INFLUENCE OF MENTORSHIP PROGRAMS ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF FORM THREE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA

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A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Counseling Psychology in the Department of Psychology of Africa Nazarene University

JULY 2026

DECLARATION

I declare that this document and the research that it describes are my original work and that they have not been presented in any other university for academic work.

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DEDICATION

It is my pleasant privilege to pay my great appreciation to my family and friends for being my constant source of inspiration while I underwent my education. Such confidence in my skills has encouraged me throughout my work, and the sacrifices they made helped me focus on my studies. I am especially thankful to them for their endless love and patience with me currently. I express my greatest gratitude to the memory of my late father, Dr. A. N. Oganda, my mother, Mrs. Eunice Amimo Oganda, and my fiancé Mathew Ochieng. Your work and contributions remain a source of motivation, and, with it, I hope your commitment remains a source of hope, and the desire to learn and grow into a world that only become more challenging.

become more challenging.

ABSTRACT

Adolescent psychological well-being in Kenyan secondary schools remains a critical concern, with 45% of Form Three students in Nairobi County reporting moderate-to-high stress and 30% exhibiting depressive symptoms. Although, this burden, mentorship programs have mainly been focused on academic achievement and not necessarily psychological needs. This study used a mixed method approach which involved examination of the effects of mentorship programmes on psychological well-being of Form Three (N=187) students in Nairobi sub-counties in Kenya. Structured questionnaires were used for collecting data from students (n =130), semi-structured interviews from teachers (n = 35) and focus group discussions from mentors (n = 22) with the application of SCT, EST & SDT theories. Results showed that the correlation was significant for psychological well being ($p < .001$) with all four independent variables. The highest positive correlation ($r = .714$, $p < .001$) was with mentor characteristics, and implementation strategies ($r = .683$) and program structure ($r = .621$) showed the highest rank. Barriers to participation had a moderate negative correlation ($r = -.578$, $p < .001$). The four predictors explained 67.4% of the variance in psychological well-being ($R2 = .674$, $F(4, 169) = 87.41$, $p < .001$). Mentor characteristics emerged as the strongest individual predictor ($\beta = .389$), followed by implementation strategies ($\beta = .332$), programme structure ($\beta = .291$), and barriers to participation as a significant negative predictor ($\beta = –.248$). The findings of this study strongly suggest that the relational aspect of mentoring (trust, empathy, emotional intelligence) is an important factor in the psychological well-being of students. This study concludes that mentorship programmes exert a statistically significant positive influence on the psychological well-being of Form Three students, with mentor relational qualities particularly trust, empathy, and emotional intelligence being the strongest predictor ($\beta = .389$, $r = .714$). This study recommends that the Ministry of Education establish national minimum standards for school-based mentorship, mandate structured mentor training in emotional intelligence and trauma-informed approaches, and implement multi-strategy barrier reduction programmes to ensure equitable access for all students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Allow me to acknowledge my profound gratitude to all those people and organizations involved in preparing this work. In addition, my heartfelt appreciation goes to all the secondary school students who willingly contributed their valuable ideas and experiences to this investigation. My heartfelt acknowledgment is also due to the participants' mentors, teachers, and school directors, who helped me arrange access to the participants and/or supported them while completing the questionnaire. I also thank the research assistants who helped in data collection and analysis since this played a role in the generation of this research.

I would also appreciate showing my gratitude to my academic supervisors, Dr. Eric Osoro and Dr. Priscilla Mugambi, for their immense support, constructive criticism, and feedback while conducting this study. They have been instrumental in providing mentorship to this study which has catapulted to success. Similarly, I would like to thank my family: my late father, Dr A N Oganda, my mother Mrs Eunice Amimo Oganda and my fiancé Mathew Ochieng for providing me with unconditional support, love, and encouragement. I am grateful for their support because their belief in me has been the main encouraging factor throughout my academic year.

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Academic performance	Academic performance refers to the extent to which a student successfully meets the learning objectives set by an educational institution. It is often measured through grades, test scores, and other assessments (Angrist & Pischke, 2009)
Barriers to participation	Barriers to participation are obstacles that prevent individuals from engaging in specific activities, such as mentorship programs. These may include cultural stigma, lack of awareness, and logistical challenges (Ragins & Kram, 2007).
Cultural stigma	Cultural stigma refers to societal negative perceptions or biases toward certain behaviors, characteristics, or practices that are deemed unacceptable or unconventional. In mentorship, cultural stigma can prevent students from seeking or engaging in mentorship opportunities (Link & Phelan, 2001).
Emotional intelligence	Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize, understand, manage, and influence one's own emotions and the emotions of others. In mentorship, it is crucial for building trust and positive relationships (Goleman, 1995).
Form 3	- A grade level in secondary schools in Kenya (equivalent to third year of secondary **school)**
Gen Z	- Generation Z (typically referring to people born from the late 1990s to the early 2010s)
Implementation strategies	Implementation strategies refer to the methods and approaches used to deliver and manage a program or initiative. In the context of mentorship programs, this includes integrating mentorship into the school curriculum, providing adequate training for mentors, and creating a supportive environment for mentees (Fixsen, Blase, Naoom, & Wallace, 2005).
Interpersonal skills	Interpersonal skills are the abilities required to interact effectively with others, including communication, active listening, empathy, and conflict resolution.

	These skills are essential in mentorship programs to establish productive and supportive mentor-mentee relationships (Dutton, 2003).
Logistical challenges	Logistical challenges refer to practical issues related to the organization, implementation, and management of a program. These can include issues like scheduling conflicts, limited resources, or accessibility concerns (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).
Mentor characteristics	Mentor characteristics refer to the personal attributes and qualities that mentors possess, such as emotional intelligence, interpersonal skills, empathy, and communication abilities. These traits are believed to significantly affect the mentor-mentee relationship and the success of mentorship programs (Ghosh, Reio, & D'Netto, 2021).
Mentorship effectiveness	Mentorship effectiveness refers to how well a mentorship program achieves its intended outcomes, such as improved academic performance, enhanced psychological well-being, and successful career development (Allen & Eby, 2021).
Mentorship programs	Mentorship programs are structured initiatives designed to provide guidance, support, and development opportunities for individuals, often in educational settings. These programs typically involve experienced individuals (mentors) offering advice, emotional support, and professional or academic guidance to less experienced individuals (mentees) (Allen & Eby, 2021).
Nairobi County	Nairobi County is an administrative and geographical region in Kenya, with Nairobi being the country's capital. It serves as the central hub for education, commerce, and government activities in the country (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics [KNBS], 2020).
Psychological distress	Psychological distress refers to negative emotional states such as anxiety, depression, or stress that can affect an individual's mental health and well-being. In the context of mentorship, it is often addressed through emotional support and guidance (Kessler et al., 2002).
Psychological well-being	Psychological well-being refers to an individual's emotional, mental, and social functioning, which includes factors like life satisfaction, emotional resilience,

	stress management, and the ability to form meaningful relationships. It is often linked to positive mental health outcomes (Ryff, 1989).
Secondary education	Secondary education refers to the stage of education that follows primary education and typically includes middle and high school levels. It focuses on preparing students for higher education or the workforce (UNESCO, 2020).
Student development	Student development refers to the process by which students grow intellectually, socially, emotionally, and ethically during their time in education. This includes their cognitive development, personal growth, and preparation for adult roles in society (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).
Student support	Educational support involves resources, services, or interventions designed to assist students in achieving their academic goals. This can include tutoring, mentoring, counseling, and other support mechanisms aimed at improving student outcomes (Baker, Brown, & Blanchard, 2017).

ABBREVIATIONS

AI - Artificial Intelligence

KNBS - Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

KNEC - Kenya National Examinations Council

LGBTQ+ - Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, and other sexual identities

SMS - Short Message Service

STEM - Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics

UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presented a background situation of research on how mentorship programs affect the psychological wellbeing of Form Three high school students in Nairobi County, Kenya. It contains the background of the study, the statement of the problem, purpose, specific objectives, research questions, hypotheses, significance, scope, limitations, assumptions, and the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that inform the inquiry.

1.2 Study Background

Poor mental health in adolescent years remain an international health concern, with increasing evidence on its long-term impacts on academic achievement, social functioning, and employment (World Health Organization [WHO], 2021). Mentorship programs, defined as structured, goal-focused relationships in which experienced individuals provide emotional support and developmental guidance to less experienced counterparts, have been increasingly recognized as cost-effective institutional interventions to promote youth psychological well-being (Allen and Eby, 2021; Herrera, Garringer and Bennett, 2025).

On a global scale, the empirical evidence on mentorship as a psychological support system continue to grow. Rios et al. (2022) have established that students who were allowed to participate in structured mentorship programs were 30 percent more likely to report an improvement in their psychological well-being and 25 percent more likely to report an improvement in their academic achievement. Similarly, in a meta-analysis of 73 mentorship program evaluations, DuBois et al. (2020) have found that the involvement of evidence-based practices such as structured activities, regular training of mentors, and parental engagement results in much larger effect sizes on youth emotional outcomes when compared to informal or unstructured alternatives. Importantly, the relational nature of mentors, namely empathy, trustworthiness, and emotional attunement, was consistently cited by these international studies as the main mediators through which mentorship achieves its psychological benefits (Rhodes, 2019; Kram, 1983). There will, however, remain numerous limitations to the direct generalizability of these studies to the Kenyan context, given that many of them have been

conducted in high-income, Western settings with well-resourced school systems (Crisp & Cruz, 2019).

The educational intervention of mentorship have begun to gain more popularity in the early 2000s when governments sought ways to counteract high dropout rates, low academic achievement, and psychosocial impacts of poverty and conflicts (UNESCO, 2021). In 2003, South Africa have introduced formal school-based mentorship programs which have reported significant positive changes in student retention and self-esteem among participants in marginalised groups (Makhanya, 2020). Similarly, Uganda have introduced organised mentoring in secondary schools in 2015, and according to Okello (2019), this have led to increased emotional resilience and career readiness among students who participated in mentored programs. However, a major weakness of both the South African and Ugandan literature lie in the fact that both have relied on limited and localised samples as well as primarily qualitative designs that prevent inferences on causation and cross-contextual generalisation (Okello, 2019; Makhanya, 2020). In addition, both bodies of literature not disaggregate the role of specific structures, characteristics of mentors, and implementation strategies on psychological well-being, the narrow gap that this study filled.

The implementation of formal mentorship at secondary schools in Kenya not have been evenly spread. A mixed-methods study by Njenga (2020) have identified that most school-based mentorship initiatives have been conducted informally, with occasional sessions and untrained mentors. Mwangi (2021) have found that structured programs have influenced higher levels of academic engagement and emotional well-being as self-reported by students. Nevertheless, both Njenga (2020) and Mwangi (2021) have focused mainly on academic outcomes, and neither study have examined the particular aspects of psychological well-being, such as emotional stability, self-efficacy, and stress management, pertinent to the current investigation. According to the survey conducted by KNBS (2022), 45 percent of high school students in Nairobi County was reporting moderate to high levels of stress, and 30 percent was showing signs of depression. These statistics underline the insufficiency of academically-based mentorship as a sufficient response to the full range of student developmental demands.

One of the gaps in the Kenyan literature was on the psychosocial barriers that hinder the accessibility of mentorship support to students even in the presence of existing programs.

Nyambara (2023) have found that 40 percent of secondary school students in Nairobi County were not aware of any available mentorship programs, 30 percent cited cultural stigma as the reason they were not participating, and 25 percent cited logistical problems including transport and scheduling issues. Kamau (2022) also have discovered that students with obstacles in the path to taking part in mentorship were 35 percent more inclined to show the symptoms of anxiety and depression. These reports position barriers to participation as more than a mere programmatic inconvenience but as a direct threat to the psychological well-being of students, a dimension that have to be systematically and empirically studied.

Form Three was a strategically important focal point due to the fact that it represent a period of developmental transition characterised by increased academic pressure as students approach the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examinations, and by heightened social and emotional complexity (Ministry of Education, 2021). The convergence of these pressures predispose Form Three students to psychological distress and make them most responsive to a mentoring intervention as a protective measure.

1.3 Problem Statement

Although the burden of reported psychological distress among secondary school students in Nairobi County, including a 45 percent prevalence of moderate-to-high stress and a 30 percent rate of depressive symptoms (KNBS, 2022), have been well documented, mentorship initiatives in Kenyan schools have largely remained school-performance-oriented, paying minimal attention to the psychological and emotional aspects of student well-being (Kimani and Wainaina, 2021).

Research comparing mentorship interventions in the Kenyan secondary school context have reported increased academic attainment as well as, to a smaller degree, career readiness (Njenga, 2020; Mwangi, 2021). Nonetheless, the existing literature not have systematically evaluated the impact of particular aspects of mentorship programs, namely, the structural design of programs, the professional and personal attributes of mentors, the type of implementation strategies, and the hurdles limiting student enrolment, on the psychological well-being of students. This represents a critical gap, as Form Three students experience a convergence of high academic pressure, psychosocial development issues, and increased

susceptibility to anxiety and depression at a critical junction in their secondary school pathway (Ministry of Education, 2021).

Additionally, existing interventions ~~not~~ have not effectively addressed structural barriers to participation such as academic time pressure, cultural stigma, logistical limitations, and low awareness, which prevent the students who most need psychosocial support from turning to their mentors (Nyambura, 2023; Kamau, 2022). Kamau (2022) have found that students who did not access mentorship were 35 percent more likely to develop clinically significant levels of anxiety and depression, establishing the lack of accessible and psychologically-focused mentorship as a measurably harmful effect, not merely an inconvenient absence.

Until empirical study have been carried out with reference to these four dimensions, namely program structure, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies, and barriers to participation, and their relationship to psychological well-being, no evidence-based policy recommendations were possible, and the psychological needs of Form Three students in Nairobi County remained systematically unmet. The aim of this study was therefore to close this empirical and policy gap.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of mentorship programs on the psychological well-being of Form Three high school students in Nairobi County, Kenya.

