strata are chosen to divide a population into important categories relevant to the research interest. The first step in stratified random sampling is to split the population into strata, that is, sections or segments. Therefore, in this study the teacher mentees were grouped into two strata that is, male teacher mentees and female teacher mentees.

This technique was used because it was relatively easy to identify and allocate the units (male and female). Also, this technique was appropriate because it ensures that the resulting sample was distributed in the same way as the population in terms of the stratifying criterion (Howit & Cramer, 2011).

A proportion of 50 per cent was drawn from each strata using simple random sampling. Simple random sampling, also a probability sampling approach, ensures that each unit of the two strata has equal probability of inclusion in the sample. The lottery method, one of the strategies used in simple random sampling was used. In this regards 46 pieces of paper with the inscription, "YES" were folded whiles another 46 with the inscription 'NO' were also folded for the male mentees to pick. With the females, 30 pieces of papers with inscription 'YES' were folded and another 30 pieces of papers with 'NO' were also folded. All those who picked 'YES' were the people who participated in the study. This selection process was done on the day all the mentees reported to school immediately after their internship programme. This approach, according to Howit and

79

Cramer (2011) is appropriate as it ensure fair representation of the sample and it also generates a sample that reflect the population that it purports to stand for.

In the interview phase, judgemental sampling technique was used to select 20 male teacher mentees and 10 female teacher mentees. Judgmental sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where the researcher selects units to be sampled based on their knowledge and professional judgment. Judgmental sampling design is usually used when a limited number of individuals possess the trait of interest. It is the only viable sampling technique in obtaining information from a very specific group of people. It is also possible to use judgmental sampling if the researcher knows a reliable professional or authority that he thinks is capable of assembling a representative sample (Kusi, 2012). This technique was used because the researcher knew the right people to interview as a tutor in the college.

3.5. Instruments for Data Collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected for this study. To achieve these kinds of data, two instruments were employed for the data collection in this study. These were a structured questionnaire and a semi-structure interview.

3.5.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a data collection instrument consistent of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents (Altricher, Feldman, Posch & Somekh, 2008). Structured questionnaires are those in which some control or guidance is given for the answer. This may be described as closed form because the questions are basically short, requiring the respondent to provide a 'yes' or

'no' response or checking an item out of a list of given responses. In this study, Likert scale which is a form of structured questionnaire type was used in the collection of the data from mentees only.

The questionnaire was divided into five (5) sections. Section A contains structured items that aimed at eliciting background data of all the participants. The items include gender and age of participants. Also, location of participants schools and classes/levels participants were attached to.

Section B was guided by research question to know the kind of activities mentees are expose to during their mentorship programme. Nine different activities derived from literature were measured on 5 point Likert scale. Section C also was 5 point Likert scale which items seek to elicit data for research question 2. Furthermore, the section D, also 5 point Likert scale items which focused on generating data to answer research question 3. Lastly, also 5 point Likert scale aimed at providing adequate data for research question 4.

The questionnaire was selected not only because it is the most common data gathering tool. Also it is the instrument that helps to collect a great deal of information within a time limit and help to reach large group of research subjects.

3.5.2. Semi- structured Interview

The second instrument used in collecting data for this study was a semi-structured interview guide. A semi-structured interview guide was developed for the mentees in order to have understanding of major issues that emerged after analysing the data from the structured questionnaires. The semi-structured interview guide was used because it served as a check for young researchers and contained open ended questions that

provided the participants with the opportunity to describe their experiences fully (O'Leary, 2005). Furthermore, the semi-structured interview guide allowed probes and follow up questions needed to clarify the meaning of responses and encouraged in-depth descriptions. On the other hand, the researcher used the face-to-face approach in this study because the approach is beneficial to arrive at detailed descriptions of the participants' experience through mediate clarification, expansion of the participants' thoughts and access to non-verbal cues such as gestures and facial expressions (Speziale & Carpenter, 2007). The interview guide also explored issues related to activities the mentees were exposed to, benefits of the programme challenges the mentees faced as well as the support systems put in place for them.

3.6. Pre-testing of instrument

A pretesting of data collection instrument is one of the important stages in a research project and it is conducted to identify potential problem areas and deficiencies in the research instruments and protocol prior to implementation during the full study (Teijlingen Van, Rennie, Hundley & Graham, 2001). Although data for this study was collected through the use of questionnaires and interview, only the items on the questionnaire were pretested. This was because issues that emerged from the analysis of the questionnaire data guided the structure of the semi-structured interview guide. The questionnaire items were pretested at Wesley College of Education in the Ashanti Region with 20 teacher mentees. The mentees of Wesley College of Education were used for the piloting because the campus has similar characteristics with the study area. The purpose of the piloting was essential to prevent the waste of time, energy and money (Blaxter,

Hughes & Tight, 2006). The pilot test was carried out in order to pre-test the feasibility of both research instruments, that is questionnaire schedules, and also of the research process itself.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The objective of doing fieldwork is to encourage participants to communicate about their everyday life in an environment where they feel comfortable and, in this way, the researcher is able to learn how participants think and act in a particular situation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The first step in conducting fieldwork is to get the authority to conduct the study. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) advise the researcher to communicate openly to the people involved in a study regarding your interest and request their cooperation to willingly participate in the study. In this regard, introductory letter was collected from the office of Head of Department of Educational Leadership of which copies were given to the principal of Offinso College of Education and students leaders of the teacher mentees.

A workshop was organised for the mentees where the researcher had lengthy discussions about the purpose of the study and how the study might benefit them. The pre-service teachers raised a number of concerns related to their participation. Each concern was handled carefully to the satisfaction of the mentees. This workshop was done because Simons (2009) suggested that the researcher explains to the participants the purposes of the study and how the study can benefit their own personal development, but warns not to promise unrealistic expectations that cannot be achieved by the participants.

As indicated earlier, two instruments were employed to gather data for the study namely; questionnaire and semi-structured interview guide. Written permission was obtained from Head of Department of the Department of Educational Leadership, University of Education, College of Technology. All the 76 questionnaires were self administered to each of the participants in their various hostels. Before the administration, each of the participants was contacted through mobile phone to be sure of their readiness. Participants were allowed to study the questionnaire and later submit after responding to the questions.

Secondly, the interview process was guided by the semi-structured interview guide. Before each interview session, the researcher sought permission and booked an appointment with each interviewee. This was done through face-to-face discussion with each of the participants with the guide of the interview protocol and each session lasted between 45-50 minutes. All interviews were recorded with the permission of the respondents and they were assured of anonymity.

