The Nigerian Journal of
Sociology and Anthropology

NASA

CONTENTS

THE NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY (NJSA)

Journal of the Nigerian Anthropological and Sociological Association (NASA)

THE NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY (NJSA)

Mentoring in a Nigerian University: An Analysis of Mentor- Protégée Relationship and Benefits

Ifeanyi P. Onyeonoru[1]
Oluchi Okoli-Ikedi[1]
Joshua Onuenyim Nweke[2]
Fred Ahmadu[3]

[1]Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Nigeria

[2]Department of Sociology/Anthropology
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki, Nigeria

[3]Department of Sociology
Covenant University
Ota, Nigeria

Email: Ifyonyes@yahoo.com, Onyeonoru@ui.edu.ng

Abstract
The association of mentoring with "in loco parentis" situates it in institutional growth and development discourse in Nigerian University System. The study examined mentor-protégée relationship and the benefits accruing from the mentorship Programme instituted in the Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan in 2006. A triangulation of research methods was utilized in the collection of data. The mentorship programme was found to be beneficial to the mentees in several aspects of their academic life in spite of mixed bag of mentor-mentee relationships.

Background to the Study

The issue of mentoring is tied to the initiative of "In loco parentis" in Nigerian tertiary institutions. This was gradually lost in practice over the years due to the economic recession and institutional decay of the 1980s and 1990's. The type of mentoring which existed then was however informal in nature.

The Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan in 2006 took the initiative to introduce a quasi-formal mentoring programme to address the yawning mentoring gap – the first of its kind in the University. In the programme, students are randomly allocated to academic staff - based on the alphabetical order of the students' surnames. Neither the sex of students nor that of academic staff is considered in the matching process. All undergraduate students and academic staff are involved in the mentoring programme - irrespective of their statuses and areas of specialization. This is distinct from the allocation of final year students to project supervisors which is based on students' project topic and the area of specialization of the supervisor. As at the time of the study, the Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, is the only Department that has instituted this type of Programme.

Although the establishment of the mentorship programme clearly recognized the need for closer involvement and supervision of students' academic and social life activities in the department, the goals of the Programme were hazy and the staff and students were not formally prepared for the roles required of them in the mentoring process – there was no discriminate allocation of roles.

Statement of the Problem
Mentoring is traditionally referred to as a one-to-one relationship between an older person a (mentor) and a younger one (mentee or protégé). The purpose of mentoring is to improve the chances of the younger one achieving his or her goals, by linking him or her to resources and support not otherwise available. The role of the mentor is to pass on knowledge, experience and judgment, and/or to provide guidance and support to the mentee or protégée. Mentoring can offer psychosocial support for changes in behaviour, attitudes and ambitions.

Various forms of mentoring programs have been popping up in colleges and universities in Nigeria but most of these are informal and hence devoid of regulation. Although there are information that provide guidelines for developing more formal mentoring programmes (Scandura, 1992; Reinarz and White, 2001; Vance and Olson, 1998; Zachary, 2000), universities in Nigeria have rarely utilized these institutionally, while researchers have rarely undertaken evidenced based studies to address the effectiveness of existing mentoring relationships in the academic settings. In the few studies that exist, criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of mentoring programmes are either not reported or not quantifiable. Although the correlation between mentorship and student-lecturer relationship is widely recognized, the pathways of influence responsible for this relationship remain unclear.

Research Methodology
Study Location
The study was carried out in the Department of Sociology, Faculty of the Social Sciences, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Oyo State Nigeria. The department runs both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes but only the undergraduate students are brought under the mentorship programme under study.

Research Approach
A triangulation of research methods was used to obtain data for the study. This involves the collection of primary data through the administration of the questionnaire and In-Depth-Interview (IDI) and Focus Group Discussions (FGD).

Population of Study

All undergraduate students and all Academic Staff of the Department of Sociology at the University of Ibadan constituted the population of this study.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A total remuneration of students from 200- 400 level which is two hundred and fifty-four (254) undergraduate students were utilized as the sample for this study. The exclusion of the 100 level students was due to their lack of experience in the mentoring programme under study. Nine (09) Academic staff were purposively selected for the IDIs. This was based on the key positions they had held or were holding at the time of study such as Head of Department, Chair, Undergraduate Examination Committee, Current or past Examination Officer. A total number of Fourteen (14) mentees (students) were also purposively selected for IDIs. Their selection was based on their past or current leadership of the sociology students on the platform of the Nigerian Sociology and Anthropology Students Association (NSASA). From experience, these student leaders have more than a fair knowledge of student-lecturer relationships including that within the mentorship framework.