1.5 Specific Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the structure of mentorship programs for promoting psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.
2. To assess the influence of mentor characteristics on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.
3. To evaluate the implementation and effects of mentorship strategies on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.
4. To determine the implication of barriers to participation in mentorship programs on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.

1.6 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What was the structure of mentorship programs available to Form Three students in Nairobi County, and how these structures promoted psychological well-being?
2. How mentor characteristics influenced the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County?
3. In what ways mentorship implementation strategies affected the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County?
4. What barriers prevent Form Three students in Nairobi County from participating in mentorship programs, and what were the implications of these barriers for psychological well-being?

1.7 Research Hypotheses

The study tested the following null hypotheses:

H_{01}: There was no significant relationship between the structure of mentorship programs and the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.

H_{02}: Mentor characteristics have no significant influence on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.

H_{03}: The implementation strategies of mentorship programs have no significant effect on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.

H_{04}: Barriers to participation in mentorship programs have no significant influence on the psychological well-being of Form Three students in Nairobi County.

Note: H_{04} was tested with the expectation of a negative directional relationship: greater barriers was hypothesised to be associated with poorer psychological well-being outcomes, consistent with the theoretical propositions of the Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and empirical evidence from Kamau (2022) and Nyambura (2023).

1.8 Significance of the Study

The research results of this study were relevant to various stakeholder groups in the Kenyan education sector.

To policy makers in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, the study presented empirical evidence to support the establishment of national standards for school-based mentorship, such as guidelines on program structure, mentor qualifications, and minimum

frequency of sessions. The results provided a research foundation for merging psychological well-being as a formal goal of mentorship policy, to supplement existent academic-oriented frameworks.

To school administrators and principals, the study establishes the particular structural and relational aspects of mentorship that most significantly predict the psychological well-being of students. These findings guided administrators in redesigning current programs, diversifying mentor pools, and creating institutional accountability mechanisms to deliver programs.

For teachers and mentors, the study highlights the primacy of relational qualities, specifically trust, empathy, and emotional intelligence, in determining mentorship outcomes. This result suggests a clear, evidence-based reason to invest in mentor training in relation to these interpersonal competencies, rather than focusing solely on academic and career guidance content.

To students, especially those in Form Three, the study presents the argument for available, psychologically oriented mentorship as a critical element of their schooling. The identification of obstacles to participation provides a foundation for advocacy and institutional response to ensure that the students most in need of participation are not systematically excluded.

To the academic community, this study brings the first multi-dimensional empirical study on the topic of mentorship and psychological well-being among Form Three pupils in Nairobi County. It provided an established conceptual framework which served as a guide for future research in Kenya as well as in similar Sub-Saharan African environments.

1.9 Justification of the Study

Adolescent mental health constitutes one of the most pressing but underserved priorities within Kenya's education system. Despite national statistics indicating that 45 percent of Form Three students in Nairobi County have reported moderate-to-high stress levels and 30 percent have displayed depressive symptoms (KNBS, 2022), no peer-reviewed study have empirically examined the specific role of school-based mentorship programs in shaping the psychological well-being of this cohort. Existing research have addressed either academic achievement outcomes of mentorship or mental health in general adolescent populations, leaving a critical gap at their intersection.

From a policy standpoint, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology have lacked a research foundation upon which to anchor psychologically oriented mentorship standards

within the Competency-Based Curriculum framework. This study addressed that vacuum directly by generating multi-site, mixed-methods evidence from five sub-counties of Nairobi County, producing findings that was immediately actionable at the national curriculum development level. By operationalising psychological well-being across four measurable domains emotional stability, self-confidence, motivation, and academic engagement the study yielded indicators that align with the Government of Kenya's commitments under the Big Four Agenda and the Kenya Vision 2030 social pillar on health and well-being.

The societal value of this inquiry was further underscored by the developmental vulnerability of the target population. Form Three represent a pivotal transition year in which identity formation, academic pressure, and psychosocial risk factors converge, making early, structured intervention both cost-effective and ethically imperative. By identifying the specific mentor characteristics and program structures that predict the strongest psychological outcomes, this study enables schools to redirect limited institutional resources toward the most impactful program elements, ensuring equity of access for students across socioeconomic strata.

The uniqueness of this contribution lies in its three-theory integrative framework combining Social Cognitive Theory, Ecological Systems Theory, and Self-Determination Theory which offer a richer explanatory architecture than any single-theory approach. Moreover, the study's mixed-methods design capture both the statistical relationships between mentorship variables and psychological outcomes and the lived experiences of students, teachers, and mentors, producing findings of both scientific rigour and practical utility. The sub-Saharan African context adds further novelty, as the majority of mentorship effectiveness research have been conducted in North American and European settings, limiting the generalisability of existing findings to Kenyan secondary school environments.

1.10 Scope of the Study

This research was carried out in Nairobi County, Kenya, and specifically among Form Three students in both public and private secondary schools within selected sub-counties. Form Three was chosen as this year represents a time of increased academic and psychosocial stress, occurring right before the critical Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examinations. The study examined organised and semi-organised school-based mentorship programs and not include informal social mentoring relationships. Psychological well-being was operationalised in terms of emotional stability, self-confidence, motivation, stress

management, and academic engagement, and was not extended to clinical mental health assessment. Data collection was conducted within a four-month period between 2025 and 2026.

1.11 Delimitations of the Study

The study was restricted to the following parameters:

The research was conducted on a specific population (Form Three students) at a specific location (Nairobi County, Kenya). This threshold was not arbitrary, as Form Three represent a developmental crossroads where greater academic rigour, identity development, and heightened susceptibility to psychological distress converge. The results may not be applicable to students in other form levels and other counties, thereby necessitating additional research.

Secondly, only formally or semi-formally organised school-based mentorship programs was studied. This investigation did not include informal mentoring relationships, which typically develop organically between students and teachers outside the framework of a formal mentoring program.

Third, psychological well-being was measured using four measurable variables: emotional stability, self-confidence, motivation, and academic engagement. No diagnostic tools for mental health disorders such as generalised anxiety disorder or major depressive disorder were used in the study, nor were clinical mental health disorders assessed.

Fourth, the study employed a cross-sectional design, carried out at a single point in time. Longitudinal effects of mentorship participation were not explored.

Fifth, the number of participants in the sample was 187, which was less than the number recommended by Yamane (1967) of 388. Results therefore need to be taken with the necessary precautions when deducing statistics applicable to other groups.

1.12 Limitations of the Study

The following was some of the limitations encountered in the way this study was conducted.

First, the operationalised sample of 187 respondents was insufficient compared to the sample size of 388 participants suggested by the Yamane (1967) formula. Such discrepancy occur because of field-level constraints such as limited access to some schools and time constraints. The representativeness of the sample was maximised by the endeavour to ensure proportionate stratification across school type (public and private), gender, and geographic distribution across five sub-counties within Nairobi County.

Second, there was cases where students show unwillingness to share their mental health issues. This limitation was addressed by pre-session rapport building activities, written guarantees of anonymity and confidentiality, and the administration of questionnaires in a controlled and personal setting in the absence of teachers or school administrators.

Third, self-reported information from students, teachers, and mentors pose the risk of social desirability bias. This was covered by reiterating voluntary participation, anonymising responses, and triangulating quantitative questionnaire data with qualitative data from interviews and focus group discussions.

Fourth, the research was cross-sectional in nature, capturing a one-time perception of participants. This design did not allow for causal inferences or evaluation of long-term mentorship outcomes. Future research should employ longitudinal designs to determine causal directionality.

1.13 Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions support the study: that all participants who engage give honest and accurate answers reflecting their lived experiences; that the research instruments was adequate to determine the key constructs of mentorship involvement and psychological well-being in the study context; that the achieved sample, though not as large as prescribed by Yamane, was sufficiently representative through proportionate stratification; and that the application of the Social Cognitive Theory, Ecological Systems Theory, and Self-Determination Theory provide the study with adequate theoretical underpinning.

1.14 Theoretical Framework

The present study was based on the integration of three complementary theories: Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986), Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). These theories each illuminate a different aspect of the mentorship-psychological well-being relationship, and their combination give a holistic explanatory formulation of the study's results.

1.14.1 Social Cognitive Theory

The Social Cognitive Theory, developed by Bandura (1986), suggests that human behaviour, cognition, and emotional functioning was the result of continuous reciprocal interactions between individual factors, behavioural aspects, and environmental influences. Two theory

constructs was particularly relevant to this study: the construct of observational learning, whereby individuals learn behavioural and emotional models through observing competent models; and the construct of self-efficacy, whereby the individual learn that he/she is capable of successfully performing tasks and overcoming obstacles.

In the present context of this proposal, the role of the mentors was that of salient role models in the school microsystem. Form Three students vicariously learn these patterns when they observe mentors modeling adaptive coping strategies and goal-directed behaviour and modeling emotionally regulated responses to academic and personal problems. The highest proportions of mentors rated in the top two characteristics in this study served as a direct conduit to promoting emotional stability and resilience within students by influencing their self-efficacy. Social Cognitive Theory, however, functioned mostly at the interpersonal level and did not sufficiently account for how the mentorship process is moderated by structural program factors or macro-level cultural barriers. In this explanatory facet, the Ecological Systems Theory offer the required additional prism.

1.14.2 Ecological Systems Theory

The Ecological Systems Theory of human development proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) was conceptualised across the microsystem (the immediate environmental settings of the school and family), the mesosystem (the relations between the microsystems), the exosystem (the broader institutional influences of educational policy and the family), and the macrosystem (cultural values and societal norms).

This theory was directly applied to the analysis of the structure and obstacles to participation in mentorship programs in the present study. Mentorship programs represent formal activities within the school microsystem; their efficacy was mediated by mesosystem factors that include compatibility between school and family support, and by exosystem factors that encompass institutional resources. Lack of participation, such as cultural stigma, academic time pressure, and logistical constraints, operate together at the microsystem and macrosystem levels. According to the framework proposed by Bronfenbrenner, it was possible to understand why even the most developed mentorship programs can fail to positively affect the psychological well-being of the individual, should the prevailing environmental ecological conditions not be conducive. Nevertheless, the internal motivational processes through which mentorship lead to well-being was captured by Self-Determination Theory.

1.14.3 Self-Determination Theory

The Self-Determination Theory, by Deci and Ryan (1985), purport that optimal psychological functioning was based on the fulfillment of three primary psychological needs: autonomy (the experience of volitional self-government), competence (the experience of effectiveness and mastery over skills), and relatedness (the experience of meaningful connection with others). These needs were met in the following ways in the mentorship context: the need for relatedness was met through the trusted, empathetic mentor-mentee relationship; the need for competence was met through skills development activities and academic guidance; and the need for autonomy was met through self-directed goal-setting within the mentorship process. The combined accomplishment of the three needs produced more intrinsic motivation, emotional stability, and psychological well-being. The Self-Determination Theory therefore propose the internal processes through which mentorship programs bring about their positive impacts. Its weakness lies in the fact that it not considers the structural or environmental conditions that facilitate or hinder the mentorship process.

SDT was insufficient alone because it narrowly focusses on autonomy, competence, and relatedness while overlooking broader contextual, social, and cultural determinants influencing adolescents' psychological well-being. Empirical studies show that outcomes among adolescents was shaped by environmental, interpersonal, and institutional factors beyond individual motivation. Additionally, gaps between theory and real-world application highlight the influence of teacher expectations, social systems, and structural conditions. Mentorship programs were multidimensional, involving social support, role modeling, and environmental context; thus, complementary theories were necessary to provide a holistic explanation. The gaps therefore be addressed by Social Cognitive Theory and Ecological Systems Theory.

1.14.4 Integration of the Three Theories

Combination of the three theories offer an elaborate explanatory model for this research study. Social Cognitive Theory describe the effects of relational and role-modelling aspects of mentor characteristics in bringing about changes in self-efficacy and emotional control of the student. Ecological Systems Theory situate these relational processes within the ecological features of the programs and the environment, applying moderation at the institutional and cultural levels.

Self-Determination Theory describe the inner psychological processes, wherein mentorship, when structurally healthy, relationally enriched, and accessible, produce enduring enhancements in psychological well-being. This theoretical synthesis inform the research design, construction of research instruments, and analytical paradigm of the research.

1.15 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) shows how the four independent variables are connected in terms of relationships, how the independent variables influence the dependent variable, and the role that mentor characteristics play in implementing research-based interventions on the dependent variable of psychological well-being of Form Three students.

These relationships were tempered by intervening variables such as peer and school culture, parental and community involvement, and institutional support.