3. 8. Analysis of data

The questionnaire data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics specifically, frequencies and percentages. In this regard, with the assistance of SPSS software, the analysis of the data was done using frequencies and percentages..

The interview data on the other hand, was recorded and transcribed. Transcribing the recordings into text according to Howit and Cramer (2011), is quicker to read and check than it was to locate and replay part of the interview and also, the transcript made it easier to see the relation between the materials and the analysis which was to be carried.

Deductive coding was guided by the findings of the questionnaire. Similar codes were put together under a theme. Each theme was supported by direct quotations from the transcript. The analysis was guided by the research questions.

3.9. Validating the Findings

Validity does not carry the same connotation in qualitative research as it is in quantitative research. Validity is one of the strengths of qualitative research and it is based on determining whether the findings are accurate from the stand point of the researcher, the participants or readers of an account (Creswell, 2003). He further explains that terms that abound in qualitative literature speak to this idea such as trustworthiness, authenticity and credibility. This according to him will enhance the researcher's ability to assess the accuracy of findings as well as convince readers of that accuracy. For this purpose, the researcher utilised the strategies that follow.

Kusi (2012) explains that the credibility of the research can be ensured by giving the findings to some of the participants to evaluate them - to check the extent to which the findings represent their own views expressed during the data collection. He further explains that, although, the process is time consuming, it is a useful way of dealing with bias in the study. The researcher used member - checking to determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings. This according to Creswell (2003) implies that the researcher will take back parts of the polished product such as the themes, the case analysis, the grounded theory, the cultural descriptions and so forth. The researcher did this by taking final reports of specific descriptions or themes back to the participants and determining whether these participants felt that they were accurate.

85

The researcher adopted the procedure of peer examination to make sure that he is not bias in his presentation and analysis of the data. He did this by giving the findings to peers to critically peruse it to ensure that there was no bias in the report.

3.10. Positionality of the Researcher

The researcher's positionality in the research is very important because in as much as it can be of advantage to the study, the credibility of the study can also be questioned especially when the researcher is a 'native' of that organisation as it is in the case of the researcher of this particular study. Kusi (2012) asserts that one of the major issues which need to be highlighted is one's positionality as a 'native' of the organisation, which makes that individual have some understandings, preconceived notions and prejudices about its activities. The researcher's familiarity with the context did not prevent her from asking some questions and seeking clarification about issues during the interview and for that matter, there was no temptation of interpreting the data to suit his understanding and pre-conceived notions about the problem under investigation. Though the researcher had some pre-existing convictions, ideas and concerns about the phenomenon due to his current position as a tutor at the Offinso College of Education, she did not in any way alter the findings of the study/data collected. The researcher allowed the outcome of the study to unfold on its own. The findings were presented just as they were revealed by the participating students without the researcher's own convictions and ideologies about working students' activities corrupting the data; in other words, the researcher allowed the data to 'speak' for itself.

3.11. Ethical Considerations

As social science research involves gathering data from people, questions of research ethics are important considerations. The main considerations are that human beings should be treated with respect, they should not be harmed in any way, and they should be fully informed about what is happening to them or with them as part of the research process (Oliver, 2003). The following ethical issues were considered in this study.

Informed consent was one the ethical issues considered in this study. Informed consent is one of the most important principles of research ethics. It is based on the need for participants to enter into research voluntarily, while understanding the nature of the research and any disadvantages or obligations that may be involved (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). It is important to ensure that potential participants have full and open information about what their participation will involve and what will be expected of them (Clark, 1997). In this study, as all participants were above 18 years and did not need consent from their parents (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Consent form was given to every participant. On the form was the purpose of the study, the duration for the study and the role of the participants.

Also, anonymity and confidentiality was the second ethical issue considered in this study. Oliver (2003: 77) describes anonymity in research as "respondents being given the opportunity to have their identity hidden in a research report". However, Bell (2005:48), defines it as "a promise that even the researcher will not be able to tell which responses came from which respondent."

In addition, confidentiality on the other hand, according to Wiles, Crow, Heath, and Charles (2006:1), is "assuring someone that what has been discussed will not be repeated". Also, Wiersma and Jurs (2009:438) define confidentiality as "the researcher not disclosing the identity of the participants or indicating from whom the data were obtained". To assure anonymity and confidentiality in this study, before the start of every recording, during the data collections, the researcher reminded participants not to mention their names or say anything that would reveal their identification. Also, the researcher handled the data alone especially during data collection, transcribing of the recorded interview and the analysis.

Also, the principle of beneficence refers to the need for the researcher to maximise the benefits and minimise any possible harmful effects (Cozby, 2007). Potential harm to participants from participating in research can include psychological, emotional or physical harm, and loss of confidentiality (Cozby, 2007). To ensure beneficence in this study, the researcher worked with the participants in accordance with their wishes to avoid any psychological of physical harm in the course of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to explore the challenges facing mentees from Offinso College of Education during their internship and the support systems available to the mentees. This chapter presents the findings of the study on the challenges facing mentees in the Offinso College of Education based on the specific objectives of the study as outlined in chapter one.

In all 76 questionnaires were distributed to both male and female respondents. Out of the total questionnaires distributed, 72 representing 94.7% were retrieved. Out the recovered questionnaires, 42 (55.3) were retrieved from male respondents while 30(39.5%) were retrieved from the female respondents.

Also, as indicated in the chapter three, 5 point Likert scale type questionnaire (strongly disagreed, disagreed, neutral, agreed and strongly agreed) was used in designing the questionnaire items for data collection in the study. In the presentation of the findings, both the scores of "strongly disagreed and disagreed" were merged as "disagreed", while the scores of "agreed and strongly agreed" were also merged to "agreed" leaving the neutral scores to stand.

The findings were presented in two main parts. The Part 1 focused on the demographic data of the respondents while the Part two focused on the findings of the four research question as stated in chapter 1 of this report.

As indicated earlier in Chapter 1, the questionnaire data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics and specifically frequencies and percentages. The findings were presented in tables.