Method of Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered on 200 – 400 level students – just before and after the compulsory courses – with the assistance of the class representatives. Additional three weeks were expended on the follow up of students that missed previous classes. The researcher conducted four sessions of FGDs (two males and two females) that constituted of 400 level students (because they had experienced the mentoring programme for about four years). The IDIs were

Research Instrument

The quantitative instrument that was used for this study is the questionnaire. The questionnaire was pre-coded for easy analysis. The questionnaire which was self- administered was used to obtain relevant information from the respondents. Likewise, the qualitative instruments contained questions that tapped in-depth information about the participants and their experience relating to the practice of mentoring in the Department.

The questionnaire had built-in filters as the questions was designed both in open-ended and closed-ended forms. The questionnaire was also designed in line with the standards of New South Wales, guidelines for mentoring and supporting students (Student Welfare Directorate, 2005) and Business guide to youth mentoring - the Connecticut Mentoring Partnership. The questionnaire, the IDI guide and FGD guide, were also designed to obtain relevant data from participants. The instruments were reviewed by experts, pre-tested and adjusted to ensure that the emerging data were valid and reliable.

Procedure for Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Packages for the Social Science) software v15 and Microsoft Excel v2007. The questionnaire was collected and their responses were coded and analysed. Tables and charts were utilised to organise the responses so that the information can be understood at a glance. The IDIs and FGDs were content analysed while relevant verbatim quotations were utilised.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:
1. to investigate if the benefits of the Mentorship Programme to the mentees.
2. to appraise the nature of interaction between mentors and mentees
3. to examine the quality of relationship that existed between the mentor and the mentee.

Review of Relevant Literature

Formal mentoring refers to a structured process supported by the organization and addressed to target populations. A new recruit is assigned a mentor; "real freedom of choice is denied; the chemistry and 'goodness of fit' are left to serendipity". In 2004, Metizo created the first mentoring certification for companies and business schools in order to guarantee the integrity and effectiveness of formal mentoring (Roberts, 2000).

Informal mentoring relationships develop on their own between partners. Youth mentoring programmes assist at-risk children or youths who lack role models and sponsors. In business, formal mentoring is part of talent management addressed to populations such as key employees, newly hired graduates, high potentials and future leaders. The matching of mentor and mentee is often done by a mentoring coordinator or by means of an (online) database registry. Caruso as cited by Roberts (2000) further notes that mentoring should be seen as an open system, that an organization must allow and expect a learner to be mentored by several differing mentors, chosen as the learner sees fit, to satisfy their current requirements.

Instrumental mentoring encompasses teaching, advising, coaching, sponsoring, guiding, advocating, dispensing and sharing resources. These activities have direct and measurable consequences for the protégé. Mentors provide opportunities to the protégé and remove barriers to progress, advancement, or success; for example, opening doors to schools and jobs. Instrumental mentoring can also be protective and reduce risks faced by the protégé. An instrumental mentor serves as a coach and advisor, helping the protégé negotiate the environment. In this relationship, the mentor's effectiveness is based on his or her direct life experiences. In addition, instrumental mentoring can seek to open access to resources; some

programmes have had an affirmative action goal (Flaxman *et al.*, 1988). The mentorship programme in the study reflects element of instrumental mentoring.

Psychosocial mentoring involves role modeling, confirmation, counseling and providing emotional support. The psychosocial mentor role is to change the social circumstances of the protégé, to impact the protégé personally and to serve as a role model to encourage, counsel and support the protégé. The mentoring relationship is based on the formation of trust and emotional attachment. The goal is for the protégé to identify with and imitate the mentor, receive reinforcement for positive behaviours and attitudes, learn how negative and inappropriate behaviours may interfere with emotional growth, and develop educational and work goals.

Mentoring programmes often provide psychosocial mentoring along with direct content teaching as a way of re-socializing the youth. As a practical matter, aspects of instrumental and psychosocial mentoring are often intertwined.

Role models can also be peers, public figures and even media celebrities. The learner can have multiple identifications through direct and vicarious experiences. The frequency and intimacy of interaction affects how much a learner identifies with a mentor. This identification is often transferable to others who share characteristics with the mentor. The mentor's status and prestige can also influence whether the protégé will emulate or match the modeled behaviour.