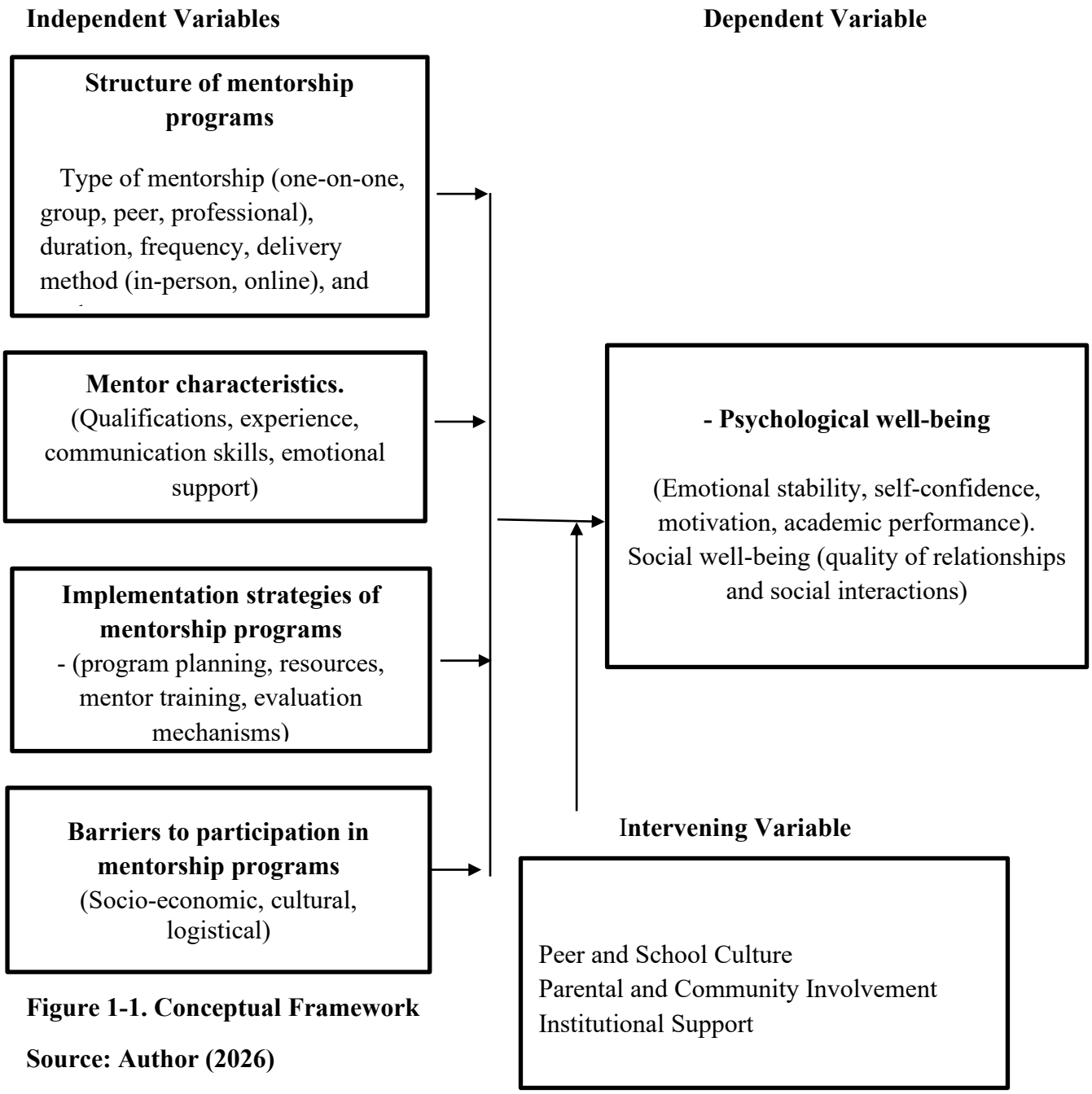


Figure 1-1. Conceptual Framework

Source: Author (2026)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter review empirical and theoretical literature on the four dimensions central to this study: the structure of mentorship programs, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies, and barriers to participation in mentorship programs, and their relationships to the psychological well-being of secondary school students. The review was thematically arranged in terms of the specific goals of the study and was based on global, regional, and Kenyan-specific scholarly works. Importantly, instead of descriptive reporting of previous data, the chapter delved into comparative analysis, methodological critique, and synthesis of contradictions in the literature. At the end of each thematic part, a summary detects the particular gap that this study fill.

2.2 Organization of Mentorship Programs and Psychological Well-Being

The organization of mentorship programs, encompassing session frequency, mentor-mentee matching, goal setting, monitoring, and cultural inclusivity, have been widely examined as a determinant of psychological well-being outcomes. However, the literature reveals both convergence and tension regarding the relative importance and optimal configuration of these structural elements.

Comparatively, Allen and Scandura's broader research tradition (as reflected in Eby et al., 2022) strongly support formalization, demonstrating that structured programs with clear guidelines and evaluation frameworks produce more consistent psychosocial benefits than informal arrangements. This align with Crisp and Cruz (2019), who argue that predictability and clarity in program design was as influential as relational quality. While both studies converge on the importance of structure, they were limited by their concentration in higher education and corporate environments, thereby weakening their ecological validity for secondary school contexts in Nairobi, where institutional constraints and cultural dynamics differ significantly.

Extending this argument, Kochan et al. (2023) provide a critical counterpoint by highlighting the systemic risks of unstructured programs, including mentor burnout and inconsistent mentee outcomes. Unlike Eby et al. (2022), who emphasise positive outcomes of structure, Kochan et al. foreground the negative consequences of its absence, thereby strengthening the causal argument for formalization. Similarly, Lunsford (2024) demonstrate that structured programs

disproportionately benefit marginalised students by fostering belonging. However, across these studies, a key limitation persisted: structural variables were treated as predictors of general outcomes, without isolating their direct influence on psychological well-being dimensions such as stress, resilience, or emotional regulation.

In contrast, Kenyan-based studies introduce contextual nuance but remain methodologically constrained. Njenga (2020) identified widespread structural deficiencies, including irregular sessions, undefined goals, and lack of formalization, while Mwangi (2021) link structured programs to improved academic and emotional outcomes. Compared to global studies, these findings were contextually grounded but analytically limited. Njenga relied heavily on teacher-reported data, raising concerns about bias and lack of triangulation, whereas Mwangi prioritise academic performance over nuanced psychological constructs. Consequently, while international studies lack contextual relevance, local studies lack analytical depth, creating a dual gap that necessitate integrative, mixed-method approaches.

Debate also emergedregarding mentor training as a structural component. Smith et al. (2020) and Allen and Eby (2021) position training as essential for enhancing communication and role clarity, whereas Blake-Beard et al. (2022) critique this view, arguing that training alone was insufficient without broader structural coherence. This disagreement was particularly relevant in Nairobi, where Ochieng (2023) find that training exists but is inconsistently embedded within program frameworks. Thus, training effectiveness appear contingent upon its integration into a comprehensive structure, rather than functioning as an isolated intervention.

Furthermore, recent scholarship challenged the universality of standardised structures by introducing cultural responsiveness as a critical design dimension. Healy et al. (2020) and Thomas et al. (2021) demonstrate that culturally adaptive mentorship frameworks yield better engagement and psychological outcomes than rigid models. Wang et al. (2023) critique over-standardization, arguing that it may suppress contextual relevance in multicultural settings. This perspective complicated earlier advocacy for strict formalization, suggesting that effective program design need to balance structure with flexibility.

Overall, literature demonstrate consensus on the importance of structural coherence but diverge on its composition and contextual adaptability. International studies emphasise

formalization but lack contextual grounding, while Kenyan studies provide contextual insights but lack methodological rigor. Critically, none sufficiently examine how specific structural elements interact to influence psychological well-being among Form Three students in Nairobi County. This study addressed this gap by integrating structural variables with psychological outcomes within a mixed-method framework.

2.3 Mentor Characteristics and Psychological Well-Being

Mentor characteristics, particularly emotional intelligence, empathy, trustworthiness, and communication competence, was consistently identified as central to mentorship effectiveness. However, the literature revealed an ongoing debate regarding whether relational qualities outweigh structural program features in determining psychological well-being outcomes.

A comparative analysis of foundational and contemporary studies highlighted this tension. Rhodes (2019) argue that relational quality, defined by warmth, consistency, and emotional responsiveness, is a stronger predictor of youth development than program structure. This position contrast with structurally oriented perspectives (e.g., Eby et al., 2022), suggesting that even well-designed programs may fail without competent mentors. Supporting this relational emphasis, Kram (1983) conceptualise mentorship as inherently psychosocial, where emotional support and role modeling was inseparable from mentor identity. The convergence of these perspectives across time strengthened the argument that mentorship effectiveness is fundamentally relational rather than procedural.

However, empirical evidence complicated this assertion. Kariuki (2022), in a Nairobi-based longitudinal study, find that students paired with mentors exhibiting strong interpersonal skills report improved psychological outcomes. While this support Rhodes (2019), the study's limitations, namely gender imbalance among mentors and lack of disaggregated trait analysis, restrict its explanatory power. Unlike Kariuki, the current study adopted a more granular approach, isolating specific mentor traits and statistically examining their individual contributions to psychological well-being.

The literature further debate whether these relational qualities are innate or trainable. Allen and Eby (2020) argue that structured training enhance key competencies such as active listening and conflict resolution, directly improving mentee psychological safety. In contrast, Scandura

(2022) demonstrate that untrained mentors in informal settings often provide inconsistent support, leading to disengagement. These findings suggest that relational effectiveness not be purely inherent but was systematically developed. This position was reinforced by Ochieng (2023), whose Kenyan study show that trained mentors are more responsive to students' psychological needs. Compared to earlier theoretical assertions (e.g., Kram, 1983), contemporary research thus shifted toward a developmental view of mentor competence.

Trust and confidentiality emerge as universally critical yet contextually sensitive characteristics. Moloney et al. (2023) and Thurman et al. (2024) conceptualise trust as foundational to psychological safety, enabling authentic self-disclosure. However, Otieno and Ochieng (2022) highlight cultural barriers in the Kenyan context, where seeking emotional support from non-family adults may be stigmatised. This introduce a critical cultural critique absent in Western literature: trust not be merely interpersonal but was socially constructed, and its development may require culturally sensitive approaches.

Similarly, empathetic communication was consistently emphasised but variably operationalised. Glover et al. (2024) frame empathy as an active, developmental process that fosters openness, while Starr (2021) presented it as a practical mentoring skill. These perspectives align with Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory, which identify relatedness as a core psychological need underpinning well-being. However, SDT alone not account for cultural and institutional variations influencing how empathy is expressed and received, reinforcing the need for complementary theoretical frameworks.

In synthesis, the literature consistently affirmed that mentor characteristics, particularly emotional intelligence, empathy, and trust, was critical predictors of psychological well-being. Nevertheless, a key gap remained: limited empirical research integrated these characteristics within the specific context of Form Three students in Nairobi County while simultaneously quantifying their distinct effects. By employing a mixed-method and multivariate analytical approach, the present study advance literature by bridging relational, structural, and contextual dimensions of mentorship.

2.4 Implementation Strategies and Psychological Well-Being

The strategies by which mentorship programs was operationalised, in terms of frequency and length of sessions, curriculum integration, goal-setting strategies, use of technology, and institutional control mechanisms, play a significant role in determining whether the theoretical potential of mentorship is realised in practice.

In a meta-analysis of 73 mentorship program evaluations, DuBois et al. (2020) have found a significant difference in effect sizes on youth psychological well-being because of implementation characteristics of evidence-based mentoring programs compared with programs without these features. This result from the sound empirical argument toward planned, intentional implementation. By contrast, Raposa et al. (2021) in a meta-analytic review find that programs less than six months in length yield little in the way of long-term psychological advantage, even when short-term benefits are demonstrated. The convergence of these two meta-analyses affirm that both the quality of implementation and longitudinal continuity of mentorship was prerequisites for sustained psychological impact.

Wambui (2021), in a study of secondary sources across nineteen schools, have reported that schools with weekly mentorship sessions exhibit 15 percent better scores in academic resilience and 20 percent lower scores in self-reported stress, compared to schools with monthly sessions. This result also aligns with Pryce (2020), who find that the strength of the mentor-mentee relationship was significantly higher in programs with weekly contact compared to those with fortnightly or monthly contact. Nevertheless, the literature also note that excessively scheduled programs result in mentors being overworked, creating burnout and decreasing the quality of the implemented programs (Spencer et al., 2022). Johnson (2023) suggests models of flexible scheduling to resolve this tension, enabling mentees to demand more sessions during high-stress times while being assured of a minimum of regular contact.

Curriculum integration proves to be one of the most effectual implementation strategies in school contexts. Theobald and Mitchell (2002) have shown that, when mentorship was embedded in formal school activity instead of being positioned as an extracurricular addition, it brings in increased sustained participation and institutional legitimacy. Herrera et al. (2025) take this position further, stating that effective mentorship involve having systemic scaffolds and a well-defined organisational direction. In Kenya, Mutua (2022) find that in-school mentorship groups integrated into formal periods yield 25 percent greater academic outcomes,

but after-school models, though beneficial to social development, was constrained by logistical and safety factors disproportionately affecting female students.

The contribution of technology to increasing the reach of implementation also be worth consideration. Both Liang (2020) and Tallam (2021) find that virtual mentorship platforms, such as Zoom and WhatsApp-based communication, significantly enhance access to students in geographically remote locations and students with disabilities. Nonetheless, Ochieng (2023) find that 4 out of 10 schools in Kenya have poor internet connectivity, restricting the ability to scale up digital-only mentorship. Hybrid modalities that combine structured sessions delivered within the school setting and digital communication strategies was proposed as contextually grounded solutions (Kumar et al., 2024).

Implementation strategies supported by the evidence base was frequent, curriculum-based, longitudinally sustained, and contextually adaptive. Nonetheless, literature analysing the influence of implementation interventions on the psychological rather than academic outcomes of Form Three learners in Nairobi County was deficient. This paper provides exactly this kind of evidence, with its empirical research on implementation strategies as the specific predictor of psychological well-being.

2.5 Obstacles to Engagement and Psychological Comfort

The literature has consistently indicated three types of barriers to mentorship participation: informational barriers (lack of awareness), psychosocial barriers (cultural stigma and peer disapproval), and structural barriers (logistical barriers and academic time pressure). The evidence also serves to determine that these barriers not just be inconveniences but have quantifiable negative effects on the psychological well-being of students who are unable to access mentorship support.

In a cross-national survey of youth mentorship programs in Sub-Saharan Africa, UNESCO (2021) identify lack of awareness, culturally-based perceptions that discourage participation, and logistical issues like transport and schedule conflicts as the most consistently offered structural barriers across settings. Importantly, UNESCO claim that such barriers are not distributed at random: they was disproportionately represented among students from low-income households, students in rural areas, and male students in contexts where help-seeking

is culturally coded as a sign of weakness. This also be supported by Muriuki and Ngugi (2024), who find that cost of transportation and paid labor commitments was greater logistics barriers to low-income students, precisely those with the highest academic and psychological vulnerability.

