MENTORING: A KEY ISSUE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

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MENTORING: A Key Issue in Human ResourceManagement

Edited

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CONTENTS

Acknowledgement v
Preface xi
Foreword xvii

SECTION ONE – MENTORING

Chapter 1 MENTORING: DOES IT WORK? **-Adeboye Titus Ayinde** 1

Chapter 2 THE PASSIONATE CONNECTION: THE MENTOR'S GREATEST GIFT **-S.A.Adeyanju** 16

Chapter 3 MENTORING AND DIVERSITY **-Erhabor S. Idemudia** 30

Chapter 4 MENTORING IN THE NIGERIAN CONTEXT **-David E. Okurame** 37

Chapter 5 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF MENTORING **-Shyngle K. Balogun and David E Okurame** 61

SECTION TWO – MENTORING AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Chapter 6 MENTORING: A KEY ISSUE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT **-Tosin David** 74

Chapter 7 MENTORING: AN EMERGING

TREND IN THE FOREFRONT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
-Bola Bilesanmi 92

Chapter 8 MENTORSHIP AS A TOOL FOR HUMAN RESOURCES: LOCAL GOVERNMENT EXPERIENCE
-Bala Haliru and **Bala Umar Kabir** 104

SECTION THREE – THE PROTÉGÉ

Chapter 9 FOR THE PROTÉGÉ: GROWING UP MEANS STEPPING OUT
-Olusola I. Akinbobola 112

Chapter 10 MENTORING RELATIONSHIP: A PROTÉGÉ EXPERIENCE
-Adesina Abimbola Akanni 121

Chapter 11 DOES MENTORING MATTER? FOR THE PROTÉGÉ: GETTING YOUR FEET WET WITHOUT WORRYING ABOUT DROWNING
-Kehinde Ojewunmi 130

SECTION FOUR – MENTORING YOUTHS

Chapter 12 UNDERSTANDING HUMAN RESOURCE DIVERSITY AMONG NIGERIAN YOUTHS
-Mary Basil Nwoke 145

Chapter13 MENTORING YOUTHS: KEY TO UNLOCKING THE FUTURE
-Johnson Abbaly 157

SECTION FIVE – WORKPLACE MENTORING

Chapter 14 WORKPLACE MENTORING: LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACHES
-Oluwatoyin Olatundun Ilesanmi 170

Chapter 15 MENTORING AND LEADERSHIP SUCCESSION IN INDUSTRIES AND ORGANIZATIONS
-Odunayo Arogundade 181

Chapter 16 HOW DOES MENTORING WORK IN ACADEMIC SETTING?
-Gbenga Olasupo 188

Chapter 17 MENTORING IN THE WORKPLACE: A CASE STUDY OF THE ACADEMIC SETING.
-Femi Ilevbare 198

Chapter 18 MENTORS AND MENTORING AMONSGT ACADEMIC STAFF IN NIGERIAN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS: A STUDY OF UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, EDO STATE.
C. E. Ofovwe *and* K. A. Agbontaen-Eghafona 208

Chapter 19 THE UP-COMING PSYCHOLOGISTS NEED MENTORS
-Dinah Baah-Oddom 233

Chapter 20 MENTORING UPCOMING SOCIAL WORKERS IN NIGERIA
-Ifeyinwa Mbakogu 252

Chapter 21 KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL TRAINING: THE AUTO-ARTISANS' EXPERIENCE
-Koawo Edjah 269

Chapter 22 MENTORING IN TOURISM: AN EVALUATION
-Titilayo O. Olukole 282

Chapter 23 MENTORING AND THE WORK RELATED OUTCOME CONSTRUCTS: A CONCEPTUAL OVERVIEW
-Abayomi A. Okediji, A. O. U. Nnedum *and* Enwongo A. Okediji 289

SECTION SIX – MENTORING AND RELIGION

Chapter 2 4 MENTORING AND MENTEE/PROTÉGÉ AS A KEY ISSUE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: AN ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE
-Bala Haliru 319

Chapter 25 THE CHRISTIAN PERSPECTIVE ON MENTOR-PROTÉGÉ
-Ajibola Falaye *and* David Adebayo Oluwole 332

SECTION SEVEN – MENTORING IN ORGANIZATIONS

Chapter 26 MENTORING: A FACTOR FOR ORGANISATIIONAL MANAGEMENT
-A. O. Ojedokun 342

Chapter 27 MANAGERS AS MENTORS IN FORMAL ORGANISATIONS
-Julie Akpotor

Chapter 28 ENHANCING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE THROUGH