On the other hand, the interview data was presented to support the findings of the questionnaire data. Statements attributed to participants were label according a serial numbers. For example male participants were recorded with serial MP1-MP15 (where MP stands for male participants) while, FP1-FP15 (where FP stands for female participants)

4.1. Part 1: Demographic information of the respondents

The section 1 presents the demographic information of the study respondents. The demographic information of the respondents included, respondents' gender, age, places of attachment and class or level attached to and this was represented in Table 4.1.
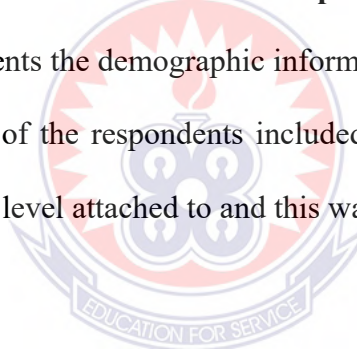
Table 4.1: Demographic Information

Variables		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	42	58.3
	Female	30	41.7
	Total	72	100
Age	18-23	25	34.7
	24-28	45	62.5
	29-33	2	2.8
	Total	72	100
Area of Attachment	Urban	20	27.8
	Peri –urban	30	41.7
	Rural	22	30.5
	Total	72	100
Class Attached	Lower primary	42	58.3
	Upper Primary	30	41.7
	Total	72	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2016

According to Table 4.1, out of 72 respondents who responded to their questionnaires, 42 representing 58.3% were male while the 30 representing 41.7% were females. Another revelation the table made was on the age range of the respondents. On the age range of the participants, the table again reveals that majority (62.5%) of the

respondents were between the ages of 24-28 years, followed by 25 (34.7%) respondents who were between 18-23 years while 2(2.8%) were between 29-33 years.

Furthermore, the table presents the finding on the various areas mentees had their mentorship programmes. From the table, 20 (27.8%) respondents were in the urban area, 30(41.7%) were in peri-urban area while 22(30.5) were in the rural area. Besides, the table revealed that all the respondents had their mentorship programme at the primary schools level, where 42(58.3%) respondents were in the attached to the lower primary and 30(41.7%) were attached to upper primary.

4.2. Part two: Findings of research questions and discussion

Part two as stated earlier, focused on the findings after the analysis of both questionnaire and semi-structured interview data. The findings were presented under four sections. *Section One* focused on research question 1, while *Section Two* presented findings on research question 2. Furthermore, *Section Three* focused on the findings of research question 3 and *Section Four* presented the findings of research question 4. Below are the presentations of the four sections. The research questions are as follow:

1. What activities are mentees exposed to by their mentors during the mentoring programmes?

2. To what extent are the mentees benefiting from the mentoring programmes organised for them?

3. What challenges do the teacher mentees at the Offinso College of Education face during their mentoring programmes?

4. What are the support systems put in place for the teacher mentees at Offinso College of Education?

Section One: What activities are mentees exposed by their mentors during the mentoring programmes?

The research question sought to understand the various activities mentees were exposed to in the course of their mentorship programme. The findings on these activities according the questionnaire data and the interview were presented below.

According to the questionnaire data, respondents were exposed to various activities. The activities respondents responded to in this study included, preparation of lesson and lesson delivery with mentor, the giving of exercises and scoring them, being given opportunity to manage class, working on project work with students, involvement in co-curricular activities, sitting in class when mentor is teaching and delivering lesson without the mentor as represented in Table 4.2.
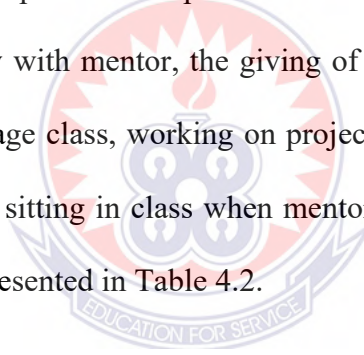
Table 4.2: Activities Respondents were Exposed to

	Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Conducting of exercises and scoring	0	0	0	0	72	100	72	100
2. Preparation of lesson and lesson delivery	2	2.8	0	0	70	97.2	72	100
3. Given opportunity to manage class	5	6.9	4	5.6	63	87.5	72	100
4. Project work with students	81	1.1	2	2.8	62	86.1	72	100
5. Sporting activities	10	13.9	0	0	62	86.1	72	100
6. Sit in class when mentor is teaching	20	27.8	0	0	52	72.2	72	100
7. Delivered lessons without the mentor	20	27.8	0	0	52	72.2	72	100

Source: Fieldwork 2016

According to Table 4.2, mentees from Offinso College of Education were exposed to various activities during their mentorship programme. As shown by the table, all the respondents, 72 (100.0%) agreed they were exposed to conducting of exercises and scoring. Another activity the mentees were exposed to was lesson preparation Out of 72 respondents, 70 (97.2) agreed they were exposed to preparation of lesson. Furthermore, out of the total of 72 respondents, 63 respondents, representing 87.5%

94

agreed they were given opportunity to manage a class independently, 5 (6.9%) disagreed and 4 (5.6%) were neutral.

Project work with students was another activity mentees were exposed to. With reference to project work with students, out of 72 respondents, 62 (86.1%) agreed they were exposed to the activity, 8 (11.1%) disagreed and 2 (2.8%) were neutral. Besides out 72 respondents, 62 (86.1%) agreed they were exposed to sporting activities but 10 (13.9%) disagreed. In addition, 52 (72.2%) agreed they sat in the class when mentor was teaching while 20 (27.8%) disagreed. Finally, out of the total of 72 respondents, 52 (72.2%) agreed they were exposed to delivering lessons without the mentor as against, 20 (27.8%) who disagreed.

On the other hand, commenting on the activities participants were exposed to, the interview data revealed two themes. These included classroom related activities and non-classroom activities. On the classroom related activities, the participants revealed they were exposed to lesson preparation, lesson delivery and marking of exercises. Two of them indicated:

> 'The major activities I experienced during the mentorship programme were lesson preparation and teaching. Throughout the programme, I worked on the lesson plan and my mentor vetted it. I then used the vetted lesson plan to teach'. FP2

> "Throughout the mentorship programme, I planned lessons, taught the students and gave exercises and marked them. These were my daily activities in my staying in the school". MP3

95

On the other hand, the data revealed that participants were also exposed to non-classroom related activities. These activities according the data included sports and games, students' project works and supervision of students to clean the school compound. Two participants had these to say:

> *"I was actively involved in the students' sports training programme. Apart from being in charge of my class physical education on the field, I assisted in training of the school's football and volleyball team". MP8*

> *"I was part of masters on duty for a whole month. Primarily, I supervised students early morning to clean the compound as in sweeping and sometimes weeding. This has introduced me to the activities I will be doing after my internship programme and has increased my confidence level". FP7*

The results revealed that there were some activities teacher mentees were exposed to during their internship programme and these activities included writing of lesson plan, attending cycle meeting, marking of exercises, attending school gathering like assembly, staff meeting just to mention a few.