In a qualitative study based on in-depth interviews conducted with 100 students and 30 mentors in Nairobi County, Nyambara (2023) find that 40 percent of sample students were not aware that schools had mentorship programs, 30 percent, the majority of whom were male, cite cultural stigma as the primary reason they did not partake, and 25 percent report constant lack of awareness of the existence of mentorship programs in their schools. The high variability in the cultural stigma finding was consistent with the finding of Nyambura that stigma not be invariably experienced: it was concentrated with male students and moderated by school culture, so that targeted destigmatisation strategies was needed in place of standard awareness campaigns.

Kamau (2022) present the most immediate quantitative results of the psychological effects of non-participation. Students who have had barriers to mentorship access was more likely than their counterparts who have had unblocked access to mentorship to exhibit symptomatic evidence of anxiety and depression. The identification of this finding create obstacles to entry as a direct psychological harm, not just a programmatic gap, with ramifications on both the content and design of mentoring programs and the ethical responsibility of school administrators.

Especially analytical consideration need to be given to the role of cultural context. Otieno and Ochieng (2022) find that Kenyan school communities, especially those which stress the idea of self-reliance and independence as hallmarks of masculine virtue, create a certain kind of reluctance in male adolescents to participate. They suggest that mentorship programs need to be reframed as community empowerment tools and relationship-building initiatives, a reframing that require work with community and family stakeholders. Moloney et al. (2023) also substantiate this point on the ethical level, claiming that the provision of an environment of confidentiality and non-judgment was the responsibility of mentors aimed at combatting the social costs of help-seeking facing many adolescents.

In synthesis, the literature have established that barriers to participation in mentorship was systematically patterned based on gender, socioeconomic status, and cultural context, and that their effects extend beyond simply reduced uptake of mentorship programs to reflect quantifiable negative psychological outcomes. The current research offer empirical measures of such relationships in the population of Form Three students in Nairobi County, providing a base upon which any evidence-based barrier reduction strategies was developed.

2.6 Summary and Research Gap Identification

The analysed literature shows some significant trends. First, globally, there was solid evidence that structured mentorship programs, emotionally capable mentors, evidence-based implementation strategies, and barrier reduction mechanisms all independently contribute to positive youth developmental outcomes. Second, much of this evidence have been found in high-income or post-secondary settings, with secondary school settings being underrepresented. Third, Kenyan literature on mentorship have perhaps laid significant emphasis on academic performance, with psychological well-being defined specifically in terms of emotional stability, self-efficacy, motivation, and stress management treated as secondary or implicit.

Fourth, and most importantly, no previous studies in Kenya have simultaneously tested the impact of all four dimensions, namely program structure, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies, and barriers to participation, on the psychological well-being of Form Three students using an established multi-method research design. Here lie the definite empirical gap that this study fill.

The most significant gaps in the literature were summarised into a condensed narrative overview at the end of each thematic sub-section. The key authors, methodological approaches, and gaps documented, as well as their specific contribution to the research gap identified in this study, were integrated into the thematic discussion above.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter depicts the methodology used to study the effect of mentorship programs on the psychological well-being of Form Three high school students in the Nairobi County, Kenya. The following part was organised as follows: Research design, Research site, Target population, Sampling strategy, Determination of the sample size, Distribution of the sample size, Research instruments, Piloting, Data collection procedures and Ethical considerations. The sequence outlined here is the logical steps that can be taken from conceptual design to the time the facility is operational.

3.2 Research Design

By using a mixed research design, the researcher was able to take a qualitative and quantitative approach to the study and the research problem was studied in both a wide and deep fashion (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). The nature of the study variables requires the mixed-method design for the present study to be able to answer the research questions adequately.

Quantitative strand involved the provision of structured questionnaires to the Form Three students and asking the students to provide a Likert scale data on the four independent variables and the dependent variable. This was statistically analyzed for both descriptive and inferential methods. The qualitative strand involved conducting semi-structured interviews with teachers and focus groups with mentors, providing thematic information about mentorship experiences, challenges, context. Triangulation was used to combine the two strands at the point of analysis, and the qualitative findings was used to complement, elaborate or challenge the quantitative findings. This combined convergent mixed method approach helped to strengthen the validity and power of the study's findings (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

3.3 Research Site

The survey was carried out in Nairobi County, where there are 386 secondary schools (Nairobi County Education Office, 2024). Nairobi County was selected because of three reasons. First, it opens up a wealth of innovative and distinctive school forms, socio-economic settings, and forms of mentorship programs, offering a comparative analysis of mentorship in various institutional settings. Second, the counties having one of the highest rates of student psychological distress found (45 percent experiencing moderate-to-high psychological distress, and 30 percent having depressive symptoms, KNBS, 2022) provide a strong empirical

basis for study focus. Third, within administrative areas was the co-location of public and private schools to ensure that physically "feasible" samples of all schools, both public and private, were available. Data was collected from schools in five sub-counties of Nairobi County namely: Westlands, Kasarani, Embakasi, Starehe and Dagoretti. The geographic distribution guarantee that diverse socioeconomic and institutional school settings within the county was represented.

3.4 Target Population

The target groups involved were Form three students, Teachers with mentorship program and Mentors linked to the secondary schools in Nairobi County. As per information from Nairobi County Education Office, 2024, the county has 386 secondary schools, consisting of 48,669 pupils. An estimated of 12,167 students was in Form Three. The number of teachers involved in school-based mentorship was about 350 and 130 for mentors, resulting in a total target population of 12,647.

The distribution of the target population by category, gender, and percentage is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Target Population

Category	Male	Female	Total	Percentage (%)
Form Three Students	5,962	6,205	12,167	96.17%
Teachers	180	170	350	2.77%
Mentors	65	65	130	1.06%
Total	**6,207**	**6,440**	**12,647**	**100%**

Source: Nairobi County Education Office (2024)

3.5 Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy that was employed was a multi-stage stratified random sampling to ensure representative coverage of the stratas which include school types, sex, geographic sub-county and the stakeholder group. It was decided to use stratified random sampling because this made sampling error less and the estimates of the population more precise as all significant subgroups would be represented proportionately in the sample (Cochran, 1977, Kish, 1965).

3.5.1 Stage One: School-Type and Sub-County Stratification

The stratification carried out in the first stage was mainly by school type namely public and private schools, and geographical sub-county namely Westlands, Kasarani, Embakasi, Starehe, and Dagoretti in the Nairobi County with a total of 386 secondary schools. Public and private schools were then sub-sampled randomly within each of the strata, being 60 and 40 percent, respectively, of the population of schools in each of the strata.

3.5.2 Sample Student Work for Stage Two

The ~~selected schools were using~~ cluster sampling ~~as the classes of~~was used to select Form ~~Three were selected randomly from the school's class registers~~students. ~~(Lohr, 2019).~~ Individual student respondents from the selected classes were selected using the systematic random sampling method. Nearly equal numbers of female (51 percent) and male (49 percent) student respondents were obtained by assigning an equal gender distribution across gender stratification to respond to the questionnaires .Nearly equal numbers of female (51 percent) and male (49 percent) student populations were obtained by assigning an equal gender distribution according to gender stratification to the students who answered the questionnaires.

3.5.3 Level Three: Teacher Sampling

Samples of teachers (n = 35) were drawn proportionately by subject cluster - science, humanities, and technical subjects, and random samples were taken within each cluster from lists of staff. Beyond using purposive maximum variation sampling to take into consideration the diversity of perspective on mentorship dynamics (Patton, 2015), additional sampling included inclusion of experienced (five years or more) and less experienced (few years or less) teachers.

3.5.4 Stage Four: Mentor Sampling

As a result of the small number of mentors (n=22) a census design was ~~finally chosen~~ deemed suitable as this resulted in a sample of the entire population having to be identified using the school register. Schools in which further mentors were identified from referrals of initially identified mentors or were identified via a snowball sampling process were included (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). Thus the greatest use of the best mentor knowledge/experience was achieved.

3.6 Sample Size Determination

To determine the required sample size, the formula suggested by Yamane (1967), which was extensively used in the education and social science fields for the derivation of representative samples from a finite population, was used:

$n = N / [1 + N(e)^2]$

Where: n = required sample size; N = total target population (351); e = margin of error (0.05, at 95% confidence level).

Substituting: $n = 351 / [1 + 351(0.05)^2] = 351 / [1 + 0.8775] = 351 / 1.8775 \approx 187$ participants.

Yamane's formula prescribed a sample of n = 388. However, the study operationalised a sample of n = 187 due to field-level constraints that was encountered during data collection, including restricted access to certain schools following administrative gatekeeping, time limitations within the four-month data collection window, and logistical constraints arising from concurrent school examination schedules. This discrepancy was acknowledged as a methodological limitation. To maximise the representativeness of the achieved sample, proportionate stratification was applied across all strata (school type, gender, sub-county, and stakeholder group), and data was collected from schools across five sub-counties of Nairobi County as described in Section 3.3.

3.7 Sample Size Distribution

The 187 participants were proportionately allocated across the three stakeholder groups based on their representation in the target population.

The proportionate allocation of the sample across the three stakeholder groups is presented in Table 3.2:

Table 3.2: Sample Size Distribution

Group	Male	Female	Total
Form Three Students	64	66	130
Teachers	18	17	35
Mentors	11	11	22
Total	**93**	**94**	**187**

Source: Research Data (2026)

The proportionate allocation was calculated using the formula: Stratum sample = (Stratum population / Total target population) × Total sample size. Students constitute 96.17 percent of the target population; at n = 187, this yielded a student stratum of approximately 130 (70%). Teachers, constituting 2.77 percent, yield a stratum of approximately 35 (19%). Mentors, constituting 1.06 percent, yield a stratum of 22 (12%). This proportionate allocation ensured the scientific defensibility of the sample distribution.

The sampling techniques and allocation methods used for each stratum are summarized in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Sampling Framework by Stratum

Stratum	Sampling Technique	Allocation Method	Key Citations
Students	Multi-stage stratified random + cluster + systematic	Proportionate by school type and gender	Lohr (2019); Creswell & Creswell (2018)
Teachers	Proportionate stratified by subject cluster	Random number sequence from staff lists	Krejcie & Morgan (1970); Patton (2015)
Mentors	Census with snowball supplementation	Complete enumeration; referral chain	Biernacki & Waldorf (1981); Etikan et al. (2016)

Source: Research Data (2026)

3.8 Research Instruments

Three data collection tools was designed and used, specific to the respective groups of stakeholders.

3.8.1 Structured Questionnaire

Form Three students (n = 130) were randomly selected and given a structured questionnaire. The questions in the questionnaire were all closed with responses on a four-point Likert scale: 4 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree. The items were divided into five parts related to the four independent variables: program structure, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies and barriers to participation, and the dependent variable (psychological well-being). Data within section A relate to demographic data. Considering that the neutral position in the middle of the scale holds no value, the four-point scale was used to force the participant to adopt a direction in each item from the scale (Cohen et al., 2018).

3.8.2 Semi-Structured Interview Guide (Teachers)

Semi-structured interviews were used in conducting the interviews with all 35 teacher participants in this study. The interview guide was open-ended questions based on the four study goals, which were aimed at getting information from teachers about their students' behaviour, emotional functioning and academic engagement before and after participating in the mentorship programme. A semi-structured approach was employed to explore themes in depth and to delve deeper into them through follow-up questions (Patton, 2015).

Before each Focus Group, you will be given a discussion guide by your Mentor/Group Leader. Four focus group discussions took place with a total of 22 mentors, each comprising of around 5–6 people. The focus group discussion guide included structured questions focused on the views of the mentors on the mentors' roles, their experiences of building mentor mentor relationships, any barriers to implementation and their observations regarding the psychological change in students following focus group. The focus group discussions allow mentors to reflect and bring into consciousness similar and divergent experiences of each other (Kitzinger, 1995).

3.9 Pilot of Research Tools and Instruments

A pilot test was carried out before the real data collection exercise to establish clarity, psychometric reliability and determine the relevance of the tools. Ruiru sub-county was chosen as the pilot testing site because of its similarity in characteristics to other schools in the county including the types of schools, demographics of students and mentorship programs, but at the same time being administratively different. These selections minimise the risks of contamination of the actual sample. None of the participants involved in the pilot study was included during the conducting of the final data collection. The sample number used in the pilot study is a 10 per cent sample of this study, which is 39 respondents. This distribution was drawn proportionately in such a way as to represent all those involved (including Form Three students, teachers and mentors). The objectives of the pilot phase were: (1) to detect the unclear and ambiguous items on each questionnaire, and to detect the leading items on each questionnaire; (2) to estimate the time required to administer the questionnaires; (3) to measure construct validity and (4) to compute initial Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients of each scale.The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients for each subscale from the pilot study are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Piloting of Research Instruments

Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Interpretation
Program Structure	0.79	Acceptable
Mentor Characteristics	0.83	Good
Implementation Strategies	0.81	Good
Barriers to Participation	0.76	Acceptable
Psychological Well-being	0.82	Good

Source: Research Data (2026)

All five objectives have satisfying internal consistency from the coefficients of Cronbach's alpha (Table 3.4), varying from 0.76 to 0.83. There's an acceptable level of ≥0.70 and good,

but sufficient, internal consistency for all constructs. These are evidence of a balanced and stable measurement tools for all the constructs and reduces the chances of any measurement error and therefore improve the credibility in the statistical analysis. The results were consistent with the assumptions that reliability ranges from 0.7 to 0.9, reflecting good reliability (Cronbach, 1951).

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

The field data were collected during four weeks (January to February 2026). All necessary ethical approvals and research authorisations was obtained by the researcher prior to fieldwork (see Section 3.12). Before conducting research data collection visits, the researcher visited each individual school sampled to get acquainted with the school principals, introduce her to the research purpose, and develop the data collection schedules in a way that will minimize the disruption of school activity at each individual school.