EFFECTIVE MENTORING
-Sunday Adeyemi 360

Chapter 29 AN EVALUATION OF MENTORING IN ORGANIZATIONS: NIGERIAN PECULIARITIES
-Olufemi Lawal 374

Chapter 30 MENTORING AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
-Benjamin Osayawe Ehigie, Glory Okokon Okang *and* Felix Osa Ibode 393

Chapter 31 MENTORING: AN HUMAN RESOURCE TOOL FOR ACHIEVING ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS
- Sola Fajana *and* Mariam Gbajumo-Sheriff 416

SECTION EIGHT – MENTORING AND GENDER

Chapter 32 MENTORING WOMEN IN ORGANIZATIONS FOR CHANGE AND CONTINUITY: A FEMINIST INTERVENTION
-Chioma Obi 441

Chapter 33 PERSONALITY AND GENDER TYPE AS FACTORS IN MENTOR-PROTÉGÉ RELATIONSHIP: A PSYCHOLOGIST'S INSIGHT
-Olukayode Ayooluwa Afolabi 456

SECTION NINE – MENTORING IN PRECARIOUS SITUATIONS

Chapter 34 MENTORING IN THE PRECARIOUS CONDITIONS OF THE TRANS ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE AND

RESETTLEMENT: THE CASE OF THE AFRICAN BRAZILIANS IN LAGOS, NIGERIA
-Alaba Simpson and Amos Olutunde Abisoye 477

SECTION TEN – MEASURING MENTORING

Chapters 35 CAN MENTORING QUALITIES BE MEASURED?
- A. A. Olowu 485

MENTORING AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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CHAPTER OBJECTIVES:

At the end of this chapter one should be able to understand;

- The importance of mentoring in organizations
- Mentoring and organizational culture
- Difference between mentoring and coaching
- Mentoring and gender differences
- Mentoring and leadership
- Process of Mentoring
- Mentoring and the Nigeria factor

Introduction

Managing human resource is one of the most difficult task facing employers; whether managing a little team or a large group of grown-ups. Managing is an involved responsibility that requires healthy doses of patience, foresight and, above all, empathy and appreciation of individual personalities and people's unique and varying abilities. Successful managing is, in fact, an art. In contemporary times, managers have to fully understand the depth and breadth of human behaviour, if they seriously hope to secure peak performance. A one-size-fit-all approach to managing people just does not work anymore.

To maximise performance of employees, organizational management has to determine what makes each and every one of them tick, and locate the keys that unlock their drive to succeed. The only way this amusing discovery can be made is by closely working with every subordinate on an individual basis. From the many on the team, a team leader can achieve one satisfying result, if he/she always remembers to faithfully tend to each member's essential role in contributing to the final product, whatever that may be. This is precisely where mentoring comes in.

The word "mentor" is derived from Homer's Odyssey. Odysseus before going off to battle the Trojans turns his only son, Telemachus, over to his friend, the wise and sensitive Mentor, to tutor him on how to be king and guide him in the ways of the world. The boy is, thus, "mentored" by a Mentor. A mentor can thus be defined as a teacher, guide, sage who continually seeks to expand the knowledge base and skill levels of the protégé (Bell, 2002). Muchinsky (2003) sees a mentor as an older and more experienced person who helps to professionally develop and train a less experienced person. On the other hand, a protégé is a younger and less experienced person who is helped and developed in job training by a more experienced person.

Mentoring, at its simplest, can best be defined as the act of helping another to learn. It is an informal relationship with the primary outcome being the growth of the subordinate (the protégé) in the relationship. Fundamentally, the aim of mentoring is to nurture. Mentoring affects many aspects of organizational behaviour including: leadership, organizational culture, job satisfaction and performance. Mentoring is a phenomenon that appears in almost every corporation.

In an organizational context, mentoring is often viewed as a method of training and development program that can be used to increase group and/or individuals' potentials to carry out particular duties and responsibilities, familiarize with new techniques, and care for all aspects of mentees (Hanford & Ehrich, 2006; Johnson, Geroy, & Griego, 1991; Long, 2002). Mentoring models have been designed and administered based on differences and uniqueness of an organization in terms of beliefs, orientations, stress, strength and weaknesses These factors affect the implementation of mentoring type; whether formal and/or informal mentoring activities, in organizations (Chao , Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Murray, 1991; Ragins & Cotton, 1993, 1999).