Types of Mentors
Peyton *et al.* (2000) citing Nykodym, Freedman, Simonetti, Nielson, and Battles (1995), identify several types of mentors found in the business environment:

The information mentor discusses topics in casual situations, provides new information and serves as a teacher. The peer mentor shares interests and information. Peyton *et al.* (2000) notes that in an education context, peer mentors also provide a non-threatening avenue for new students to get support, guidance, and information about the inner workings of their programme or department, and that new students may feel better able to express concerns or ask questions to another student with a similar perspective. The retiree mentor-An individual who is no longer employed with the organization but is experienced in the complexities of that organization. Peyton *et al.* (2000) notes that the retiree mentor may be one of the best sources of knowledge because he /she will know all of the intricacies of an organization and will know the best methods of careers advancement, and can be extremely beneficial in providing information on the operations of the organization based on personal history. The competitor mentor does his/her mentoring through working in a parallel position for a different organization. Competitor mentors can provide support, understanding, and encouragement through knowledge of the problems that are idiosyncratic to that particular position. The grandfather/grandmother mentor is a person with long-standing experience in an organization who mentors new or

inexperienced employees. This can be beneficial to the protégé as the mentor is still employed with the organization.

The equivalent mentor is commonly seen in an education setting which may include more senior students, graduates, work placement supervisors, dedicated learning support staff, tutors, or lecturers who teach on the student's programme or people who work in the industry which the student wishes to join.

Goodyear (2006) identifies that two factors appear to be most important in the decision to mentor. First, a sense of being able to relate to the person, and second, a belief that the person has potentials.

Some mentoring occurs naturally. Sometimes, it is more senior professional who is guiding the young new worker; other times it is an older family friend or neighbor who befriends a child. These relationships are often sustained because sufficient trust is present to offer the promise of rewards. It is common for there to be periods when the mentor, protégé, or both do not see the relationship as going well, when there is tension and frustration. Its continuation is based on the mutual trust and commitment that each person voluntarily brings to the relationship. Also, it is not uncommon for a relationship to naturally end because the protégé has sufficiently mastered the skills and knowledge offered by the mentor, or is in need of resource that the mentor cannot provide.

Planned mentor is more formal and structured, and is bounded by pre-determined objectives for both the mentor and protégé. Formal mentoring relationships are characterized by less intense and less frequent contact and are not generally sustained over long periods of time. The ability of planned mentoring relationships to accomplish their goals is challenged by several factors. First, the basis of the relationship is formal and external, not voluntary. Second, the relationship usually has a defined (often limited) purpose. This type of mentoring relationships is of a limited duration, with specific goals. Thus, communication in planned mentoring relationships is often constrained and limited to the issues that are the focus of the effort. Once both the mentor and protégé gain sufficient experience with one another to form a basis for mutual regard and trust, highly sensitive issues may also be addressed (Powell, 1997).

Academic Mentors

This may involve members of the faculty in learner support programmes (Skillen *et al.*, 1998).

Zachary (2002) argues that teacher mentors increase their potential to enhance student growth and development, help students maximize education experiences, and enrich their own teaching experience and professional development. Mentors often report that they gain exposure to new and diverse perspectives, improve coaching and listening skills, find work more

meaningful and satisfying, acquire desired leadership skills, and often become reengaged professionally. These personal benefits also benefit the organization through a higher skilled and more motivated employee. However, Robert (2000) states that when the mentor is also an assessor on the one hand, they are in a prime position to assess the learner's progress; and also may have access to confidential information provided by the learner that an assessor generally would not know.

Benefits of Academic Mentoring Programme to the Mentee

A well-designed formal mentoring programme will have goals, schedules, training (for both mentors and protégés), and evaluation.

Mentoring is common in tertiary education, particularly in health education (see for example Gray and Smith, 2000; Llyod-Jones, Walters & Akehurst, 2001; Hansford and Ehrich, 2006; Khian, Jui *et al.*, 2008; Okurame, 2008, 2009). Despite a lack of empirical evidence, there is general agreement on the effectiveness of mentoring in achieving positive student outcomes (Quinn, Muldoon & Hollingworth, 2002) and retaining students (Allen *et al.*, 2004). Mentoring may be provided proactively for all students, or remedially for example for all risk and/or minority students as discussed by Ismail *et al.* (2007).

Studies indicate that mentoring has a positive effect on participating youth who entered the programme with lower grade (Portwood, Ayers, Kinnison, Waris and Wise, 2005). Tutoring and mentoring were also found to raise the academic achievement of both the tutors and tutor-mentors, particularly when they themselves were: (1) at-risk; (2) working with younger children in a cross-age tutoring program; and (3) receiving focused and related services, such as mentoring, intensive training or monitoring. Improved self-concept and attitudes towards school were also reported.