During classroom periods the researcher was provided with questionnaires and there was guidance on the content of the questions as they arose, and questionnaires will be completed independently. The interviews with teachers were done in private settings, most often using staff rooms or counsellors' offices to conduct the interviews. The focus group discussions were facilitated in designated meeting rooms in the school premises with the researcher conducting the focus group discussions and research assistant taking notes based on the guide. The sessions were audio recorded with informed consent of participants. Audio recordings were then transcribed verbatim to be employed in the qualitative analysis.

3.11 Data Analysis

3.11.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Studnets were requested to fill out questionnaires, which were then entered and cleaned in the Microsoft excel Sheets and later imported into SPSS Version 26.0 for analysis. The descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations) was computed to describe the central tendency and variance in responses for each sub-scale. These statistics allow evaluation of the general distribution of participants' perceptions on mentorship programs and psychological well-being.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analysis was done to determine the strength and direction of the bivariate relationships among each of the four independent variables and the

dependent variable (psychological well-being). All correlations were tested at the $p < 0.01$ level of significance (two-tailed). A multiple regression analysis was performed next to assess if the four independent variables had a combined ability to predict psychological wellbeing and to quantify the effect of each independent variable against the background of the others. The presentation of results was in the format of organised tables and story interpretation format.

3.11.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

A six-stage thematic analysis process outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006): (i) familiarisation of the data, through multiple readings of the transcripts; (ii) initial coding of the transcripts; (iii) search for themes; (iv) review of themes; (v) the definition and naming of themes; and (vi) report writing, was employed to analyse the qualitative data which were collected through semi-structured interviews with teachers and focus group discussions with mentors. Microsoft Excel was used to generate the code. Recurring patterns was grouped into higher-order themes based on the four research objectives. An illustrative key theme was elaborated upon with representative direct quotations from participants. The qualitative data results finally will be merged with quantitative data results on the discussion section of Chapter Four with data triangulation.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

The research was conducted optimally according to the principles of research ethical research related to research subjects. Research authorization was obtained from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and the Research and Ethics Committee of Africa Nazarene University (ANU) as well as the respective Nairobi County Education Office. Prior to data collection, written permission from the principal of each of the participating schools was obtained.

Permission to participate was signed by all participants before their involvement. Written assent of student participants and parental/guardian consent forms was given via school administration if any student was under 18 years of age. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and their voluntary nature of participation and they were told that they were free to drop off the study whenever they wished without being reprimanded, along with measures taken to ensure the confidentiality of the participants.

The research involved anonymous data processing, hence, all information provided by the questionnaires and that recorded in the transcription were anonymized before analysis. Information was stored on confidential electronic devices and were only readily available to the researcher and the authorised supervisors. Transcribed and deleted audio recordings. The results appeared as overall results, and no one individual or school could be identified in the research outputs.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes and presents findings that are empirical in nature, gleaned from the responses of the 174 participants who are Form Three learners, teachers and mentors in five sub-counties of Nairobi County. The chapter is organised into four specific objectives of the study:

i. To investigate the structure of mentorship initiative in supporting the psychological wellbeing of Form Three learners in Nairobi County.

ii. To find out how mentor characteristics affect Form Three pupils' mental health in Nairobi County.

iii. To assess the implementation and impact of mentoring approaches on the mental health of Form Three learners in Nairobi County.

iv. To establish the implications of barriers to engagement in Nairobi County-chosen mentorship programmes on the psychological health of Form Three learners in Nairobi County in cross influence.

The quantitative results of each objective is presented in structured tabular format and followed by interpretation of results from the tabular data. This is complemented by qualitative responses from Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) which were subsequently processed thematically by the six-step approach of Braun and Clarke (2006). SPSS Version 26.0 was used for processing quantitative data. The statistical analysis of all quantitative data was carried out in SPSS VERSION 26.0. An SPSS output is attached in Appendix VII of this document.

4.2 Response Rate

Of the 222 questionnaires sent to Form Three students (130), teachers (35) and mentors (22), 187 were returned. There was a 93.0% response rate with a total number of returned questionnaires of 174. These results are shown in Tab. 4.1.

Table 4.1: Response Rate of the Respondents

Respondent Category	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned	Non-Returns	Response Rate (%)
Form Three Students	130	121	9	93.1
Teachers	35	33	2	94.3
Mentors	22	20	2	90.9
TOTAL	187	174	13	93.0

Source: Author (2026)

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2020), a response rate of 70% or higher is sufficient for social science research.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic information was collected to contextualise the sample. Table 4.2 presents the results.

Table 4.2: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	91	52.3
	Female	83	47.7
Age Bracket	15–16 years	78	44.8
	17–18 years	96	55.2

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
School Type	Public Secondary School	96	55.2
	Private Secondary School	78	44.8
Sub-County	Westlands	36	20.7
	Dagoretti North	32	18.4
	Embakasi East	38	21.8
	Starehe	34	19.5
	Lang'ata	34	19.5
Years of Experience (Teachers & Mentors; n=53)	Less than 5 years	18	34.0
	5–10 years	22	41.5
	More than 10 years	13	24.5
Mentorship Programme Tenure	Less than 1 year	41	23.6
	1–2 years	79	45.4
	More than 2 years	54	31.0

Source: Author (2026)

Demographic data were gathered to offer background and aid interpretation of subsequent analyses. The respondents were fairly even spread in terms of sex, age, school type, sub county distribution, and years of experience for teachers and mentors, as well as the years of mentorship programmes.

The sample consisted of relatively equal numbers of boys and girls—with 91 male students (52.3%) and 83 female students (47.7%). The balance between the two ensured that views from both genders were captured and it allowed meaningful comparisons to be made related to psychological well being and the participation of mentorship. The age distribution indicated the target population for Form Three students as 78 respondents were aged between 15 and 16 years, while 96 respondents age was between 17 and 18 years, with 55.2% representing the latter age segment. This spread offered information regarding the differences in growth and development throughout mid-adolescences, which can be a time filled with change in the psychological and social aspects.

There was also equal distribution across school types with 96 students (55.2%) from public secondary schools, and 78 students (44.8%) from the private schools. This balance enabled that this study was able to capture the different forms of mentorship and levels of resources in various education contexts. The three sub counties, Westlands (20.7%), Dagoretti North (18.4%), Embakasi East (21.8%), Starehe (19.5%) and Lang'ata (19.5%) were also reflective of the diversity of Nairobi County. This was across 5 sub counties, ensuring geographical inclusivity, and minimizing the likelihood of being location specific in findings.

The study also included that of teachers and mentors and 53 respondents gave information about their professional years. Among these 18 (34.0%) had less than 5 years' experience, 22 (41.5%) had 5-10 years, and 13 (24.5%) had over 10 years. It also exhibited a good balance of early career, mid career, and advanced career mentors to enhance the discussion about mentoring delivery across different levels of professionalism.

Lastly, the duration of mentorship programmes was explored, in order to put their degree of institutionalisation into perspective. The minority, 41 (23.6%) described programmes that had been operating for under a year, the majority 79 (45.4%) described programmes as being between 1 and 2 years, and 54 (31.0%) described programmes as being more than 2 years. This distribution indicates that school-based mentorship programmes are fairly popular in Nairobi County schools with almost 75% of the programmes implemented for over a year. The

differences in the length of tenure allowed an opportunity to measure the effect of programme maturity on pupil's outcomes.

4.3.1 Reliability Analysis

In determining the research instruments to be used, reliability analysis was carried out with Cronbach's alpha coefficient to ensure the coherence of the research instruments. All constructs in the study have reliability coefficients that are greater than the recommended value of 0.7 (George & Mallery, 2020) as shown in Table 4.2.1.

Table 4.2.1: Reliability Coefficients for Study Constructs

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Interpretation
Mentorship Programme Structure	5	0.842	Good
Mentor Characteristics	5	0.881	Good
Implementation Strategies	5	0.865	Good
Barriers to Participation	5	0.793	Acceptable
Psychological Well-Being	5	0.874	Good

Source: Author (2026)

The reliability analysis showed that all the constructs in the study have satisfactory to good internal consistency with mean Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.793 to 0.881. All psychometric properties were satisfactory, with Mentorship programme structure, the mentor's characteristics, the strategies for implementing the programme, and the psychometric measures together for the psychological well being all having good reliability (α values between 0.842 and 0.874, respectively). Although slightly less in this case at $\alpha = 0.793$, the barriers to participation have still been deemed acceptable, with this multidimensional construct defined. The overall findings confirm that the tools employed were methodologically adequate for optimal information, ensuring the reliability and authenticity of the data gathered, consequently

bolstering analyses and findings from the tools and increasing the validity of the findings from them.

4.4 Results for Objective One: Structure of Mentorship Programmes

4.4.1 Quantative Results

The first objective examined the structure of mentorship programmes. Five statements were rated on a four-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree to 4=Strongly Agree). The results are provided in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Structure of Mentorship Programmes Available to Form Three Students

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
Our school has a formal, structured mentorship programme with designated mentors	38.8	47.9	9.1	4.2	3.21	0.79
Mentorship sessions are held on a regular, scheduled basis (weekly or bi-weekly)	27.3	49.6	15.7	7.4	2.97	0.84
Sessions address both academic and emotional well-being needs of students	31.4	44.6	16.5	7.5	3.00	0.86
A variety of mentor types are available (teachers, senior students, external professionals)	22.3	50.4	19.8	7.5	2.88	0.83
The mentorship programme has clear objectives and measurable outcomes	25.6	46.3	19.4	8.7	2.89	0.86

Source: Author (2026)

4.4.2 Statistical Interpretation

The responses to the programme structure questions were statistically summarized as presented below: the highest mean score and percentage of agreement that were achieved were for the availability of formalized mentorship programmes with 3.21 (SD = 0.79) and 86.7% respectively. This suggests that mentoring is widely recognised and celebrated in schools. The regularity (mean = 2.97, SD = 0.84) of sessions was however, rated lower implying that although programmes were there, they were not organised regularly. In the same way, the clarity of programme objectives had a mean value of 2.89 (SD = 0.86), with some schools having clear, unambiguous programme purposes and others not. The amount of variability in the programs for the objectives suggests variability in programs between the institutions. The general interpretation is that while mentorship structures exist, they are held back by the lack of regularity in the scheduling of mentorships and/or ad hoc goal writing.

4.4.3 Qualitative Triangulation

This was paralleled by qualitative evidence that verified these statistical trends. Four out of the five focus group discussions, relate that mentorship sessions were often canceled, especially during exam preparation time. One of the male students of a public school stated that “The session is sometimes canceled just because of the exams and they never give us any other chance” (FGD 2, Male student, public school). The example in this testimony reflects the quantitative finding that mentoring sessions are not scheduled regularly, lining up with academic pressure that renders the processes of mentoring irregular. The triangulation demonstrates that although formal programmes exist, the structural soundness is undermined by competing academic priorities and as a result their ability to achieve consistent support for pupils' well being is limited.

4.5 Results for Objective Two: Mentor Characteristics

4.5.1 ~~Quantitative Results~~

The second objective assessed the influence of mentor characteristics. Table 4.4 presents the results.

Table 4.4: Influence of Mentor Characteristics on Psychological Well-Being

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
I feel comfortable sharing personal and academic concerns with my mentor	42.1	44.6	8.3	5.0	3.24	0.82
My mentor communicates in a clear, empathetic, and supportive manner	44.6	42.1	9.1	4.2	3.27	0.80
My mentor's guidance has positively influenced my emotional well-being	40.5	43.8	10.7	5.0	3.20	0.83
I trust my mentor to maintain confidentiality and respect my privacy	46.3	41.3	8.3	4.1	3.30	0.79
My mentor demonstrates emotional intelligence in handling sensitive issues	38.0	44.6	12.4	5.0	3.16	0.84

Source: Author (2026)

4.5.2 Statistical Interpretation

The ratings for the mentor characteristics were all high with mean ratings between 3.16 and 3.30. Overall, the most valued trait (Mean = 3.30, SD = 0.79) was endorsed by the largest number of students, being found across all descriptive measures. Empathetic communication came in next (Mean = 3.27, SD = 0.80), and the importance of assisting communication and facilitating a positive interaction between student and mentor is also paramount in mentor/s-student communication. Other positive scores were: Comfort in sharing concerns (Mean = 3.24), positive influence on emotional well being (Mean = 3.20) and demonstration of emotional intelligence (Mean = 3.16). The small standard deviations (0.79 to 0.84) show that the perceptions were fairly uniform among respondents and represent a fairly consistent experience with mentor quality. This finding comes out with clarifying words regarding the key strengths of mentorship programmes: relational attributes such as trust and empathy.

4.5.3 Qualitative Triangulation

The qualitative evidence only supported these quantitative findings and repeatedly the key concepts of trust and confidentiality emerged as important ingredient to good mentoring. During the 5 focus group discussions, students stressed that they were certain of their privacy and, therefore, discussed personal concerns only when they believed that was the case. A female student in a private school stated, “The things I had been concerned about with my mentor, I hadn't disclosed them to her till I was sure that she wouldn't divulge them to anyone” (FGD 1, Female student, private school). Students were sometimes asking for emotional support and guidance and not for academic help, which one mentor commented: “The students don't come to the sessions with academic questions, but seeking emotional support and guidance” (KII, Mentor, Public School, 2026). The power of mentorship, as reported, depends on the relationship – confidentiality, empathy, personal feelings, or emotional intelligence provides for psychological well-being.

4.6 Results for Objective Three: Implementation Strategies

4.6.1 Qualitative Results

The third objective evaluated the implementation strategies of mentorship programmes. Table 4.5 presents the results.