Section two: **To what extent are the mentees benefiting from the mentoring programmes organised for them?**

From the responses to the questionnaire and interview, the following benefits were revealed. Both the questionnaire and the interview revealed some benefits of the activities mentees were exposed to in section one. According to the questionnaire data the benefits of the mentorship programme to mentees were acquisition of new teaching skills, enhanced self confidence in dealing with challenges in the classroom, experience in handling co-curricular activities, enhancing networking opportunities, equipping mentees with the skill to set their own goals and striving towards achieving them, ability to do multiples of assignment at the same time, ability to use variety of TLMs, developing skills in assessment, and acquisition of social skills. The findings are presented in Table 4.3.
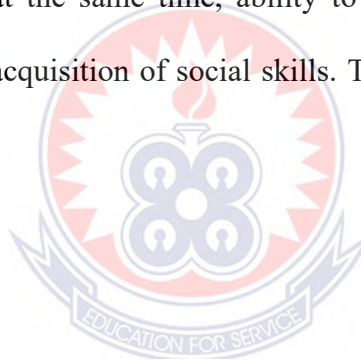
Table 4.3: **Benefits of Activities to Mentees**

	Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Developed skills in assessment	0	0	0	0	72	100	72	100
2. Developed of new teaching skills	3	4.2	2	2.8	67	93.0	72	100
3. Skills in handling extra-curricular activities in schools	5	7	0	0	67	93.0	72	100
4. Enhanced of self confidence in dealing with challenges	5	7	1	1.4	66	91.6	72	100
5. Equips mentee to set own goals and strive towards achieving them	4	5.6	4	5.6	64	88.8	72	100
6. Able to do multiples of assignment at the same time	5	7	3	4.2	64	88.8	72	100
7. Able to use variety of TLMs	7	9.7	4	5.6	61	84.7	72	100
8. Enhancing networking opportunities	12	16.7	-	-	60	83.3	72	100
9. Acquired social skills	12	16.7	3	4.2	57	79.1	72	100

Source: Fieldwork 2016

98

From Table 4.3, out of the 72 respondents who responded to the questionnaire, all of them agreed that they had developed skills in assessment of students as one of the benefits of the activities they were exposed to during the mentorship programme. Secondly, development of new teaching skills according the table was another benefit of the activities mentees were exposed to during their mentorship programme. In this regard, out of the 72 respondents, 67 (93.0%) agreed to having the benefit, 3 (4.2%) of them disagreed, while 2(2.8) of the respondents were neutral. Furthermore, the table points that out of the total respondents, 67 (93.0%) agreed to have developed skills in handling co-curricular activities as teachers, while 5 (7%) disagreed.

Another benefit of the activities mentees were exposed to was enhanced self confidence in dealing with challenges. In this regard, out of the total respondents, 66 (91.6%) of them agreed to the benefit, 5 (7%) disagreed while 1(1.4%) was neutral. The table again reveals mentees being equipped to set their own goals and strive towards achieving them was another benefit of the mentorship programme. In this respect, 64 (88.8%) of the respondents agreed to the benefit, 4 (5.6%) disagreed and 4 (5.6) of the respondents were neutral. Again, according to the table, out of the 72 respondents, 64 (88.8%) of them agreed that through the mentorship activities, they are able to do multiples of assignment at the same time, but 5 (7%) disagreed while 3 (4.2%) were neutral. Similarly, the table reveals that out of the total respondents, 61 (84.7%) of them agreed that the mentorship programme had equipped them to be able to use variety of TLMs, 7 (9.7%) disagreed and 4 (5.6%) were neutral. Not only that, the table also pointed out that from the total respondents, 60 (83.3%) of them agreed that the mentorship programme had enhanced their networking opportunities, but 12 (16.7%) of

99

the respondents disagreed. Finally, the table reveals that 57 (79.1%) out the total respondents, agreed that through the mentorship programme they had acquired social skills, 12 (16.7%) disagreed while 3 (4.2%) of the respondents were neutral.

Commenting on the participants view regarding the benefits of the activities mentees were exposed to during their mentorship programme, two themes emerged from the interview data. First, improvement of teaching skills emerged. The majority of the participants believed through the mentorship programme they had acquired practical teaching experience and it had enhanced the skills in teaching, as evident in the comments of some participants:

> *"I am proud to say that the mentorship programme has helped me to acquire practical teaching experience in the real teaching environment. This experience has equipped me with sufficient teaching skills which would in turn enhance my teaching in the future". MP3*

> *"The mentorship programme has benefited me. A lot of things we had studied in the classroom in abstract, through this programme, I have experienced them practically. Besides, the programme has sharpened my teaching skills". FP2*

It came to light from the interview that participants had acquired social skills through their involvement in the mentorship programme. These skills included how to relate with people from different background, the behaviours of people and how to effectively relate with students. These are evident from the comments of two of the participants:

100

"...travel and see they say. The mentorship programme has helped me to understand behaviours of people and how to adjust with people in order to live with them without quarrel. The programme has also helped me to understand the different behaviours of students". FP8

"The mentorship programme has enlightened me on how people behaved under different situations. Through this programme I have studied the attitude of teachers, students and people in the larger community as well learned how to relate with different people".
FP2

This section revealed that the internship programme was very beneficial to teacher mentees. Among these benefits mentioned include, developing new teaching and assessment skills, building self confidence and being able to use variety of TLMs.
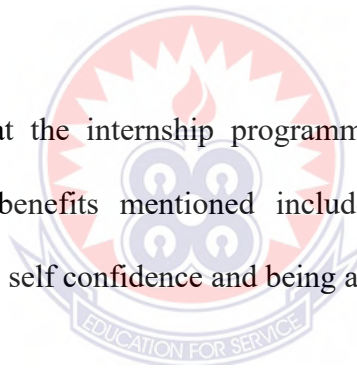
Section Three: What challenges do the teacher mentees at the Offinso College of Education face during their mentoring programmes?