Other studies indicate that grades for mentored youth were either affected sporadically (Arubayi, 2010) or not at all (Aseltine, Dupre and Lamlein). More truly, experimental research is needed to understand the direct correlation between mentoring programme participation and grade improvement. A 2001 study of threes school-based mentoring efforts in Florida found that mentored youth (students) were promoted at a higher rate than non-mentored students (Grise, Watters, Baker and Ferguson, 2004). Research indicates that mentoring has a positive impact on grades and other academic indicators by improving the relationship between the youth and the parent and by boosting the youths' perception of their own academic abilities (Rhodes *et al.*, 2000).

Several mentoring studies concluded that mentoring had a positive impact on the number of unexcused absences (Tierney *et al.*, 1995; Aseltine, 2000; Diuliu, 2010). In addition to affecting grades and attendance, mentoring also helps boost student attitudes about school (LoSciuto, Rajala, Townsend and Taylor, 1996; Portwood and Ayres, 2005). It also can have a positive impact on youth's sense of connectedness to school, in which research shows that it leads

to other positive outcomes, including increased academic performance (Simons-Morton, Crump, Haynie and Saylor, 1999, Aladejana *et al.*, 2006).

The impact of mentoring can also be felt in the classroom, not just on tests and attendance sheets. Teachers in one study indicated that mentored youth were less likely to engage in disruptive behaviour and more likely to be engaged in what was going on in the classroom (Blakely *et al.*, 1995). Another study showed mentoring positively impacted disciplinary incidents and supervisions (Grise *et al.*, 2004). Bisk (2002), Friday and Friday (2002), Khian Jui *et al.* (2008) and other researchers at Public/Private Ventures share this view. Researchers urge that greater care be taken when using the term "mentoring". While mentoring does not preclude concrete and practical help, it does presuppose an interpersonal attachment of sufficient intensity or magnitude that some identification can take place between protégé and mentor.

Zachary (2002) argues that "teachers who prepare themselves as mentors increase their potential to enhance student growth and development, help students maximize education experiences, and enrich their own teaching experience and professional development. Mentors often report that they gain exposure to new and diverse perspectives, improve coaching and listening skills, find work more meaningful and satisfying, hone desired leadership skills, and often become reengaged professionally". These personal benefits also benefit the organization through a higher skilled and more motivated employee. Mentoring though common in tertiary education (Gray and Smith, 2000; Lloyd Jones, Walters & Akehurst, 2001 and Cahill, 1996), lacks empirical evidence (Jacobi, 1991) that there is a general agreement on the effectiveness of mentoring in achieving positive student outcomes (Bond, 1999; Quinn, Muldoon & Hollingworth, 2002) and retaining students (Talbert, Larke, & Jones, 1999). Mentoring may be provided proactive for all students, or remedially, for example for at risk and/or minority students.

Peer mentoring can show a positive effect on connectedness to school, teachers and parents (Karcher, 2005; Westerman, 2002). One of Karcher's studies found evidence of positive effects on academic achievement (Karcher *et al.*, 2002). Another study, this one of a combined peer mentoring tutoring efforts, found improvements in test scores, grade point averages, and course pass rates. The mentoring component also improved social integration, as shown in improved attendance and attitudes and decreased disciplinary referrals (Powell, 1997).

Another study addressing peer mentoring for violence prevention showed a positive effect on classroom behaviours (Sheeham *et al.*, 1999). As with adult-to-youth mentoring, an increased connection to parents may be something that leads to academic outcomes. In one peer mentoring study, reading achievement for mentees was influenced by increases in connectedness to parents that was attributable to peer mentors (Karcher *et al.*, 2002). Researchers generally

conclude that mentoring can be effective at improving the overall wellbeing of children and youth (Flaxman *et al.*, 1988).

Mentoring Relationship

According to Goodyear (2006) two factors that appear to be most important in the decision to mentor include sense of being able to relate to the person, and a belief that the person has potential.

Effective mentoring, particularly for highly at-risk youth, was found to require significant levels of intense and long lasting one-to-one relationships. The ability of the mentor to provide the substitute positive adult missing the lives of at-risk children and youth is often a significant challenge. This is in large part because of the frequency and duration of the relationship that is required to override the often significant negative circumstances and influences present in these youth's lives. The evaluation of the Big Brothers/Big Sister program model found mentoring to be successful because the program infrastructure ensures adequate frequency and duration in the mentoring relationship.