An informal mentoring develops spontaneously, while a formal mentoring relationship is formed through a planned matching of mentors and protégés by the organization (Ragins & cotton, 1999). Formal mentoring program is often viewed as the structured and coordinated relationship between mentor and mentee (protégé), using standard norms, continuous action plans, time frame, and particular objectives (Bahniuk & Hill, 1998; Hansford, Tennent, & Ehrich 2003; Noe. Greenberger, & Wang, 2002). Specifically, this mentoring program has salient characteristics: first, mentor is defined as a more knowledgeable and experienced person (e.g., senior staff) whereas mentee is defined as a less knowledgeable and experienced person (e.g., junior staff) (Kram, 1985; Dreher & Cox, 1996; Noe, Greenberger, & Wang, 2002). Second, mentors should act as role models, to teach, sponsor, encourage, counsel, and befriend mentees in order to increase individual's new knowledge, update skills and encourage positive attitudes (Anderson & Shannon, 1988; Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Third, they are regularly assigned to encourage group and/or individual activities within a defined period of time (Ritchie & Connolly, 1993; Ritchie & Genoni, 1999).

Conversely, informal mentoring is often seen as the process and systems of relationship between mentors and mentees to achieve specific demands; this could be spontaneous and adhoc. This mentoring program is widely implemented to complement and strengthen formal mentoring programs (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Ragins, 1997, 1999). If both mentoring programs are properly managed they may lead employees to achieve organizational strategies and goals (Friday & Friday, 2002; Irving, Moore, & Hamilton, 2003; Ismail, Abu Bakar, Abdullah, Maja, Guatleng, & Abdullah, 2007; Lindenberger & Zachary, 1999).

Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992) demonstrated that informal mentoring programs (e.g. a senior-level and a junior-level manager share similar goals and values) produced more career-related support for the protégé than formal mentoring programs. Ragins and Cotton (1999) are of the opinion that problems such as personality conflicts and lack of mentor commitment are more likely to occur with assigned mentors than with informal mentors unless the assigned mentors are carefully selected and trained.

States of Mentor Relationship

Hunt and Michael (1983) identified four states of the mentor relationship.

1. Initiation Phase: The more powerful and professionally recognised mentor recognises the apprentice as a protégé.
2. Protégé Phase: The apprentice's work is recognised not for its won merit but as the by-product of the mentor's instruction, support, and advice.
3. Breakup Stage: The protégé goes off on his or her own. If the mentor-protégé relationship has not been successful, this is the final stage.
4. Lasting-friendship stage: If the third stage has been successful, however, both parties continue on to this stage. Here the mentor and the protégé have more of a peer relationship. The protégé may become a mentor but does not sever ties with the former mentor.

There are two major dimensions to the mentoring relationship (Noe, 1988). One is psychosocial, where the mentor serves as a role model who provides counselling, acceptance, and coaching. The other dimension is job related, where the mentor provides exposure and visibility, sponsorship, and challenging assignments to augment the protégé's career.

The relationship between mentor and protégé usually develops informally and spontaneously. However, it is possible to encourage the process by formalising it through an organizational structure in a formal process. In some mentoring programs, an individual is assigned to a mentor. The mentor is expected to participate in the socialization and development of the junior employee. In other formalized programs, the arrangement is made with a softer touch and is meant to facilitate the development of relationships. Few studies show that formalized mentoring yields the same benefits as informally established relationships. Although protégés in formalized mentorships receive psychosocial benefits, the extent of career-related benefits appears quite limited (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Seibert, 1999).

Difference between Mentoring and Coaching

The words coach and mentor have been overused that they have lost their original meaning and preciseness. These two descriptive appellations do not mean the same thing, even though they are used interchangeably on many occasions. Although, there are many similarities, they are not identical. Actually, one of the skill sets within coaching is mentoring. Many coaches are also mentors to their employees. That is why the duo of coaching and mentoring often stand side by side in book titles, in management seminars, and in training video workshops. The terms are inextricably linked and for very good reasons. Mentoring is a more informal and open-ended relationship than is coaching.

Coaching is the process by which supervisors provide subordinates with advice and information about current performance and discuss ideas and goals for improving that performance (Whetten & Cameron, 2002). It is a training and motivation technique used to improve performance (Levy, 2006). Coaching is a part of a leadership role, specifically aimed at nurturing and sustaining performance (Ehigie, 2003). Mentoring is that part of a leadership role that has learning (competence, proficiency, skill, know-how wisdom) as its primary outcome. Both coaches and mentors are bound by a common desire to enlarge human possibilities by carefully guiding people and encouraging them to better themselves in an atmosphere of incessant learning. There are many differences between coaches and mentors. The most overt variant is that, in most instances coaching is a paying job, whereas mentoring is a voluntary setup. If you delve deeper, you will find out that mentoring is quiet distinct from coaching in some of its practices.