According to the data, mentees faced various challenges during their mentorship programme. The challenges which the questionnaire collected data on included difficulty in lesson delivery, regular absenteeism of mentors, challenges with goals set by mentors, resources for teaching not provided, distance learning materials and manuals not provided on time, unavailability of electricity in attachment area, lack of access to library facilities in the school or area and teachers unpreparedness to work with mentees. The findings are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Challenges Facing Mentees

	Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Difficulty in lesson delivery	52	72.2	0	0	20	27.8	72	100
2. Regular absenteeism of mentors	45	62.5	0	0	27	37.5	72	100
3. Mentors do not set clear and achievable goals	30	41.7	5	6.9	37	51.4	72	100
4.Sufficient resources for teaching were not provided	22	30.6	0	0	50	69.4	72	100
5. Distance learning materials and manuals are not provided on time	17	23.6	0	0	55	76.4	72	100
6. Lack of electricity in attachment area	42	58.3	0	0	30	41.7	72	100
7. No library facilities in attachment area	22	30.6	0	0	50	69.4	72	100
8. Some teachers are not prepared to work with mentees	25	34.7	2	2.8	45	62.5	72	100

Source: field work 2015

According to Table 4.4, one of the difficulties the respondents faced was difficulty in lesson delivery. The table reveals that out of 72 respondents, 20 (27.8%) agreed to the difficulty while 52 (72.2%) of them disagreed. Another challenge the respondent responded to was regular absenteeism of mentors. Out of the total

respondents, 27 (37.5%) agreed the challenge existed, but 45(62.5%) of them disagreed. Furthermore, out of the 72 respondents, 37 (51.4%) agreed that mentors not setting clear and achievable goals was a challenge they faced during their mentorship programme, 30 (41.7%) disagreed while 5 (6.9%) were neutral.

Also, according to the table sufficient resources for teaching not being provided was a challenge respondents reacted to. In this regard, 50 respondents (69.4%) indicated the challenge existed, while 22 (30.6%) disagreed. Another challenge was distance learning materials and manuals not provided on time. From the table, while 55 (76.4%) agreed they experienced the challenge, 17 (23.6%) disagreed. Again, out of the 72 respondents, 30 (41.7%) of them agreed to lack of electricity in attachment area as a challenge that they experienced during their mentorship programme while 42 (58.3%) disagreed. Similarly, from the table, 50 (69.4%) of the respondents were challenged with no library facilities in attachment area while 22 (30.6%) respondents were not challenged. Some teachers are not prepared to work with mentees was another challenge respondents faced. According to the table, 45 (62.5%) of the total respondents agreed to the challenge, 25 (34.7%) disagreed, while 2 (2.8%) were neutral.

Also from the interview, the participants shared their views on the challenges they faced during their mentorship programme. Two themes merged from the data which include attitude of teachers towards mentees and scarcity of teaching materials. With regard to attitude of some of the teachers, the participants revealed some of the teachers on the staff were not friendly.

"Some of the teachers were not friendly. To some, if you talk to them they would not respond, others too if you asked them a question, they would answer you ruddily. Any time I go to school and my mentor was not around, it was difficult to chat with any other teacher". MP1

"Some of the teachers were not friendly. When you speak to them they are reluctant, if you ask them questions, they hardly respond. I feel that some of the teachers just do not like you". FP10

The second challenge according to the data was the scarcity of teaching materials. These scarce teaching materials include chalks, drawing tools and text books. These were evident in the comment of some of the participants.

"There were instances chalk was very scarce to get. You prepare for lesson but because there were no chalks, you would either go and talk to the students or sit without teaching". FP2

"It is difficult to do effective drawing on the black board. There were no drawing tools such long rule, compass, set squares to demonstrate drawing on the board for students to see and replicate". FP1

It is clear from the findings that, the challenges mentees faced during the internship programme were numerous and really affected the mentees in their internship programme.

Section Four: What are the support systems put in place for the teacher mentees at Offinso College of Education?

Both the questionnaire and the interview data revealed various support systems available to mentees from Offinso College of Education. According to the questionnaire, the support systems available to the mentees were orientation for mentees on life at mentorship programme, contacts of supervisors available to mentees, mentors having meeting with mentees regularly, basic amenities made available to mentees, accommodation provided by the school and teaching materials provided by the school. Table 5 presents the findings of the questionnaire.
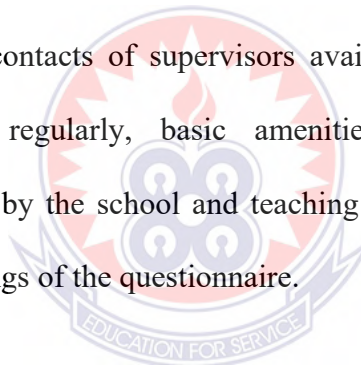
Table 4.5: Support Systems for Mentees

	Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Orientation for mentees on life at mentorship programme	20	27.8	0	0	52	72.2	72	100
2. Mobile contacts of supervisors available to mentees	15	20.8	0	0	57	79.2	72	100
3. Mentors have meeting with mentees regularly	30	41.7	0	0	42	58.3	72	100
4. Basic amenities are available to mentees	30	41.7	0	0	42	58.3	72	100
5. Accommodation was provided by the school	20	27.8	0	0	52	72.2	72	100
6. Teaching materials are provided by the school	10	13.9	0	0	62	86.1	72	100

According Table 4.5, out of 72 respondents, 52 (72.2%) respondents saw the orientation given them before their mentorship programme as support system, while 20 (27.8%) disagreed. Another support system respondent responded to was the availability of the supervisors' mobile contact. The table revealed that out of the total respondents, 57 (79.2%) of them agreed to that as a support system while 15 (20.8%) of them disagreed. Again, out of the total respondents, 42 (58.3%) of them agreed having regular meetings with their mentors was a support system while 30 (41.7%) of them disagreed.

106

Furthermore, out of the total respondents, 42 (58.3%) agreed basic amenities were provided them during their mentorship programme, while 30 (41.7%) disagreed. Also, while 52 (72.2%) respondents agreed accommodation was provided by the school, 20 (27.8) disagreed their schools provided accommodation for them. Finally, out of the total respondents, 62 (86.1%) of them agreed that teaching materials were provided by the school, while 10 (13.9%) of them disagreed

The interview also allowed the, participants to express their views on the support system available to mentees during the mentorship programme. Two major themes emerged from the data and these were support for professional development and support for social life.

On the support for professional development, most of the school mentees were attached to mentors who were always available and assisted and trained them during their mentorship programme. Besides, mentees were also supported in relation to their professional development through the provision of some teaching and learning materials such as chalks, text books, notebooks, pens and other resources, as evident from some of the comments of the participants.

> *"The school has made available one of the experienced teachers to mentor me. I have really learned a lot of skills from him. Not only that, I was provided with one notebook and pen by the head teacher of the school". MP11*

> *"When arrived at the school, even two experienced teachers were ready to guide me during the programme. Although one was my*

mentor, other teachers too, do assist me anytime my mentor was

not around".FP1

Another support systems available to the mentees according to the data was related to social support. These included students fetching water for mentees on a daily basis, provision of accommodation for mentees and the involvement of mentees in recreational activities.