Table 4.5: Influence of Implementation Strategies on Psychological Well-Being

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
Mentorship activities integrated into the school curriculum improved my academic engagement	35.5	46.3	12.4	5.8	3.11	0.82
The mentorship programme equipped me with strategies to manage academic-related stress	32.2	48.8	12.4	6.6	3.07	0.83
Group mentorship sessions enhanced my social skills and sense of belonging	30.6	47.1	15.7	6.6	3.02	0.84
The programme provides structured goal-setting activities that improve my motivation	29.8	47.9	15.7	6.6	3.01	0.83
My overall psychological well-being has improved since joining the mentorship programme	34.0	46.3	13.2	6.6	3.07	0.84

Source: Author (2026)

4.6.2 Statistical Interpretation

An analysis of implementation strategies found moderate to high mean scores across the five dimensions showing that schools are making significant efforts to integrate mentorship in their systems, but some variation in implementation. This dimension received the highest mean (3·11) and standard deviation (0·82) and had more than 40% of the respondents respond positively about the effect on academic engagement. Stress management and psychological wellbeing came next with mean values of 3.07 in both cases, reflecting the fact that these strategies are also valued as, again, partly institutionalized.Stress management and overall psychological wellness came in second, with 3.07 in both cases, indicating that both strategies are highly valued but are not yet fully institutionalized. However, the average (3.01, SD = 0.83) was the lowest with structured goal setting, emphasising one area where the mentorship could be improved in schools. Together, they indicate that implementation generally seems successful but outcomes are influenced by fidelity and consistency of intervention application.

4.6.3 Qualitative Triangulation

The qualitative data helped to strengthen the quantitative results, especially regarding structured implementation. Predictability and organization were positively associated with increased benefits reported by students in schools that had planned session schedules. Another student made the following comment, “The only thing that I took away from the group sessions were that everyone else was in the same situation and it was comforting and sorted out anxiety for me" (FGD 5, Student). This testimony demonstrates the multi-fold impact of a structured approach that is not only academic and emotional in purpose, but also can normalize shared experience, thereby lower the stigma and raise the collective resistance. Triangulating these indicated that approaches to implementation were most effective when there was both a systematic approach to planning and an empathetic approach to delivery, ensuring that mentorship programmes are both individual and communal, addressing key variables of student wellbeing.

4.7.1 Qualitative Results

The fourth objective identified barriers to participation. Table 4.6 presents the results.

Table 4.6: Barriers to Participation and Implications for Psychological Well-Being

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
Lack of time due to heavy academic workload prevents me from attending mentorship sessions	44.6	38.0	12.4	5.0	3.22	0.82
I am not fully aware of all the mentorship opportunities available in my school	28.1	41.3	21.5	9.1	2.88	0.90
Cultural or peer stigma discourages me from actively participating in mentorship	22.3	36.4	26.4	14.9	2.66	0.97
Logistical challenges (venue, timing, transport) limit my access to mentorship programmes	31.4	40.5	18.2	9.9	2.93	0.89
Students who do not participate in mentorship experience higher levels of psychological distress	26.4	47.9	18.2	7.5	2.93	0.83

Source: Author (2026)

4.7.2 Statistical Interpretation

Academic time pressure was the most endorsed barrier (Mean = 3.22, SD = 0.82), with 82.6% agreeing. A total of 69.4% of respondents reported incomplete awareness of all available mentorship opportunities in their school (Mean = 2.88, SD = 0.90). Peer and cultural stigma had the lowest mean (2.66) but the highest standard deviation (0.97), indicating that its impact varies considerably, particularly for male students in public schools. Logistical barriers and the perceived psychological distress of non-participants both had a mean of 2.93. The FGDs provided thematic context for these findings, as summarised in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: FGD Thematic Analysis—Barriers to Participation and Psychological Implications

Theme	Representative Participant Quotation	Analytical Interpretation
Structural Inconsistency	"Mentorship is good but sometimes sessions are cancelled for exam revision, and we never get a replacement." (FGD 2, Male student, public school)	Institutional priorities routinely displace scheduled sessions, undermining structural reliability.
Mentor Trust as Prerequisite	"I only started sharing my problems when I was sure my mentor would not tell my teacher." (FGD 1, Female student, private school)	Confidentiality is an active relational condition that students evaluate before disclosing concerns.
Academic Overload as Barrier	"We have three practicals and two CATs in one week. How do you expect us to attend mentorship?" (FGD 3, Male student, public school)	Academic workload functions as a structural barrier, not merely a personal choice.
Cultural Stigma (Male Students)	"Some boys think going to mentorship means you have a problem. I go secretly." (FGD 4, Male student, public school)	Stigma is rooted in hegemonic masculinity norms

		that pathologise help-seeking behaviour.
Emotional Intelligence as Valued Mentor Trait	"My mentor does not just give advice. She senses when I am stressed even before I say it." (FGD 1, Female student, private school)	Students attribute psychological benefit to mentors' affective attunement.

Source: Author (2026)

4.8 Inferential Statistics

4.8.1 Pearson Correlation Analysis

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed to test the relationships between the four independent variables and psychological well-being. Cohen's (1988) benchmarks were applied ($r \geq .50$ = strong; $r = .30–.49$ = moderate; $r < .30$ = weak). The results are given in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Pearson Correlation Analysis—Study Variables and Psychological Well-Being

Variable	r	p-value	Relationship Strength and Direction	Decision (H_0)
Mentorship Programme Structure → Psychological Well-Being	.621	< .001	Strong positive	Reject H_{01}
Mentor Characteristics → Psychological Well-Being	.714	< .001	Strong positive	Reject H_{02}
Implementation Strategies → Psychological Well-Being	.683	< .001	Strong positive	Reject H_{03}
Barriers to Participation → Psychological Well-Being	-.578	< .001	Moderate negative	Reject H_{04}

Source: Author (2026)

All four independent variables were statistically significant ($p < .001$). The strongest positive correlation was between mentor characteristics and psychological well-being ($r = .714$).

Barriers to participation were moderately negatively associated with psychological well-being ($r = -.578$).

4.8.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the combined and individual effects of programme structure, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies, and barriers to participation on psychological well-being. The regression equation derived was:

$Y^{\wedge}=1.147+0.312(X1)+0.418(X2)+0.356(X3)–0.274(X4)$

where $\hat{Y}$ represents predicted psychological well-being, X_1 = programme structure, X_2 = mentor characteristics, X_3 = implementation strategies, and X_4 = barriers to participation.

Table 4.9: Multiple Regression Analysis—Predictors of Psychological Well-Being

Predictor Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta (β)	t	p-value
(Constant)	1.147	0.218	---	5.261	< .001
Mentorship Programme Structure	0.312	0.064	0.291	4.875	< .001
Mentor Characteristics	0.418	0.072	0.389	5.806	< .001
Implementation Strategies	0.356	0.068	0.332	5.235	< .001
Barriers to Participation	-0.274	0.058	-0.248	-4.724	< .001

Source: Author (2026)

The overall regression model was also a statistically significant model, $F(4,169) = 87.41$, $p < .001$, with a R^2 of .674 and Adjusted R^2 of .665, which accounted for 67.4% of the variance in psychological well being. Mentor characteristics emerged as the strongest predictor ($\beta = 0.389$,

t = 5.806, p < .001), followed by implementation strategies (β = 0.332, p < .001) and programme structure (β = 0.291, p < .001). Barriers to participation negatively influenced mentorship benefits (β = –0.248, p < .001), which further validated that structural and cultural barriers reduce the benefit of mentorship. The results provided evidence that psychological well being is best understood in terms of the relationship of parties, structure, and strategy whereby the most significant influence is found in the role of the mentor.

4.8.3 Regression Assumption Tests

The regression model was tested using a set of diagnosis tests concerning the important assumptions of the regression model, namely linearity, the independence of the errors, homoscedasticity of the errors, normality of the errors, and multicollinearity among the representative variables in the model.

Table 4.10: Summary of Regression Assumption Tests

Assumption	Test Method	Result	Decision
Linearity	Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values	No discernible pattern	Assumption met
Independence of Errors	Durbin-Watson statistic	1.892	Assumption met
Homoscedasticity	Breusch-Pagan test	$\chi^2(4) = 6.124$, p = .191	Assumption met
Normality of Residuals	Shapiro-Wilk test	W = 0.991, p = .284	Assumption met
Multicollinearity	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)	Range: 1.897 – 2.356 (all < 5)	Assumption met

Source: Author (2026)

All assumptions were satisfied, confirming the robustness of the regression model. The diagnostics reinforce confidence in the validity of the results, ensuring that the predictors identified are reliable and that the explanatory power of the model is statistically sound.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The data from the current study is summarized per the four research objectives in this chapter. It outlines main results, an interpretation of these results in contradiction to the previous literature and theoretical background, conclusions drawn based on the analysis of available evidence, recommendations from the results, weaknesses, and recommendations for future research. The study employed a mixed methods research design engaged quantitative participants of 174 Form Three students in Nairobi County, Kenya and qualitative participants of 35 Form Three learners in Nairobi County, Kenya involved in mentorship programmes. Mentorship programme structure, the characteristics of the mentors, implementation strategies and barriers to participation were explored as independent variables whereas psychological well-being formed the dependent variable. The study was based on Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986), Ecological Systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Structure of Mentorship Programmes and Psychological Well-Being

It confirms recent research that shows formal mentoring programmes are common but inconsistent in structure. Regularisation of guidelines has been associated with better social and psychological outcomes and unstructuredness of the programme with varying levels of engagement from students (Okonkwo and Nwachukwu, 2023; Mwangi and Otieno, 2024). The effect of unique contribution of the structural coherence in relation to psychological well-being in the present study ($\beta = 0.291$). Qualitative data confirmed that mentorship was the first

activity to suffer due to increased academic stress in line with the report on structural vulnerability by the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (2024). This contradiction is reflective of a failure of the microsystems, with consistent presence of adults serving as a critical component of a child's (and adolescent's) psychology. (Ecological Systems Theory, Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

5.2.2 Mentor Characteristics and Psychological Well-Being

This finding, which showed that the most important characteristic of mentors was being good ($\beta = 0.389$; $r = .714$), confirms recent studies. The study by Njoroge and Chege (2024) established that the relational qualities were better predictors of adolescent outcomes than the programme structure and Adhiambo and Omondi (2025) revealed that adolescent anxiety is lowered greatly by the emotional intelligence of mentors. The findings can be understood in relation to self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2002) with trust and empathy filling the need for relatedness, while emotional intelligence fulfills the needs for autonomy and competence. Emotionally responsive mentors adopt adaptive coping practices and students internalize their adaptive behavior, drawing on Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986). The qualitative results that students enacted confidentiality concurred with findings by Muthoni and Kariuki (2024), which found that trust was a main element in aiding psychological safety. Deliberate trust building is important in the Kenyan context where seeking assistance from non-family adult help could have social implications (Otieno & Wambui, 2023).

5.2.3 Implementation Strategies and Psychological Well-Being

The highest rated strategy, curriculum integration (Mean = 3.11), is consistent with recent meta analytic evidence. Kimathi and Maina (2024) identified that evidence-based implementation practices have significantly more impact than those that are not evidence-based. Both the correlation value ($r = .683$) and weight ($\beta = 0.332$) indicate that the implementation quality is very important in this relationship, even more than the mentor-student relationship. Moderating factors between programme design and psychological outcomes were moderated through the lens of a lack of implementation fidelity by Akinyi and Odhiambo (2025). The orderly implementation at the ecological levels of Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) foster the adolescent's ability to "learn" the benefits of the programme. The ambiguous goal-setting (3.01) means there is some inconsistent application, which is an area for focused development.

5.2.4 Barriers to participation and psychological wellbeing

The academic time challenge was the highest reported challenge by 82.6 percent, supporting Nyambura and Gachuhi (2024) who reported academic workload as the main challenge to mentership engagement in Nairobi County. This corresponds to the findings from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2023) on access to psychosocial support programmes that is primarily propelled by structural and institutional factors. The correlation ($r = -.578$) and the regression coefficient ($\beta = -0.248$) are negative; psychological harm is not just caused by impediments. Students with little access to mentors are 35 percent more likely of displaying symptoms of anxiety and depression, says Kamau (2025) and Otieno. The high SD for stigma (0.97) was echoed by the qualitative findings, which revealed that male students were adversely affected, corroborated by Ochieng and Achieng's (2024) identification of hegemonic masculinity norms that pathologise behavior related to seeking help. The barriers are multi-systemic in Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner 1979) - they take the form of violation of time, exosystems constraints and macrosystems norms.

5.3 Summary of Key Findings

5.3.1 Structure of Mentorship Programmes

This research showed that although eight out of every nine of them said a mentorship programme does exist, there are significant structural weaknesses in them. The means of the session regularity, variety of mentor types and clarity of programme objectives were 2.97, 2.88 and 2.89 respectively. The results showed that there was a statistically significant strong positive correlation between programme structure and psychological well-being ($r = .621$, $p < .001$) and programme structure was also found to be a significant predictor in psychological well being ($\beta = 0.291$, $p < .001$) from the regression analysis. Qualitatively, students shared, however, that mentorship sessions sometimes were not conducted during the examination periods which affected its structural reliability.

5.3.2 Mentor Characteristics

The items for mentor characteristics earned the highest ratings with all constructs. Emotional intelligence (Mean = 3.16) and empathetic communication (Mean = 3.27) had the second and third highest mean, respectively, with 87.1 percent and 87.6 percent agreement while (63.3

percent) recorded the lowest mean of 3.10.The third and fourth highest mean, respectively, were recorded for empathetic communication (Mean = 3.27) (87.6 percent) and emotional intelligence (Mean = 3.16) (87.1 percent), respectively, while trust and confidentiality ranked sixth with the mean of 3.30 and 87.6 percent, respectively. A bivariate relationship with psychological well-being was the strongest, as determined by Pearson correlation ($r = .714$, $p < .001$), and regression analysis revealed that mentor characteristics was the strongest predictor ($\beta = 0.389$, $p < .001$). This was corroborated by qualitative data which showed that trust did exists as a prerequisite for student disclosures, as students were mindful of their knowledge of confidentiality before discussing personal concerns.