Coaching involves building an individual's personal cross-disciplinary skills , while mentoring is more job-specific person-to-person teaching. Coaching entails helping clients to apply themselves personally in new ways, while mentoring entails helping clients to learn functions they have never done before. Coaching involves give and take approach to learning and also requires a lot of listening, but mentoring involves the passing along of one person's knowledge to another.

Mentoring and Organizational culture

In any organization, mentoring can provide a framework that embodies the core organizational values that best promote desired organizational behaviour. More specifically, mentoring can promote socialization, education, leadership and time for fruition. The process of mentoring can be directly linked to the cultivation of norms and values in an organization. The informal influence that emanates from a mentor relationship has a tremendous effect on the behaviour practised in the organization. It can also have a positive impact on organizational culture. The challenge then is to establish a mentoring of purpose and fulfilment for individuals, groups, and the whole organization. Mentoring in this regard is akin to dynamic leadership; a useful tool for achieving a desired organizational culture.

The benefits of mentoring to an organization can be seen in its effects on corporate culture, including improved job performance, early socialization of new employees, clearer managerial succession, preparation of leaders, improved motivation, better exposure to ideas, and improved employee loyalty. Wilson and Elman (1990) describe the process of mentoring as a medium for organizational benefits which includes the transmission of corporate culture. As they state: The subject of "mentoring" has often been discussed, along with the benefits that they accrue to the protégé and mentor. However, the benefits that accrue to the organization that encourages mentoring within its ranks are referred to less often. The accrued benefits to the organization are more related to the long-term health of the organization as a social system. Moreover, mentoring can provide more practical, but subtle translations of current culture. It can also be utilized for the differentiation, translation and modification of organizational culture, as well as serve as a vehicle for fostering innovation in the organization.

Mentoring and Leadership

Traditionally, mentoring has been seen as the act of grooming future leaders by the current leaders (mentors); the mentors (current leaders) providing the ways and means of moving ahead or up the ladder of success. The fact that the relationship between mentoring and leadership is closely aligned, it becomes obvious that mentors must behave in certain ways as leaders: when they shape values; act as an example; and define meanings (Gladstone, 1988). Intuitively, the similarities seem obvious; the differences somewhat confusing. Perhaps it is a simply a question of numbers. Leadership involves one leader and generally more than one follower, whereas mentorship involves one mentor and one protégé. On the other hand the differences could be very complex. Possibly leadership is more formal and overt, and mentorship is more restrained.

Warren Bennis, in his leadership philosophy, coined the phrase "managers do things right, leaders do the right thing" (Crainer, 1988). Bennis' leadership concept presents leadership as a personnel development tactic rather than the defensive posture of avoiding wrong (Westfall, 1992). To Bennis, leaders prepare their people, develop them, challenge them, encourage them, and touch them with their vision and the passion for that vision (Westfall, 1992). In much the same way, mentors prepare their protégés: Mentors are trusted counsellors or guides who provide direction toward a line of thought or inclination – developing personal concern and responsibility in assisting others (Gladstone, 1998). The similarity between these statements clearly exemplifies the similarity between leaders and mentors. The two definitions are almost interchangeable. The only intuitive difference being the more direct approach adopted by leaders compared with a more indirect guiding/assisting approach used by mentors.

Another example of a unique leadership approach that closely parallels mentoring is the concept of "Total Quality Management" (Darling, 1992). Darling opines that the underpinning of quality management is the development of good people and good people appear to be developed through mentoring. It is important to realise the role mentoring plays in the development of Chief Executive Officers (CEO) and presidents. The traditional take-charge president will have to become the innovator, a team builder, and a mentor (McCanus, 1990). Droste (1990) highlights the utility of networking groups for CEOs, by arguing that networking groups provide a good opportunity to mentor talented individuals. Hence, it is the responsibility of every top executive to assist and groom the next generation of leaders. It is needful to strengthen interpersonal skills and focus on developing people, hence, the personality of leader becomes a thing of importance in mentoring (see Ehigie & Akpan, 2005). According to McCanus (1990), leaders will need a leadership style that allows them to create a vision of where the organization is trying to go and to present this in a way that is meaningful and can be supported by the staff. Leadership style is also implicated in the practice of TQM (Ehigie & Akpan, 2004). This seems to indicate the duality of mentoring and leadership; mentors are leaders, and leaders are mentors. Good leaders act as mentors on a one-to-one basis. Mentoring can then produce good leaders, and the leaders will act as mentors for the next generation. It is possible that the mentoring/leadership process is cyclical from generation to generation. Mentors produce leaders, leaders become mentors, and the cycle repeats itself.