"Throughout the mentorship programme I have never carried the bucket to fetch water. The headmaster has instructed some the students to fetch water for me on a daily basis. Even the room I lodged in was given to me free of charge by the community". FP1

The community members were very helpful. Days that I pick bucket to fetch water a parent would instruct a child to collect the bucket to fetch the water for me. They were very supportive in various ways. MP13

The support systems put in place for mentees were really helpful and clear to the mentees. Both the interview and the questionnaire revealed the support systems really helped the mentees.

4.3. Summary

The chapter four presented findings of the survey conducted. The findings included respondents' demographic data, which include the gender and age of the participants. Also, the demography covered the areas and level participants were placed in the mentorship programme. Apart from the findings on participants' demography, the findings on each of the four research questions which guided this study were also duly presented. The next chapter will focus on the discussion of the findings supported with relevant literature.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This current chapter discusses the findings critically with reference to relevant literature in an attempt to explore the deeper meanings of the responses, and to unpick the issues and understand the phenomenon. The findings of the survey were re-categorised into four main parts in order to achieve the stated objectives of this study as:

1. To understand the activities that mentees are exposed to by their mentors during the mentoring programmes.

2. To examine the benefits of the mentoring programme to the mentees.

3. To explain the challenges facing mentees of Offinso College of Education during their mentoring programme.

4. To identify the support systems provided to mentees at Offinso College of Education.

Discussion

Part One: Activities mentees were exposed during mentorship programme

Teacher mentoring, according to the literature could be seen as a holistic programme aimed at equipping teacher trainees in classroom craft and articulating the knowledge, theory, skills and experience which make trainees into good teachers. To produce a well baked teacher, Huling-Austin (1992) and Nillas (2010) in their view

believed that mentorship programme should be well structured with series of activities to the benefit of the teacher trainees.

It emerged from the findings of this study that mentees were exposed to various activities by their mentors. The most important among them was conducting exercises and scoring which 96.3 percent agreed they were exposed to. This was followed by preparation and delivery of lessons and class management which 92.2 percent and 82.8 percent respectively agreed they were exposed to. This means participants were exposed to the main duty of a teacher as in lesson planning, lesson delivery and assessment. In support of the finding; Yendol-Hoppey and Dana (2007) revealed that the core function of a teacher is lesson preparation, lesson delivery and assessment. Danielson (2002) added that typical mentor support to mentee involved assistance in planning and delivering lessons, class control, working with students with special needs, interacting with parents and staff, and providing encouragement.

Besides, participants were exposed to the practical ways of teaching by sitting in the class when their mentors taught. Not only that but some of the participants were exposed to the skill of organizing and executing project work with learners as well as participants involvement in co-curriculum activities for learners. Conversely, the least activity participants in this study were exposed to was the delivery of lesson in with their mentors. This implies that although participants were exposed to different activities which sought to build the mentees, these activities were carried out under the supervision of the mentor. To Hamilton (2003) mentees are novice teachers who need guide throughout the programme. The role of a mentor is to guide the mentee in all activities

111

regarding his or her professional training but as opposed to dictating how to teach (Oetjen & Oetjen, 2009).

Part two: Benefits of mentoring programme to mentees

The rationale for mentoring rests within the benefits that both mentors and mentees receive during or as a consequence of the mentoring process. These benefits motivate and encourage the recipients to partake in a mentoring programme (Long, 1997; Miller, Thomson, & Roush, 1989). In this survey the findings revealed mentees derived various benefits from their mentorship programme. Most of the mentees believed as result of activities they were carried through during the mentorship programme have enable them developed of new teaching skills, enhanced of their self confidence in dealing with challenges when handling students, acquired skills in handling co-curricular activities in schools, as well as developed skills in assessment of students. This implied that, the mentorship programme has contributed immensely to the professional development of the trainee teachers. Phillip-Jones (1998) further explained that both mentors and mentees benefit from the mentoring programme if there is a cordial relationship. To achieve this, critical measures need to be in place to enable them develop and grow professionally and personally. Among this he said includes both mentor and mentee developing and agreeing and understanding the purpose on which they are together and meeting. He again argues that a number of active communication skills are required to enable an effective partnership which includes, active listening and responding; monitoring of nonverbal language; clarifying questions and concepts; and providing opportunity for feedback.

In support, Matters (1994) asserted that mentoring as programme is as an important career development exercise for new teachers. Furthermore, mentorship activities assist mentees developed and make sense of teaching (Brown & McIntyre, 1993), and it appears undisputed that it promotes careful and systematic assistance for learning how to teach, and acts as an aid for a mentee's development as a teacher (Thies - Sprinthall & Gerler, 1990; Veenman, 1995). Based on this, Matters (1994) said, mentorship programme must provide professional experiences and positive attributes from mentors for mentees to emulate and in effect aim to make mentees feel significantly better prepared in tasks most critical to their careers.

Other benefits that the survey revealed, although few of the mentees disagreed, included acquisition of social skills and opportunities for professional networking. This means that apart from the mentees' professional skills development, the mentorship programme has also contributed in the social life of mentees. In support, Lankard, (1996) said, mentoring was found to be most helpful to mentees in the areas of self-image and self-confidence, and learning some leadership behaviours and social skills (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Jean & Evans, 1995). Cluterbuck (2011) also explained some benefits of mentoring to mentees. He listed the following as some benefits of mentoring to mentees: greater clarity about personal development and career goals; being able to discuss, in an open and unthreatening environment, issues about their career and development; improved networking, practical advice on organizational politics and behaviour; the opportunity to be challenged constructively; transfer of knowledge and, in particular judgment; and having a role model. Such mentoring benefits may also apply

for developing behaviours and skills in teaching. In effects, the mentorship programme has contributed to the professional and social life of mentees.

Part three: Challenges faced by mentees

Literature pointed out that mentees at their mentorship programmes faced various challenges (Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). Kiggundu and Nayimuli, (2009) revealed that these challenges may be related to mentors' attitudes, attitude of teachers on the staff, as well as attitude of community members. In this current study attitude of some teachers towards mentee remained a challenge to most of the mentees. Both the questionnaire and interview data pointed out that some teachers in the various schools failed to provide the needed assistance to mentee. Besides that the challenges such as distance learning materials and manuals not being provided on time, in adequate teaching and learning material, lack of library facilities in attachment area, mentors not setting clear and achievable goals and absenteeism of mentors clearly emerged in relation to mentees' challenges.