Themes that describe key components of an effective mentoring relationship include: open communication and accessibility; goals and challenges; passion and inspiration; caring personal relationship; perceived similarity, mutual respect and trust; exchange of knowledge; independence and

This corroborates existing literature. In the landmark, Big Brothers Big Sisters Impact Study, some groups of mentored youth were shown to have modest improvement in grades compared to a non-mentored control group (Tierney and Grossman, 1995). Another study found that mentoring had a positive effect on participating youth who entered the program with lower grade (Portwood, Ayers, Kinnison, Waris and Wise, 2005). Other research studies indicated that grades for mentored youth were either affected sporadically (Blackely, Menon and Jones, 1995, Arubayi, 2010) or not at all (Aseltine, Dupre and Lamlein, 2000; Beatty *et al.*, 2010). Research also indicates that mentoring has a positive impact on grades and other academic indicators by improving the relationship between the youth and the parent and by boosting the youths' perception of their own academic abilities (Rhodes and Grossman, 2000).

In addition to affecting grades and attendance, mentoring also helps boost student attitudes about school (LoSciuto *et al.*, 1996; Portwood and Ayres, 2005). It also can have a positive impact on youth's sense of connectedness to school, which research shows leads to other positive outcomes, including increased academic performance (Simons-Morton, Crump, Haynie and Saylor, 1999; Aladejana *et al.*, 2006). The students that claimed not have benefited from mentoring could be traced to the relationship they have with their mentors ıs indicated below. Some of them would probably be the ones that do not attach importance to mentoring or have a strained relationship with their mentors.
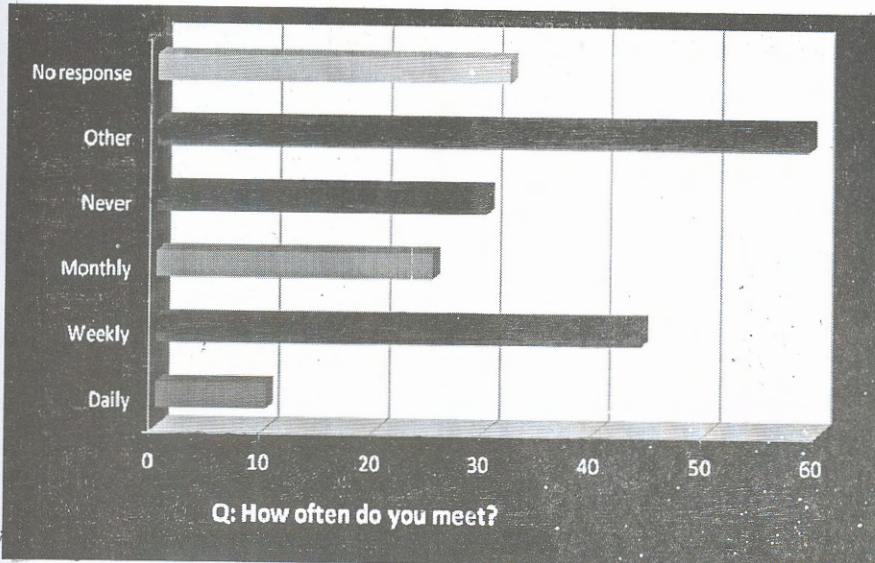
No response, Other, Never, Monthly, Weekly, Daily
Source: Authors' fieldwork
Fig. 2: Frequency of interaction between mentor and protégée

Fig. 2 above shows that 10(5.0%) respondents met with their mentors daily and 44 respondents representing 22% of the total respondents met with their mentors weekly. Also, 25(12.5%) respondents responded that they met with their mentors monthly while 30 respondents representing 15% of the total respondents affirmed that they had never met with their mentors. Finally, the result above shows that the majority 59(29.5%) respondents met with their mentors outside the regular times of monthly, weekly or daily. There was no response from 32 respondents representing 16% of the total respondents.

Going by the mentoring expectation in mentor-mentee interaction of an averaging twice a month, it is obvious that majority of the students do not meet with their mentors regularly. The students who indicated that they had never met with their mentors could be those that feel independent of the mentors, or those who do not appreciate the importance or benefits of mentoring (***).