However, Eby (1997) reported that mentors can be at either the same organization level or at a higher organizational level than the protégé. Also, the mentor can give the protégé guidance on the development of job skills or career skills. Eby found that mentoring was particularly helpful in getting individuals to adapt to rapidly changing organizational conditions.

Mentoring and Gender Differences

Gender differences and mentoring is one of the most controversial contemporary organizational behaviour subjects. Traditionally, mentoring was and has been a male-dominated phenomenon. But more recently, especially in developed nations, women have begun initiating mentoring relationships. Cross gender mentoring provides its own unique problems in the Nigerian context with cultural norms and the lack of corporate policies discouraging sexual discriminations in organizations limiting the success of such mentoring.

The barriers females face in acquiring mentors appears to be interpersonal and organizational in nature (Ragins & Cotton, 1991), while others seems to be psychosocial (see Ehigie & Umoren, 2003). In their study, Ragins and Cotton discovered that although women perceived more barriers to gaining a mentor than men, there was no difference with intention to take an assertive role in initiating mentoring relationships. Furthermore their results suggest that women become more assertive in order to overcome the perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. They also noted that the role of mentor is still dominated by males.

The socio-biological theory on mentoring and gender postulate that mentor-protégé relationship can be conceptualized within the context of biological dimorphism with sex roles reflecting different reproductive strategies that evolved by natural selection (Bushardt, 1991). The socio-biological theory suggests that we form relationships with people who we feel will be best for the survival of our genes, men select women who are fertile, and women pick men who are able to provide for a child, as well as fertility. Based on the biological goals of men and women, it is argued that men developed aggressive and competitive behaviours; whereas, women developed nurturing and supportive tendencies.

This theory simply matches mentors with predominantly masculine sex-role behaviour, and protégés with predominantly feminine sex-role behaviour. In other words, this theory supports the view by Ragins and Cotton that males dominate the role of mentor. This biological perspective may further define cross-gender mentoring as portrayed as a heterosexual theme whereas matched-gender mentoring could even portray a "latent" homosexual theme. These sex themes emerge because "sex roles and gender are aligned" (Bushardt, 1991). Another parallel between this socio-biological theory and Ragins and Cottons' study, is the obvious "barrier defying" attraction between female protégés and their male mentors.

Hence, socio-biology should play an important role in the developme a theoretical framework for understanding mentor-protégé relations and the impact of gender" (Bushardt, 1991).

It follows from this biological perspective, that there are ce implications for women when considering mentoring in organizati These implications are female specific. There are two issues specifi mentoring: access to information networks, and the norms regar cross-gender relationships. In order words, having access to "to old networks" and dealing with cultural barriers and expectations. Probl that arise in managing cross gender mentoring in the workplace incl sexual attraction, marital disruption, and damaging gossip. The solutio these potential problems can be stated in one word: communicati Burke and McKeen, (1990) advocates open discussions in the workpl and making discussion of cross-gender mentoring "an explicit part of process.

Studies (e.g. Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) have shown that across-gen protégés were less likely than same-gender protégés to report engagin after-work social activities with their mentors. Compared with ot gender combinations, female protégés with female mentors are m likely to agree with the idea that their mentors served a role-mo function. Ragins and Cotton (1991) reported that women were m likely than men to report restricted access to mentors, probably beca initiating a relationship with a mentor might be misinterpreted as a sex advance. However, Muchinsky (2003) opined that women may be m likely than men to pursue peer relationships to facilitate their car development.

Kram and Isabella (1985) described how peer relationships are import for mentoring. Three types of peers were identified: one is the informati peer, who is a person with whom information about work in t organization could be exchanged. With such person, there is low level disclosure and trust, and there is little mutual emotional support. T second type is the collegial peer, with whom you have a moderate level trust and engage in some self-disclosure. Collegial peers provi increased emotional support and feedback and engage in more intima discussions. The third type is the special peer, with whom there are pretences and formal roles. To this peer, you reveal ambivalence a personal dilemmas as your would to few other people in your life. Speci peers are most likely of your gender. However, because of the constrai

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Mentoring and Job Satisfaction

A relationship appears to exist between mentoring and job satisfaction in two distinct ways. First, a positive correlation exists between mentoring and career commitment. Second, a negative correlation exists between mentoring and dissatisfaction manifested in absenteeism, turnover and plateauing. In other words, mentoring fosters *less* absenteeism, turnover and plateauing. It is impossible to mention mentoring without mentioning the word promotion. In fact, mentoring can be used to prepare a chosen protégé to reach career goals, climb the ladder of success for a future management position, achieve upward mobility in career, and personal career development.