Apart from that, the availability of electricity in the attachment area and difficulty in lesson delivery by some of the mentees came to light. These revelations have pointed to the fact that mentees faced various degrees of challenges during their mentorship programme. The challenges can be classified as mentor related, staff related as well as school management related. Bradbury and Koballa (2008) in their study revealed that tension between the mentor and mentee is inevitable during an internship. Hamel and Fisher (2011) believed that the tensions erupt when mentors want the mentees to be more inquisitive about how to improve their teaching skills, while the mentees wanted the

114

mentors to give ongoing feedback of their teaching without being requested to do so. Furthermore, Nillas (2010) found that in some cases the school-based mentors were not flexible when the mentees wanted to try new teaching methods and would communicate their view point harshly. Similarly, Wang and Odell (2007) found that when mentees implemented their own style of teaching as opposed to emulating the mentor, learners in the classroom were confused about which strategy to apply to a task given by their teacher. Not only that but also, some mentors and teachers on the staff do exploit mentees which leads to conflict (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009).

Part four: Support system for mentees

Studies have shown that successful mentoring is dependent on the 'willingness' to be mentored on the part of the beginner teacher-mentee (Turner, & Pressley, 2008; ValencicZuljan & Vogrinc, 2007), a matter over which policymakers and teacher educators may appear to have only limited influence. Nevertheless, though research on this particular question is scarce, it seems likely that a mentee's willingness and openness to getting the most out of a mentoring relationship will be influenced to at least some extent by the context within which the mentoring takes place, the suitability and characteristics of the mentor allocated, and the preparation received and strategies employed by that mentor and teacher training institution (Martin & Rippon, 2003).

The findings of this current study has put forward various support put in place for mentees who participated in the study. These supports were orientation for mentees on mentorship programme, contacts of supervisors who were mentees tutors were available to mentees in case of any challenge, accommodation was provided by the school, mentors

115

have meeting with mentees regularly, teaching materials are provided by the school and basic amenities are available to mentees. This implies that there were some support systems put in place to assist mentees in their mentorship programme. These supports may be related to mentees professional skills development and social adjustment. In support beginner teacher mentoring is more likely to be successful where it takes place within schools which are characterized by collegial and learning cultures (Edwards, 1998; Lee & Feng, 2007); where both mentors and mentees have access to support outside of the mentoring relationship, such as from other teachers in the school or from external networks of peers (Whisnant, Elliott, & Pynchon, 2005); and where mechanisms exist that enable mentees and mentors to initiate the establishment of an alternative pairing, without blame being attached to either party, where they feel that the relationship is not (or is no longer) productive (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1995).Trust according to Philip-Jones (2002) is critical and helps in maintaining confidentiality of information and honesty during mentorship.

Summary

This discussion has focused on the activities mentees were exposed to during their mentorship programme which included preparation of lesson and lesson delivery with mentor, given of exercises and scoring, managing class, involvement in co-curricular activities just to mention a few. The benefits mentees derived from these activities also included social skills which exposed mentees to know how to relate with people from different background, the behaviours of people and how to effectively relate with students. It also enables them to develop new teaching skills**,** as well as developing skills

in assessing students. In addition, the various challenges mentees faced which includes delay in the provision of distance learning materials and manuals, inadequate teaching and learning materials, lack of library facilities in attachment area, unclear and unachievable goals set by mentors and absenteeism of mentor during the internship programme as well as the support system (fetching water for mentees on a daily basis, provision of accommodation for mentees and the involvement mentees in recreational activities) available to mentees enable them to cope with the challenges they face during their internship. Having completed the discussion, the next chapter will focus on the summary of the findings, conclusion and the recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0. Introduction

This chapter provides a brief overview of the entire study, highlighting major findings to draw conclusions and based on it to make recommendations. It is categorised into three sections that is conclusion of the study, recommendation and further research areas.

As already noted in chapter four, out of the initial sample size 76, 72 of them took part in this particular study. As in chapter one, the purpose of this study was to explore the challenges facing mentees from Offinso College of Education during their mentorship programme and the support systems available to the mentees. To achieve these purposes, a case study design was employed around the following four research questions:

1. What activities are mentees exposed by their mentors during the mentoring programmes?

2. To what extent are the mentees benefiting from the mentoring programmes organised for them?

3. What challenges do the teacher mentees at the Offinso College of Education face during their mentoring programmes?

4. What are the support systems put in place for the teacher mentees at Offinso College of Education?

118

6.1 Summary of the main Findings

1. The first research question sought to find out the activities the mentees were exposed to. It came out that the mentees from Offinso College of Education, were exposed to various kinds of activities. Predominantly, mentees were exposed to activities such as lesson planning and lesson delivery, as well assessment of students, which aimed at developing mentees' professional skills.

2. Basically, the benefits the mentees derived from the various activities they were exposed to during their mentorship programme were related to the improvements of mentees teaching skills and social life.

3. Mentees who went through the mentorship programme faced various challenges in relation to attitudes of mentors, some teachers as well as community related challenges.

4. The findings pointed out that there were various support available to mentees to enable go through the mentorship programme successfully. Among these include provision of accommodation, teaching and learning materials and basic amenities by their college, school of attachment and the community they lived in.

6.2. Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the study:

Mentees from Offinso College of Education were exposed to various activities which focused on the enhancement of their teaching profession in the future and benefits of these activities to the mentees have led to the acquisition and practice of various teaching skills as well as the enhancement of mentees social skills. Again mentees from Offinso

119

College of Education were faced with various challenges during their mentorship programme but they were not left without support but rather both the authorities of their college and the school they had their mentorship programme did provide some support for them.

6.3. Recommendations

Looking at the findings above, the following recommendations were made:

2. Authorities of Offinso College of Education should put in place a training programme for their mentors on their roles in the training of the mentees. Such training will equip mentors on their roles in the training of the mentees as well as reduce conflict between mentors and mentees.

3. Again, critical attention should be paid to the selection of mentors for students on mentorship programmes. Those chosen as mentors ought to be teachers with high experience of teaching in addition those with acceptable behaviours. To achieve this, the authorities of Offinso College of Education should set out clearer procedure in the selection of mentor for their teacher trainees.

4. There should be periodic orientation to help remind mentors on the need to be patient with their mentees.

5. Mentees should not be complacent and disrespectful to their mentors and other staff in the school. This will help mentees to receive the appropriate guidance from their mentors as well as the support other teachers on the staff.

6.4 Suggestion for Future Study

1. Future study on mentorship programme can focus on other experiences mentees have and face from other colleges of education in other to compare their experiences.