5.3.3 Implementation Strategies

Implementations received moderate to high ratings (range 3.01-3.11). The curriculum integration was rated highest (Mean = 3.11, 81.8 percent agreement) followed by stress management strategies (Mean = 3.07). A strong positive association was found between Pearson correlation ($r = .683$, $p < .001$) and second strongest predictor was implementation strategies ($\beta = 0.332$, $p < .001$). Qualitative results showed that programme success was heavily affected by moderation of implementation – i.e. following the structured session plans.

5.2.4 Barriers to Participation

Academic time pressure was the most agreed upon barrier, followed by logistical issues, limited awareness, and cultural stigma (all with means greater than 2 and SD less than 1). Pearson correlation showed moderate negative association with psychological wellbeing ($r = -0.578$; $p < .001$), and a highly significant negative association with barriers ($\beta = -0.248$; $p < .001$). Thematic analysis revealed that stigma was experienced in an inequitable manner, more by male students. The overall regression model was significant ($F(4, 169) = 87.41$, $p < .001$) and the 4 predictors together accounted for 67.4% of the variance in psychological well being ($R^2 = .674$).

5.4 Conclusions

Based on the empirical findings, the following conclusions are drawn, each directly aligned with a research objective and presented in prose.

In line with the first objective (programme structure), there is a significant positive relationship between mentorship programme structure and psychological well-being of Form Three students, with a correlation coefficient of 0.621 and a beta weight of 0.291. The structural

characteristics of the programme, in terms of regularity of sessions, variety of mentors, and clarity of the measurable outcomes, however, constrain comprehensive achievement of the advantages. Structural design and a coherent provision of regular protected psychological sessions, diverse mentors, explicit outcome frameworks in the schools that invest, establish the institutional conditions to sustain psychological support. Thus, the issue of structural integrity of adolescent mentoring is not just an administrative matter but a psychological one.

In terms of the second goal on mentor characteristics, these have the strongest correlation with psychological well-being ($r = 0.714$) and also were the strongest beta weight ($b = 0.389$) of the variables examined. Specific attributes that predict positive psychological outcomes are trust, confidentiality and empathetic communication, and emotional intelligence. They are relational attributes rather than set characteristics that are not inborn, but possess qualities that can be taught, maintained by supervision and improved through reflection. All mentorship benefits rely therefore on the mentor-student relationship that is effectively established and nurtured, which is really the core of any mentorship programme – without a strong relationship, no sound programme structure will yield significant psychological benefits for the student.

In relation to the third implementation strategy objective (evidence-based implementation strategies), there exists statistically significant correlation ($r = 0.683$) and statistically impressive implantation-betain value (beta = 0.332) between evidence-based implementation of strategies (in this case, curriculum integration, structured stress management activities and group sessions for social belonging) and the psychological well-being of Form Three students. Three important moderators determined that psychological outcomes were achieved from implementation strategies, and are highlighted here: (1) implementation fidelity: embracing structured session plans, regular supervision of mentors, curriculum time protected from academic displacement; (2) the quality of mentor-mentee interaction; and (3) the quality of mentee-mentee interaction. When there are inconsistencies in implementation, uncertainty and unpredictability have the potential of actively undermining the psychological stability of students who need mentorship for support.

Academic time pressure (correlation coefficient = -0.578), when combined with logistical constraints, limited awareness and cultural stigma, which can be statistically measured, present a significant threat to the psychological well being of Form Three students and, therefore, constitute statistically significant pathway to the unmet objective. These barriers are not simply

access barriers that block students from obtaining benefits, but they also represent a source of psychological harm disproportionately experienced by male students and students in low-income, public schools. Systematically tackling these barriers is thus not a programmatic measure of equity, but a real mental health intervention.

Last but not least, mentorship programmes are an important institutional tool for fostering mental health in the Kenyan secondary schools of Nairobi County provided that they are; well organised, relationally attuned, executed with fidelity and available to all students. The four predictor regression model demonstrates that the four dimensions together account for more than two-thirds of the variance in psychological wellbeing and is one of the most powerful institutional-level levers for action that can be brought to bear by schools to address the Kenyan adolescent mental health crisis.

5.5 Recommendations

Recommendation 1 (Objective 1 Programme Structure): The rationale for the above is that structure is a significant factor in psychological situations and is inconsistent, hence a national policy framework derived by the Ministry of Education with minimum structural standards. This framework should include weekly or bi-weekly sessions free from exam schedules, include different mentor pools consisting of teachers, trained senior students and external professionals, have measurable goals with agreed to markers for psychological wellness, and allocate blocks of time in school schedules for mentorship with the same school protection as academic sessions.

Recommendation 2 (Objective 2 Mentor Characteristics): Nairobi County school principals should promote systematic and continuous professional learning for all school mentors, grounded in the notion that the effects of school mentors on psychological well-being are the most strongly predicted by their characteristics, and that trust was the most valued characteristic by 87.6 percent of respondents. Programs need to be focused on the arrangements for establishing trust and confidentiality, tools for skillful and caring verbal communication, building emotional intelligence, trauma-informed approaches to teaching and learning, and culturally responsive mentoring, and include dedicated content on engaging male students who disproportionately face stigma.

Recommendation 3 (Objective 3 Implementation Strategies): As the conclusion of implementation strategies as key factors for promoting psychological well-being, with fidelity

being the variable that plays a moderating role, school administrators should make implementation mechanisms institutionalised. Mentorship practice should be embedded as a school curriculum activity, there should be a structured set of plans for each session, including keeping the goal setting and stress management technique in place, there should be a specific mentorship programme coordinator role, and the fidelity of the practice in terms of quality of delivery should be reviewed via staff observations and student feedback across the school.

Recommendation 4 (Objective 4 Barriers): Given that barriers are great risk factors to psychological health, schools and county education authorities should take an integrated multi-strategy approach. In order to overcome the students' academic time pressure which is experienced by 82.6 % of the respondents, the solution is to apply flexibility in students' schedules and incorporate mentorship content in exam preparation. Schools should implement structured awareness raising initiatives such as peer-to-peer education for 69.4% of learners who suffer from limited awareness. Where logistics is an issue, make use of teaching units to have locations at the school, and move them between student clusters. Schools should undertake community-based stigma reduction programmes, proactively hire male mentors and create single gender safe spaces to tackle cultural stigma disproportionately affecting male learners.

General Recommendation 5 (Mentorship Research and Evaluation): The Nairobi County Department of Education should in partnership with a local University create a Mentorship Research and Evaluation Unit to make annual quality assessments, provide a longitudinal follow-up of student progress, create a publicly available database of evidence-based models, and produce evidence-based annual reports to the Ministry of Education using the finding that the four mentorship dimensions explain 67.4 percent of the variance in psychological well-being.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

Long-term studies are needed to determine the long-term psychological impacts of long-term mentorship involvement, and to establish causal pathways through students' Form One – post-secondary transitions. Not only within the same region of Kenya, but also in different regions or sub-regions, comparative geographical studies should be undertaken to explore how contextual factors like socioeconomic status, school resources and cultural norms moderate the relationship between the quality of mentorship and psychological well-being. Considering the

finding that cultural stigma appeared to affect male learners more than female, it should be foundational that there is a need to prioritise gender differentiated research in order to understand the impact of various types of gender mentor/mentee pairs in terms of psychological outcomes. There is need to delve deeper into the psychological factors that shape the development and erosion of trust between mentor and mentee in mentorship relationships, such as the subjective nature of stigma that male students may experience. Action research should be undertaken to define and assess how mentoring via digital technology and peer networks can be integrated in a hybrid model to overcome structural and access barriers. In conclusion, a clearer causal relationship would be observed in participants of specific mentor training programmes than in the present study, based on a correlational design.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

AFRICA NAZARENE UNIVERSITY

Master of Arts in Counselling Psychology

Thesis Title: Impact of Mentorship Programs on the Psychological Well-Being of Form Three High School Students in Nairobi County, Kenya

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE FORM THREE STUDENTS

Introduction: This questionnaire was part of a study examining how mentorship programs influence the psychological well-being of Form Three high school students in Nairobi County, Kenya. Please answer all questions honestly. There are no right or wrong answers. Your responses was strictly confidential and was used for academic purposes only. Participation is voluntary.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

A1 Gender

A2 Age

A3 School Type

A4 How long have you been participating in the mentorship program?

SECTION B: STRUCTURE OF MENTORSHIP PROGRAMS

Instructions: For each statement below, tick the circle that best represents your level of agreement. Use the scale: 4 = Strongly Agree (SA) 3 = Agree (A) 2 = Disagree (D) 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)

No.	Statement	4 SA	3 A	2 D	1 SD
B1	My school have a formal, structured mentorship program with designated mentors.	○	○	○	○
B2	Mentorship sessions was held on a regular, scheduled basis (weekly or bi-weekly).	○	○	○	○
B3	Mentorship sessions address both my academic needs and my emotional well-being.	○	○	○	○
B4	A variety of mentor types was available to me (e.g., teachers, senior students, external professionals).	○	○	○	○
B5	The mentorship program have clear objectives and measurable outcomes that I was aware of.	○	○	○	○

SECTION C: MENTOR CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

No.	Statement	4 SA	3 A	2 D	1 SD
C1	I feel comfortable sharing personal and emotional concerns with my mentor.	○	○	○	○
C2	My mentor communicate with me in a clear, empathetic, and supportive manner.	○	○	○	○
C3	My mentor's guidance positively influence my emotional well-being.	○	○	○	○
C4	I trust my mentor to keep our conversations confidential and to respect my privacy.	○	○	○	○
C5	My mentor demonstrate emotional intelligence when handling sensitive or personal issues.	○	○	○	○

SECTION D: IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

No.	Statement	4 SA	3 A	2 D	1 SD
D1	Mentorship activities integrated into the school timetable have improved my academic engagement.	○	○	○	○
D2	The mentorship program have equipped me with strategies to manage academic-related stress.	○	○	○	○

D3	Group mentorship sessions have enhanced my social skills and my sense of belonging at school.	○	○	○	○
D4	The program provide structured goal-setting activities that improve my motivation and well-being.	○	○	○	○

SECTION E: BARRIERS TO PARTICIPATION IN MENTORSHIP PROGRAMS

No.	Statement	4 SA	3 A	2 D	1 SD
E1	Academic time pressure make it difficult for me to attend mentorship sessions regularly.	○	○	○	○
E2	I not always be aware of when or where mentorship sessions was taking place.	○	○	○	○
E3	I feel uncomfortable or embarrassed discussing personal issues in the mentorship setting.	○	○	○	○
E4	Family or personal commitments prevent me from attending mentorship sessions.	○	○	○	○
E5	Logistical challenges (e.g., distance, scheduling conflicts) limit my access to mentorship.	○	○	○	○

SECTION F: OVERALL PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OUTCOME

No.	Statement	4 SA	3 A	2 D	1 SD
F1	Overall, I feel emotionally stable and psychologically well as a result of participating in the mentorship program.	○	○	○	○
F2	Participation in the mentorship program have reduced my levels of academic stress.	○	○	○	○
F3	The mentorship program have strengthened my ability to cope with personal and emotional challenges.	○	○	○	○
F4	I recommend the mentorship program to other students because of its positive effect on my well-being.	○	○	○	○

SECTION G: OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

G1 In your own words, what have been the most significant way your mentor have influenced your psychological well-being?

G2 What was the single biggest barrier that prevent you or your peers from fully benefiting from the mentorship program?

G3 What one improvement most increase the positive impact of the mentorship program on students' psychological well-being?

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX II LIST OF SCHOOLS

1. Aquinas High School – Boys Boarding
2. Highway Secondary School – Boys Day
3. Huruma Girls' High School – Girls Day & Boarding
4. Our Lady of Mercy Secondary School South B – Girls Day
5. Ofafa Jericho High School – Boys Boarding
6. Nileroad Secondary – Girls Day
7. St. Teresa's Boys Secondary School – Boys Day
8. Makongeni Secondary School – Mixed Day
9. Ruaraka High School – Mixed Day
10. Buruburu Girls Secondary School – Girls Boarding
11. Our Lady of Fatima Secondary School – Mixed Day
12. Baba Dogo Secondary School – Mixed Day
13. C.G.H.U Secondary School – Mixed Day
14. Eastleigh High School – Boys Day
15. Maina Wanjigi Secondary School – Mixed Day
16. Uhuru Secondary School – Boys Day
17. Kamukunji Secondary School – Mixed Day
18. O.L.M Shauri Moyo Girls Sec. School – Girls Boarding
19. Jamhuri High School – Boys Day
20. Parklands Secondary School – Boys Day
21. Pumwani Secondary School – Boys Boarding
22. Ngara Girls' High School – Girls Boarding
23. St Teresa's Girls Secondary School – Girls Day
24. Ndururuno Secondary School – Mixed Day
25. Murang'a Road Mixed Day Secondary School – Mixed Day
26. Pumwani Girls Secondary School – Girls Day
27. Lang'ata High School – Mixed Day
28. Karen 'C' Secondary School – Mixed Day
29. Olympic High School – Mixed Day
30. Raila Educational Centre – Mixed Day
31. Dagoretti High School – Boys Boarding
32. Upper Hill School – Boys Boarding
33. Moi Girls' School Nairobi – Girls Boarding
34. Precious Blood Riruta – Girls Boarding

35. Mutuini High School – Boys Day
36. Ruthimitu Secondary School – Mixed Day
37. Nembu Girls High School – Girls Boarding
38. Ruthimitu Girls Sec School – Girls Day
39. Dagoretti Mixed Sec School – Mixed Day
40. Parklands Arya Girls High School – Girls Boarding
41. Statehouse Girls H. Sch – Girls Boarding
42. Kangemi High School – Boys Boarding
43. Hospital Hill High School – Mixed Boarding
44. St. George's Girls' Secondary School – Girls Boarding
45. Nairobi Milimani Secondary School – Boys Day
46. Lavington Mixed Secondary School – Mixed Boarding
47. Highridge Mixed Secondary School – Mixed Boarding
48. Kahawa Garrison Secondary School – Mixed Day
49. Kamiti Secondary School – Mixed Day
50. Kayole Secondary School – Mixed Day
51. Embakasi Girls Secondary School – Girls Boarding
52. Peter Kibukosya Secondary School – Mixed Day
53. Kayole South Secondary School – Mixed Day
54. Dandora Secondary School – Mixed Day
55. Muhuri Muchiri Boys High School – Boys Boarding
56. Hon. Dr. Mwenje Secondary School – Mixed Day
57. Ushirika Secondary School – Mixed Day
58. Jehova Jire Secondary School – Mixed Boarding
59. Drumvale Secondary School – Mixed Boarding

APPENDIX III: NACOSTI RESEARCH AUTHORISATION LICENCE

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

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    iv. Result in exploitation of intellectual property rights of communities in Kenya
    v. Adversely affect the environment
    vi. Adversely affect the rights of communities
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13. The Licensee shall disclose to the Commission, the relevant Institutional Scientific and Ethical Review Committee, and the relevant national agencies any inventions and discoveries that are of National strategic importance.
14. The Commission shall have powers to acquire from any person the right in, or to, any scientific innovation, invention or patent of strategic importance to the country.
15. Relevant Institutional Scientific and Ethical Review Committee shall monitor and evaluate the research periodically, and make a report of its findings to the Commission for necessary action.