The concept of having a mentor assist in career development so that the protégé can reach top management is inherently understandable. However, traditional mentoring also supports more fundamental personal needs. Within the framework of job satisfaction, mentoring seems to provide a valuable function other than promotion. The challenge of managing an already plateaued employer encourages the development of mentoring relationships, as one of the replacements for promotion opportunities. The plateaued worker who has hit a career plateau suffers from losses in productivity and/or self-esteem. Mentoring increases productivity and personal self-esteem (Karp, 1989).

Mentoring can increase job satisfaction; this is one of the summarizing statements from a study examining different personal and situational variables affecting organizational and career commitment: age, internal locus of control, education level, mentoring, role conflict, role ambiguity, and inter-role conflict. Mentoring appears to be the strongest variable (Colarelli & Bishop 1990). As an indication of job satisfaction, career commitment can be positively correlated since it is simply a reduction of many of the symptoms of job dissatisfaction (turnover, early retirement, low productivity). No matter how you evaluate job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), the phenomenon of mentoring has an effect.

Expectancy theory also helps to suggest that behaviour is a function of a person's expectancies about the future and the value of future outcomes" Vecchio, 1991. An obvious manifestation of expectancy theory is the process of self-fulfilling prophecy (SFP). In an organization, leaders may hold prophecy or expectation about a subordinate, and that subordinate may behave in such a way as to realize the expectation. Obviously, there can be SFPs that are detrimental or beneficial to an individual or for the organization. The constructive management of SFPs is one way to enhance job satisfaction and employee motivation; and mentoring is one way to manage SFPs constructively (Loftus, 1992).

Another term for SFP is the Pygmalion effect derived from Greek mythology. Mentoring is a typical example of the Pygmalion effect in business (Loftus, 1992). In this particular case the mentor must act as a possible Pygmalion to rate the process effective. A positive Pygmalion is a mentor. Specifically, positive Pygmalion must provide the climate, feedback, input and output so that all subordinates are given opportunities to experience satisfaction and realize their potential. If leaders want to encourage productivity and satisfaction through self-fulfilling prophecy, they must accept mentoring as a viable leadership technique. Obviously, the Pygmalion effect is one of the missing links in the mentoring/leadership relationship.

Fagenson (1989) found that mentored individuals had more satisfaction, career mobility and opportunity, recognition, and a higher promotion rate than non-mentored individuals. Also, Dreher and Ash (1990) found that individuals with extensive mentoring relationships had higher incomes and were more satisfied with their pay and benefits than individuals who had less extensive mentoring relationships.

Mentoring and Performance

Mentoring activities are intrinsically, rather than extrinsically, motivated. Performance is the link between mentoring and satisfaction. The extrinsic results of mentoring activities are enhancement at a personal and a corporate level. The personal results are often motivation, leadership, satisfaction, self-confidence, etc. The corporate results are usually referable to performance and productivity. Odiorne (1991) stresses the importance of focusing on competence and specifically, nurturing competence; performance and productivity will follow. Odiorne contrasts competence and passion with the conclusion that passion is not enough. Like performance and productivity, passion is not enough, and is a result, not a cause. Passion is a symptom that reflects a more thorough process, from empowering and nurturing competence. Odiorne advocates mentoring relationships for teaching exemplary behaviour to trainees. According to Odiorne (1991), it is important that exemplary performers mentor others in their quest for success.

The organizational benefits of mentoring can be construed as measures of performance. Mendleson, Barnes & Horn *(1992)* suggests that one of the organizational benefits is job performance. Many other organizational benefits preclude performance as their result. Protégé performance is enhanced through mentoring, but what about the mentor? Possibly, mentors perform simply by delegating to their protégés, or their performance is measured more indirectly, such as through the maintenance or development of corporate culture. Mentoring from the mentor's perspective is a long-term affair, an investment in the firm's future. This performance is not readily measurable, and is usually only intrinsically rewarding, but it is a performance variable and outcome, nonetheless.

In discussing their careers, managers and professionals often credit their mentor as having had a notable influence on their development. The learning they gain from the tutorial relationship with a mentor can be highly beneficial to their performance and career success (Berry, 2003). Studies have shown that careers can be advanced, with higher earnings and promotions resulting from having a mentor (e.g., Dreher & Ash, 1990). As an experienced and high-ranking individual in an organization, a mentor supports and enhances the development of a more junior employee. The mentor shares information about the inner workings of the organization and can be a work-role model. Because of the mentor's influence in the organization, he or she may be able to sponsor and create opportunities for the protégé. In addition, mentors offer friendship and informal counselling that can strengthen the protégé's psychosocial development (Kram, 1985).