2. It will also be beneficial if future study could look at the challenges facing mentorship programme in Ghana.

3. Apart from that, future study can focus on the challenges facing mentors who provided assistance to the mentees.

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138

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

The study is being conducted to explore the pedagogical challenges mentees in the Offinso College of Education, Offinso Municipality face in their internship. The findings of this study would help in reviewing the mentoring programme and make necessary changes that will be meaningful to novice teachers in the Offinso College of Education. This questionnaire and semi structured interview will be used for this purpose. Four main items will be considered, they are activities of mentees, pedagogical benefits of mentoring to mentees, challenges of mentees and support systems to help mentees in their internship programme.

Please kindly complete this questionnaire and you are assured that all information provided will be treated with the greatest confidentiality. I am counting on your co-operation.

Thank you.

Section A: General Information

Please complete the following by ticking [√] the appropriate option.

(1) Sex: (a) Male [   ]   (b) Female [   ]

(2) Age: (a) 18-23 [   ] (b) 24-28 [   ] (c) 29-33 [   ] (d) 34 and above [   ]

(3) Place of attachment: (a) Urban [   ] (b) Semi Urban [   ] (c) Rural [   ]

(4) Class attached: (a) Lower primary [   ] (b) Upper Primary [   ]

Section B: Activities for Mentees

Kindly read the statements under the headings (i) to (iv) and respond honestly as possible

by ticking [√] in the columns provided against the appropriate options:

SD – Strongly Disagree; D – Disagree; N – Neutral; A – Agree; SA – Strongly Agree;

(i) Level of Agreement or disagreement to the statement in the table

	1	2	3	4	5
	SD	D	N	A	SA
5. Prepare for lesson presentation and delivery					
6. Give exercises to pupils					
7. Mark exercises given to pupils					
8. Given opportunity to manage class					
9. Attend study circle meetings					
10. Work on project work as expected					
11. Involved in co – curricular activities					
12. Provide opportunity to reflect on experiences					
13.Provide opportunity to review partnership experiences					
14. Prepare for teaching with mentors					
15. Link all that have been taught in College with new experiences in school of practice					

Indicate problem areas in (i)

If any

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(ii). Pedagogical Benefits of mentoring to mentees

	1	2	3	4	5
	SD	D	N	A	SA
16. Mentoring provides opportunity to develop new teaching skills and become expert in the teaching field.					
17. Equip individuals to be independent and objective in the way of thinking about issues in the teaching and learning environment.					
18. Enhances confidence in dealing with challenges and issues inside and outside classroom					
19. Have experience on extra-curricular activities in schools.					
20. Enhances networking opportunities					
21. Equips mentee to set own goals and strive towards achieving them.					
22. Provides support during times of change and transition					
23. Able to do multiples of assignment at the same time without struggling					
24. Equip mentees to personally address individual learning needs					
25. Able to use variety of TLMs					
26. Able to blend information collected from curriculum materials and other manuals					

Any other benefit of mentoring? Please

indicate...

....

....

....

(iii)**. Challenges of Mentees**

	1	2	3	4	5
	SD	D	N	A	SA
27. Have problem with lesson presentation and delivery					
28. There is difficulty in accessibility from attachment area to college					
29. Mentors absent themselves frequently from school					
30. Mentors do not set clear and achievable goals					
31. Resources for teaching are not provided					
32. Distance learning materials and manuals are not provided					
33. Electricity is not available in attachment area					
34. Access to Library facilities in attachment area					
35. Some teachers are not prepared to work collaboratively with mentees					

Are the curriculum materials and other manuals mentioned above supplied on time?

Yes/No

If No state those that are not supplied

on..

....

....

(iv). Support and systems formats to help mentees

	SD	D	N	A	SA
36. Professional relationship between mentors and mentees promoted					
37. Have pre-conference meetings with mentees					
38. Have post-conference meetings with mentees					
39. mentors provide help in all subject areas					
40. Mentors are regular and punctual in school to support mentees					
41. The communities ensure that basic facilities needed (water, place of convenience, electricity) are provided.					
43. The school of attachment and the college provide					

149

accommodation for mentees					
44. Curriculum materials and manuals are provided by College and School of attachment					
45. TLMs and Distance learning materials are provided by College and School of attachment					
46. Mentees are given opportunities to lead in other extra-curricular activities in schools.					

Indicate subject areas if any that lack mentors support in 40-45 ------------------------------

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Students interview questions and responses.

When mentees were asked whether they have benefited from the mentoring progamme, these were the responses they gave:

I think mentoring has been very useful to me because my confidence level for teaching has really increased.

<div align="right">

(ment 3)

</div>

I have developed new skills for teaching during this mentoring programme so I think it has been very beneficial to me.

<div align="right">

(ment 1)

</div>

I don't think there has been any new thing because there is no mentor for me to learn from. It is the same old stuff that I knew is what I am practicing.

<div align="right">

(ment 10)

</div>

It has really equip me to set my own goals and strive towards achieving them without any supervisor or instructor

<div align="right">

(ment 7)

</div>

When supervisors were asked whether mentoring has been beneficial these were some of the responses they gave:

I think mentoring has been very beneficial because most of the mentees have improved in their teaching.

<div align="center">

151

</div>

(sup. 2)

The way and manner mentees write lesson plan nowadays have changed. Most of them write notes without difficulty, again their confidence level for teaching and handling students have really increased. I think mentoring has been very beneficial.

(sup. 6)

When mentees were asked whether there were some challenges they face in their internship programme these were some of the responses they gave:

Sometimes I find it difficult to prepare my notes especially if I am blending the syllabus with the other curriculum materials.

(ment 2)

My mentor is not friendly so I find it difficult to go to him if I have any difficulty.

(ment 8)

The relationship between me and my mentor is like a master and a servant so I cannot go to him freely.

(ment 9)

There is no electricity in my area so preparing to come and teach and marking of assignment is very difficult not to talk about our two education courses we will write exams on after our internship.

(ment 4)

152

Travelling almost every afternoon for studies is my big problem. We are always tied after school but still have to attend studies.

(Ment 10)

Curriculum materials are not supplied on time so we have to get our own information before it comes. Meanwhile there is no nearby library for us to do research.

(Ment 7)

When mentees were asked some of the activities they do these are some of the responses they gave:

I mark exercises, attend circle meetings, work on my project work. I am also involved in other curricular activities

I do all the activities my colleague has already mentioned but these activities are not effective because of the frequent absenteeism of mentors.

We are almost involved in all the activities in the school; we mark exercises, prepare lesson notes and teach. I am also involved in all the co-curricular activities in the school. Again we attend circle meetings and also work on our project work, but what bores me is the absenteeism of mentors in the school. Any time our supervisors come to the school unaware our mentors are absent but they informed they will be there. How can we get new experiences and new ways of doing things in the school?

153