An overwhelming number of students met their mentors at irregular times, perhaps when the mentee had issues. This is however not healthy for an effective mentoring relationship.
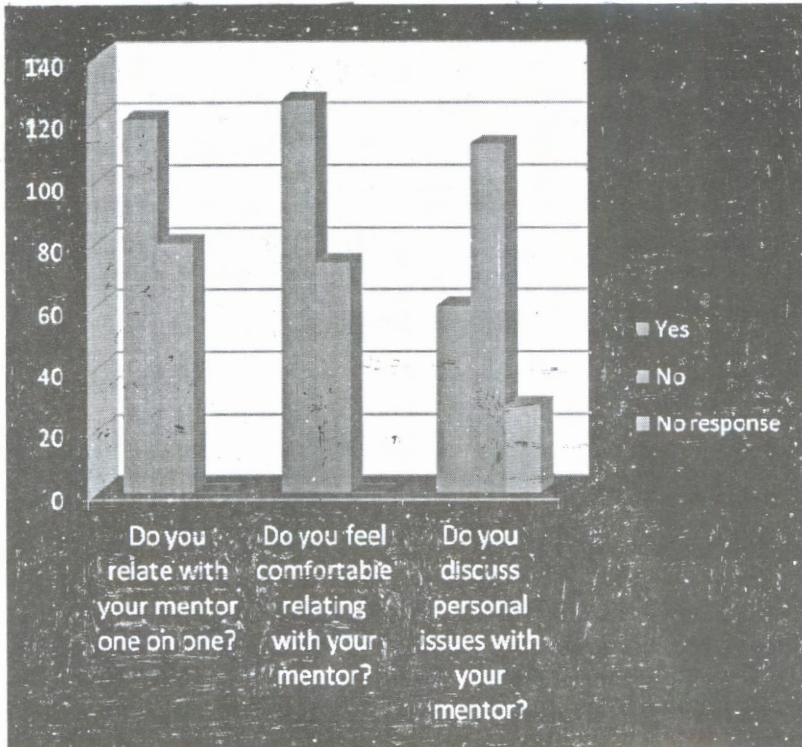
Do you relate with your mentor one on one
Do you feel comfortable relating with your mentor?
Do you discuss personal issues with your mentor?
Source: Author' fieldwork
Fig. 3: Relationship between mentor and protégée

A total of 120(60%) respondents agreed that they related with their mentor one on one while 80 respondents representing 40.0% of the total stated that they did not relate with their mentor one on one. Also, 126(63%) respondents agreed that they felt comfortable relating with their mentor while 74 respondents representing 37.0% of the total responded otherwise. Finally, 60(30%) of respondents agreed that they discussed personal issues with their mentors while 112 respondents representing 56% of the total respondents responded to the contrary. Twenty-eight (28) respondents did not respond to the question. The result shows that majority of the respondents do not discuss personal issues with their mentors.

From the responses, while majority of the students related with their mentors one on one and are comfortable, they seem not to be free discussing personal issues with their mentors probably as a result of hierarchical gap between the students and their mentors.

The focus group discussion with students also had similar responses on their relationship with their mentors:

> We discuss only academic matters and he gives me advice where necessary, but discussing personal issues is a no go area. We are not that close and I can't be comfortable with him. *(Female/FGD/400 level)*

> Ehmmmm my mentor! We relate very well, not just on academic but my accommodation, feeding, family and all that. He is Even the one that brings up such questions and I'm always shy to talk about it. *(Female/FGD/400 level)*

> Nooooooo, my mentor is a man, I can't tell him such things. *(Female/FGD/400)*

> I don't tell him because I don't think he can help, so why disturb myself. Our scope of talk is academic advice. *(Male/FGD/400 level)*

From the indepth interview with lecturers, most of them affirmed that they have good relationships with their mentees. For instance,

> well we have a cordial relationship, in terms of academics, morals and social aspects. Mentees come to identify with me as their mentor, and I try as much as possible to make my door open to them. They borrow textbooks, sometimes when they are given assignment, they come to get explanations, how to answer questions. *(Male/IDI/400 level)*

> at least I meet with one or two of my mentees every week. Once they are assigned to me, I try to know who they are, their background, what their parents do and how it might affect their grades, educational focus e.t.c. I go through their transcript and build on their weaknesses and to me, this forms the basis of our relationship. *(Male/IDI/lecturer)*

From the above the relationship between the mentors and mentees seems to be a mixed bag. Literature indicate that developmentally, mentoring can promote social bonding and a sense of belonging that will broadly speaking, help youth to develop stronger connectedness to self, others, and society (Karcher, 2005). "In the context of the school environment, a sense of connectedness can benefit children both academically and socially" (Portwood and Ayers, 2005: 338). For instance, mentoring affects a youth's academic performance through: (a) improving relationships between the youth and the parents (b) boosting youth's perception of his own academic abilities (c) reducing unexcused absences among others.