African (Albeit Nigerian) Perspectives of Mentoring

Mentoring is a phenomenon that has been rekindled in the Nigerian environment because of the need for tutelage in the socio-political arena and the growing appreciation of the benefits of mentoring in the work setting. Mentoring in the Nigerian work setting reflects the broad activities identified by Kram (1985), which is largely focused on counselling, protection and sponsoring the career advancement of an individual. These relationships comprise both genders and are generally organized by prevalent gender role stereotypes. Mentoring relationships often develop spontaneously based on proximity, hierarchical line of responsibility, ethnic affiliation, admiration, competence, shared values, and gender concerns. Instances of an official assignment of protégé to mentor are common among non-government organizations that seek to develop youths. Mentors, whether in spontaneous or assigned relationships, are frequently older and more practiced compared to their protégés. A common feature of these relationships is the great allegiance and respect accorded to mentors by their protégés. This is particularly in view of the African perspective that wisdom stems from old age. Though, some negative connotations of mentors as Godfather exist, in general mentors are appreciated for giving direction to younger colleagues. .

Recent trends in modern organizations have made research in organizational commitment more relevant. For instance, organizations are downsizing to survive stiff competition and meet stringent regulations for operation (Okurame, 2006). In the Nigerian work setting, this is clearly evident in the banking sector and many government owned organizations. These organizations expect employees that are retained to undertake increased routine workload, meet performance standards, and remain with the organization for a reasonable period of time. However, the dearth of people with the right skills and the attendant stiff competition for the few that are available makes this difficult. The most obvious expression of the problem is found in the banking sector where employees move frequently from one bank to another in search of prospects for favourable career outcomes (Okurame, 2002). This constitutes a drain of resources and results in additional recruitment and training cost, and mentoring gains are lost along the line.

The acclaimed benefits of mentoring and its importance for predicting organizational commitment creates a need to address likely hindrances to reaping the gains of the relationship. One of such obstacles which have attracted empirical attention is the gender combination of mentoring relationships. Women are a growing segment of the Nigerian workforce (Okurame, 2006) that is typified by a prevalence of males in management. This makes opposite sex mentoring inevitable and suggests that gender is an issue to be considered in any attempt to utilize mentoring in the country. The literature suggests that the gender composition of mentoring relationships affects its benefits and outcome. Empirical investigations (e.g. Ragins, 1989; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) of mentoring benefits and outcomes, especially in the West, strongly demonstrate support for this position. In the Nigerian work setting, available literature suggests that organizational commitment is better for male protégés when their mentors were males, it was better for females when mentors were females (Okurame,2006).

With the awakening need for mentoring in the Nigerian environment, it is necessary to state what mentoring is not. Mentoring is not favouritism, nepotism or discrimination. Promoting an employee because of prior or current relationship, ethnic affiliation or whatever reason regardless of talent or skill is not mentoring. It is not a subtle indoctrination process. It is not a promotional tool. In fact, it is not self-directed at all. Mentoring is an unselfish process. It is altruistic, interpersonal, and a voluntary pairing of two individuals for mutual personal and corporate gain. So there is a need to institutionalise anti-discrimination policies in our organizations, because mentoring works best in environments free from discriminations.

The Qualities of Effective Mentoring

First and foremost great mentoring is a partnership and like all partnerships certain ingredients need to be present for it to be successful. Bell (2002) suggests some of these necessities:

1. Balance: Mentoring is a learning partnership and as such should be a balanced union founded on mutual interests, interdependence, and respect; this is quite different from a relationship based on power and control. Power-seeking mentors tend to mentor with credentials and sovereignty; partnership-driven mentors seek to mentor with authenticity and openness. (Bell, 2002). In a balanced learning partnership there is clarity of role, good communication, and a spirit of generosity and acceptance.

2.Truth: Mentoring relationship must be characterized by a high level of honesty and integrity. A mentor must always speak the truth and nothing but the truth. Bell (2002) states that, the path of learning begins with the mentor's genuineness and candour.

3. Trust: A learning partnership must involve personal investment from both parties. To learn, one must take risks, and taking risks opens the door to errors. A protégé should feel comfortable enough to take risks. A trust-full relationship is one in which error is accepted as a necessary step on the path from novice to master.