Without strong relationships, programs will not see desired results; thus, the mentor's main role in supporting academic success is building a supportive friendship with the mentee. In their study of relationship development in Big Brothers Big Sisters programs, Morrow and Styles (1995) found that "... once their (matches') relationships were crystallized, nearly three-quarters of developmental volunteers were successful in involving youth in conversations or activities that targeted such key areas of youth development as academic performance and classroom behaviour". These were the matches that proved most successful.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The mentorship Programme of the University of Ibadan has been beneficial to the student mentee, particularly in the aspect of their academics. However, the interactive opportunities between mentors and mentees were observed to be inadequate. The relationship between the mentors and mentees was also found to be a mixes bag - not close enough as the structure remains prescriptive.

It is therefore recommended that academic mentoring should be structured around a developmental relationship. There is therefore need for the mentorship Programme to advance from its prescriptive model to a developmental model for a more effective mentoring. Also, regular and frequent contact over the period of the mentoring relationship is very important. Lecturer mentors and student mentees need to be trained in terms of their roles and responsibilities in the process. More electronic forms of interaction need to be introduced to bridge the interaction gap.

References

Aladejana, A., Aladejana, F. and Ehindero, S. (2006) An analysis of mentoring relationships among teachers: A case study of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-ife, Nigeria, *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 4(1): 20–30.

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T., Poteet, M.L., Lentz, E. and Lima, L. (2004) Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89: 127-249.

Arubayi, E. (2010) Strengthening and refocusing education in Nigeria. Keynote Address at University of Benin International Conference.

Aseltine, R.H., Dupre, M. and Lamlein, P. (2000) Mentoring as a drug prevention strategy: An evaluation of Across Ages. Adolescent and Family Health, 1(1): 11 -20. August 2, 2005, from http://www.library.ca.gov /CRB/97/notes/4ns.pdf.

Bisk, L. (2002) Formal entrepreneurial mentoring: the efficacy of third party managed programs, *Career Development International,* 7(5): 262-270.

Blakely, C.H., Menon, R. and Jones, D.J. (1995) Project BELONG: Final Report. College Station, TX: Texas A&M University, Public Policy Research Institute.

Bond, A. (1999) Student mentoring: promoting high achievement and low attrition in education and training. Leabrook, South Australia National Centre for Vocational Education Research.

Cahill, H. (1996) A qualitative analysis of student nurses' experiences of mentorship. *Journal of Advance Nursing*, 24: 791–799.

Diuliu, N. (2010) Career changing roles of professors. Princeton University: Current Stories.

Flaxman, E., Ascher, C. and Harrington, C. (1988) Youth Mentoring: Programs and Practices. New York: ERIC clearinghouse on Urban Education at Columbia University.

Friday, E. and Friday, S.S. (2002) Formal mentoring: Is there a strategic fit? *Management Decision*, 40(2): 152-157.

Goodyear, M. (2006) Mentoring: A Learning Collaboration. EDUCAUSE Quarterly, 29(4).

Gray, M. and Smith, L. (2000) The qualities of an effective mentor from the student nurse's perspective: findings from a longitudinal qualitative study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 32(6): 1542-1549.

Grise, P., Watters, K., Baker, K. and Ferguson, K. (2004) Mentoring in Florida: 2001-2002. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, Communications Department. Retrieved August 1, 2005, from http://grise. comm.fsu.edu/Research/Year%202_fianl%20report.pdf.

Hansford, B., Tennent, L. and Ehrich, L. (2003) *Educational mentoring: Is it worth the effort? Educational Research & Perspectives*, 30(1): 42-75.

Ismaii, A., Abubakar, R., Abg Abdullahi, S.N.M., Maja, A., Guatleng, C.O. and Abdullahi, M.M. (2007) Peranan Program Mentoring Dalam Pembangunan Pelajar: Satu Kajian Di Sebuah Universiti Awam Di Malaysia Timur. This paper was published in the proceeding of ASEMAL5, 18-19 August 2007.