4. Abundance: Mentor should have a spirit of generosity, a drive to share their wisdom and a willingness to keep learning. As Malcolm Knowles says "Great trainers(and mentors) love learning and are happiest when the are around its occurrence." (Bell, 2002)

5. Passion: Great mentoring partnerships are filled with passion; they are guided by mentors with deep feelings and a willingness to communicate those feelings. They not only love the learning process, they love what the protégé can become.

6. Courage: Mentoring takes courage; learning takes courage. Great mentors take risks with learning, show boldness in their efforts, and elicit courage inprotégés by the examples they set.

Attributes for Effective Mentorship

As in any relationship there are expectations. A mentor would be expected to possess certain attributes that will be of benefit to the protégé. Some of such attributes include:

1. A mentor should be a prudent counsellor, dispensing advice on career path and other matters drawing on their real life experiences.
2. A mentor should be in a position to offer help up the corporate ladder.
3. A mentor should be experienced, showing the protégé what worked for them and what didn't.
4. Have impeccable credibility.
5. Should have substance: heart, brains and courage.
6. Must have a vast treasury of knowledge and achievements.
7. Mentors provide for the person or persons allocated to them (their protégés).
8. Advice in drawing up self development programmes and learning contracts.
9. Generally help with learning programmes.
10. Provide guidance on how to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to do a new job.
11. Advice on dealing with any administrative technical or people problems individuals meet, especially in the early stages of their careers.
12. Mentors provide information on the way things are done around the organization; this helps to build the corporate culture and its manifestations in the shape of core values and organizational behaviour (management style).
13. Mentors help to coach in specific skills.
14. Mentors help in tackling projects not by doing it for protégés but by pointing them in the right direction; that is helping people to help themselves.
15. A parental figure with whom protégés can discuss their aspirations and concerns and who will lend a sympathetic ear to their problems.

The SAGE Model for Great Mentoring

The SAGE model (Bell, 2002) is built around the belief that great mentoring requires four core competencies, each of which can be applied in many ways. These competences form the sequential steps in the process of mentoring. They have been selected for their ability to blend effectively. They are:

Surrendering – levelling the playing field,
Accepting – creating a safe haven for taking risk,
Gifting – the main event, and
Extending – nurturing protégés independence.

Surrendering: Surrendering is the process of levelling the learning field. Most mentoring relationships begin with mentor and protégé in unequal power positions; boss to subordinate or master to novice. As such anxiety is often present and anxiety minimises risk taking; that important ingredient required for growth. Surrendering encompasses all the actions the mentor takes to pull power and authority out of the mentoring relationship so protégé anxiety is lowered and courage heightened.

Accepting: Accepting is the act of inclusion, embracing, ridding oneself of bias and preconceived judgements, thus creating a safe heaven for learning. When mentors encourage and support, they send a message that safety abounds. Protégés need safety in the mentoring relationship in order to undertake experimental behaviour in the face of public vulnerability.

Gifting: Gifting is the act of generosity, bestowing something of value upon another without expecting anything in return. Gifting is often seen as the main event of mentoring. Mentors give advice: they give feedback; they give focus and direction, and they provide a means for protégés to test their wings.

Extending: Extending means pushing the relationship beyond its expected boundaries. This means seeking for alternative way to foster growth. Extending is needed to create an independent self directed learner.

A Future Perspective

Mentoring is a multi-faceted and extremely diverse process. Therefore, the limitations of these challenges for the future are two fold. First, this chapter does not reflect the infinite volume of data that has accumulated over the past years on this subject. On a final note, mentoring itself is an evolving field of study and future research may render these suggestions obsolete.

What then are the implications for mentoring research? Perhaps a more definitive role of mentoring in organizational behaviour can be explored. There is also a need for further research on mentoring in the areas of leadership, diversity, cultural/gender differences, and job satisfaction. Leadership and mentoring offer a multitude of varying definitions for their respective processes. Leadership has often been described as one of the most studied and least understood behavioural processes (Appelbaum, Ritchie & Shapiro 1994). Likewise, mentoring is not readily understood in the organizational behaviour paradigm. Suggested research would be to examine directly the correlates of leadership and mentoring with respect to characteristics or attributes. Another area of comparison could be with the cycles of leaders and mentors as they develop and manifest themselves.

In terms of differences, within diversified organizations, more specific ethnic combinations need to be examined and compared. For example, the following question could be asked: How do Hausa and Yoruba mentoring processes compare; or which ethnic group is more easily integrated into a mentoring relationship? These are some of the areas in need of exploration utilizing some of the concepts and ideas presented here as a foundation on which newer models could be designed and tested.

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