Karcher, M.J. (2005) Cross-age peer mentoring. In D.L. DuBois and M.J. Karcher (Eds.), Handbook of youth mentoring, pp. 266-285. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Karcher, M.J., Davis, C.III. and Powell, B. (2002) The effects of development mentoring on connectedness and academic achievement. *School Community Journal*, 12(2): 35 -50.

Khian Jui, M.K. (2008) The relationship between mentoring types and individuals' advancement: Gender differences in mentorship as a moderator. Unpublished Final Year Project Report. Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, Malaysia.

Lloyd-Jones, M., Walters, S. and Akehurst, R. (2001) The implications of contact with the mentor for preregistration nursing and midwifery students. *Issues and Innovations in Nursing and Education*, 35(2):151-160.

LoSciuto, L., Rajala, A.K., Townsend, T.N. and Taylor, A.S. (1996) An outcome evaluation of Across Ages: An intergenerational mentoring

approach to drug prevention. *Journal of Adolescent Research.* 11(1): 116-129.

Okurame, D.E. (2008) Mentoring and preferences: A diagnostic survey for equal mentoring opportunity. *Equal Opportunities International,* 27(6): 342-371.

Okurame, D.E. (2009) Mentoring and organizational constraints as predictors of attitude to work in the Nigerian public health sector. *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration,* 32(3): 342-371.

Peyton, A.L., Morton, M., Perkins, M.E. and Doughterty, L. (2000) Mentoring in gerontology education: New graduate student perspectives. Educational Gerontology, 27: 347-359.

Portwood, S.G., Ayers, P.M., Kinnison, K.E., Waris, R.G. and Wise, D.L. (2005) Youth Friends: Outcomes for a school-based mentoring program. *Journal of Primary Prevention,* 26(2): 129-188.

Powell, M.A. (1997) "Peer Tutoring and Mentoring Services for Disadvantaged Secondary School Students", CRB Note 4, no. 2, California Research Bureau, California Sate Library, Sacramento, California.

Quinn, F., Muldoon, R. and Hollingworth, A. (2002) Formal Academic Mentoring: a pilot scheme for first year science students at a regional university. Mentoring & Tutoring, 10(1): 21-33.

Reinarz, A.G. and White, E.R. (eds.) (2001) Beyond Teaching to Mentoring. Indianapolis, IN: Wiley/Pfeiffer.

Rhodes, J.E., Grossman, J.B. and Rensch, N.R. (2000) Agents of change: pathways through which mentoring relationships influence adolescent's academic adjustment. *Child Development,* 71: 1662 –1671.

Rhodes, J.E. (2005) A model of youth mentoring. In D.L. DuBois and M.J. Karcher (Eds.), The handbook of youth mentoring, pp. 30-43. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Roberts, A. (2000) Mentoring Revisited: a phenomenological reading of the literature Mentoring and Tutoring, 8(2): 145–167.

Scandura, T.A. (1992) Mentorship and career mobility: an empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour,* 3(2): 69-174.

Sheehan, M., Barker, M. and Rayner, C. (1999) "Applying strategies for dealing with workplace bullying". *International Journal of Manpower,* 20(1/2).

Simons-Morton, B.G., Crump, A.D., Haynie, D.L. and Saylor, K.E. (1999) Student school bonding and adolescent problem behavior. Health Education Research, 14(1): 99–107.

Skillen, J., Merten, M., Trivett, N. and Percy, A. (1998) The ideal approach to learning development: a model for fostering improved literacy and learning outcomes for students. Accessed February 2, 2008.

Talbert, B., Larke, A. and Jones, W. (1999) Using a student organization to increase participation and success of minorities in agricultural disciplines. *Peabody Journal of Education,* 74: 90–104.

Tierney, J.P. and Grossman, J.B. (with Resch, N.L.) (1995) *Making a difference: An impact study of Big Brothers/Big Sisters.* Philadelphia, PA: Public/Private Ventures. Retrieved August 2, 2005, from http://wwvv.ppv.-Org/ppv/publications/assets/l11publication.pdf.

Vance, C. and Olson, R.K. (eds.) (1998). The Mentor Connection in Nursing. New York: Springer.

Westerman, J.J. (2002) Mentoring and cross-age mentoring: Improving academic achievement through a unique partnership (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kentucky, 2002). *Dissertation Abstracts International!* 63(3): 864.

Zachary, L.J. (2000) The Mentors Guide: Facilitating Effective Learning Relationships. Indianapolis, IN: Wiley/Pfeiffer.

Zachary, L.J. (2002) The Role of Teacher as Mentor. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education,* (Spring 2002), 93: 27-38.