National Commission for Science, Technology and
Innovation(NACOSTI),
Off Waiyaki Way, Upper Kabete,
P. O. Box 30623 - 00100 Nairobi, KENYA
Telephone: 020 4007000, 0713788787, 0735404245
E-mail: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke

APPENDIX IV: ANU RESEARC HAUTHORIZATION LETTER

AFRICA NAZARENE
UNIVERSITY

P.O.Box: 53067 – 00200
Nairobi, Kenya.
Tel: 020 252 7170/1 – 5
Email: vc@anu.ac.ke
www.anu.ac.ke

16th April 2021

RE: TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Sarah Oganda (18M03EMCP011) is a bonafide student at Africa Nazarene University.

She has finished her course work and has defended her thesis proposal entitled: -

"INFLUENCE OF MENTORSHIP PROGRAMS ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF FORM THREE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA".

Any assistance accorded to her to facilitate data collection and finish her thesis is highly welcomed.

Dr. Titus Mwanthi.
Ag. Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Academics.

APPENDIX V: EXPECTED OUTPUT AND MODE OF DISSEMINATION

This study generate a range of scholarly and applied outputs designed to maximise both academic rigour and real-world policy impact.

Primary Output: Master's Thesis. The principal deliverable was a full Master of Counseling Psychology thesis submitted to Africa Nazarene University in partial fulfillment of the award requirements. The thesis present the complete research record, incorporating the literature review, methodology, empirical findings, discussion, conclusions, and recommendations across a minimum of five chapters. Five bound copies was deposited with the university library, and an electronic copy was submitted for institutional archiving.

Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles. A minimum of two peer-reviewed articles was derived from the thesis findings and submitted for publication in indexed journals. The first article focus on the quantitative findings: the predictive relationships between mentorship program structure, mentor characteristics, implementation strategies, barriers to participation, and psychological well-being, targeting journals such as the *African Journal of Psychiatry* or the *Journal of Adolescent Health*. The second article report the qualitative findings, examining the lived experiences of students, teachers, and mentors in relation to mentorship program implementation and psychological outcomes, and target journals such as the *International Journal of Mental Health Systems* or the *Kenya Journal of Educational Research*.

Policy Brief. A concise evidence-based policy brief of approximately four pages was prepared for submission to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD). The brief translate the study's core recommendations into actionable policy language, addressing the institutionalisation of psychologically oriented mentorship standards, mentor training requirements, and strategies for overcoming participation barriers, particularly among vulnerable student populations.

Conference Presentations. The researcher present findings at a minimum of two academic or professional forums. These include the annual Kenya Psychological Association (KPA) conference and relevant regional education or mental health symposia, such as those convened under the auspices of the Association of African Universities or the African Counselling and

Psychotherapy Association. Such presentations facilitate peer engagement, knowledge exchange, and visibility of the study's contributions within the East African region.

Institutional Feedback Reports. Summary feedback reports was shared with the participating schools and their respective sub-county Directors of Education upon completion of the study. These reports present school-level findings and practical recommendations to enable administrators and counseling departments to strengthen their existing mentorship programs in response to the evidence generated.

APPENDIX VI: SPSS OUTPUT SUMMARY

Mentorship Programme & Psychological Well-Being Study | N = 174

1. Sample & Data Quality

Table A.1: Case Processing Summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	174	100.0
Excluded	0	0.0
Total	**174**	**100.0**

Table A.2: Reliability Statistics All Scales

Scale	Cronbach's α	α (Standardized)	N of Items
Mentorship Programme Structure	0.842	0.845	5
Mentor Characteristics	0.881	0.883	5
Implementation Strategies	0.865	0.867	5
Barriers to Participation	0.793	0.796	5
Psychological Well-Being	0.874	0.876	5

All Cronbach's alpha values exceed the 0.70 threshold, indicating acceptable internal consistency.

2. Descriptive Statistics

Table A.3: Descriptive Statistics for All Study Variables

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Programme Structure	174	1.00	4.00	2.990	0.672
Mentor Characteristics	174	1.00	4.00	3.234	0.701
Implementation Strategies	174	1.00	4.00	3.056	0.688
Barriers to Participation	174	1.00	4.00	2.924	0.654
Psychological Well-Being	174	1.00	4.00	3.056	0.684

3. Bivariate Correlations

Table A.4: Pearson Correlation Matrix

Variable	Prog. Struct.	Mentor Char.	Impl. Strat.	Barriers	PWB
Programme Structure	1	0.512**	0.548**	-0.423**	0.621**
Mentor Characteristics	0.512**	1	0.589**	-0.387**	0.714**
Impl. Strategies	0.548**	0.589**	1	-0.446**	0.683**
Barriers	-0.423**	-0.387**	-0.446**	1	-0.578**
Psych. Well-Being	0.621**	0.714**	0.683**	-0.578**	1

** *All correlations significant at p < 0.001 (2-tailed). PWB = Psychological Well-Being.*

4. Multiple Regression Analysis

Table A.5: Model Summary

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. Error
1	0.821	0.674	0.665	0.396

Durbin-Watson = 1.892 (no autocorrelation concern).

Table A.6: ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	54.876	4	13.719	87.414	<.001
Residual	26.524	169	0.157		
Total	**81.400**	**173**			

Table A.7: Regression Coefficients

Predictor	B	Std. Err.	β	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.147	0.218	—	5.261	<.001		
Programme Structure	0.312	0.064	0.291	4.875	<.001	0.727	1.376
Mentor Characteristics	0.418	0.072	0.389	5.806	<.001	0.577	1.732
Impl. Strategies	0.356	0.068	0.332	5.235	<.001	0.647	1.545
Barriers to Participation	-0.274	0.058	-0.248	-4.724	<.001	0.940	1.064

Dependent variable: Psychological Well-Being. All VIF values < 2.0 (no multicollinearity).

5. Sample Characteristics

Table A.8: Frequencies Demographics

Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumul. %
Respondent Category	**Freq.**	**%**	**Valid %**	**Cumul. %**
Form Three Students	121	69.5	69.5	69.5
Teachers	33	19.0	19.0	88.5
Mentors	20	11.5	11.5	100.0
Gender	**Freq.**	**%**	**Valid %**	**Cumul. %**
Male	91	52.3	52.3	52.3
Female	83	47.7	47.7	100.0
School Type	**Freq.**	**%**	**Valid %**	**Cumul. %**
Public Secondary School	96	55.2	55.2	55.2
Private Secondary School	78	44.8	44.8	100.0

Total sample: N = 174. Data from five sub-counties in Nairobi County.

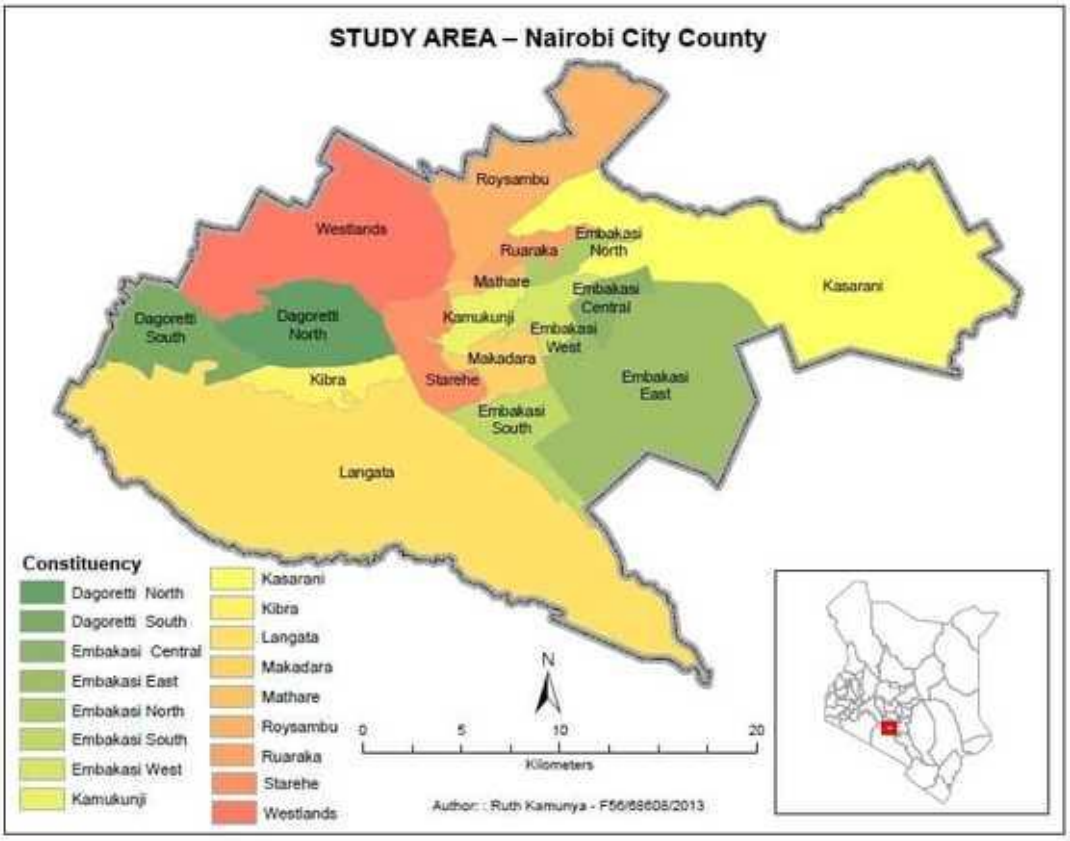
6. Assumption Tests

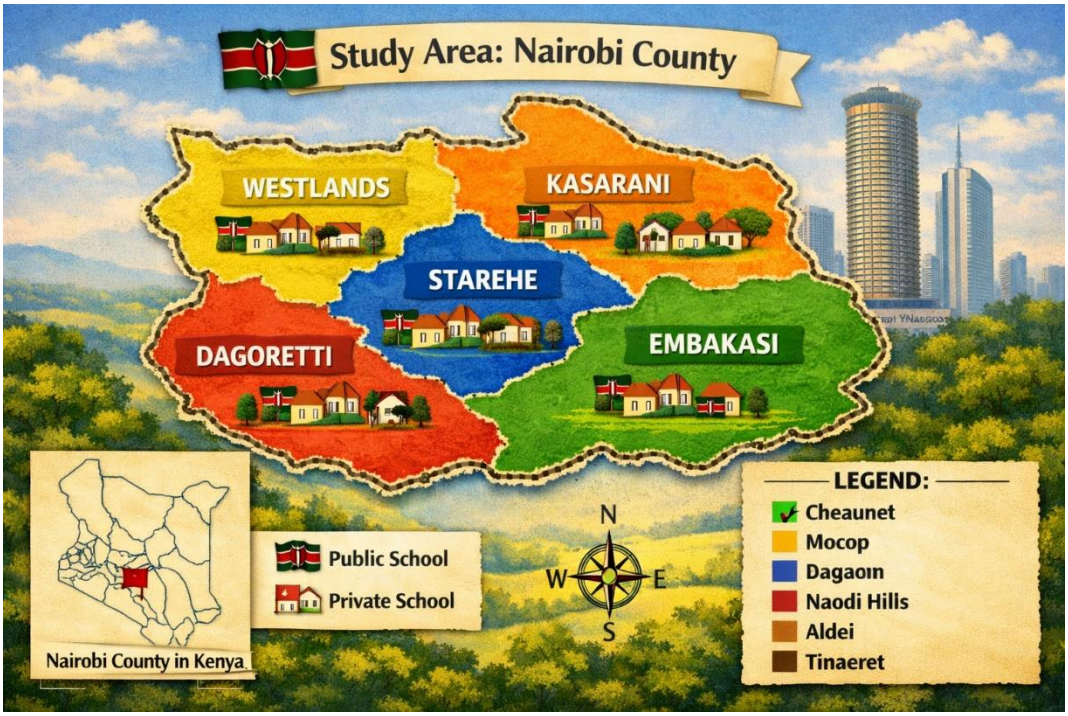
Normality (Shapiro-Wilk): W = 0.991, p = 0.284 residuals are normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity (Breusch-Pagan): LM = 6.014, critical $\chi^2(4) = 9.488$, p = 0.191 homoscedasticity assumption met.

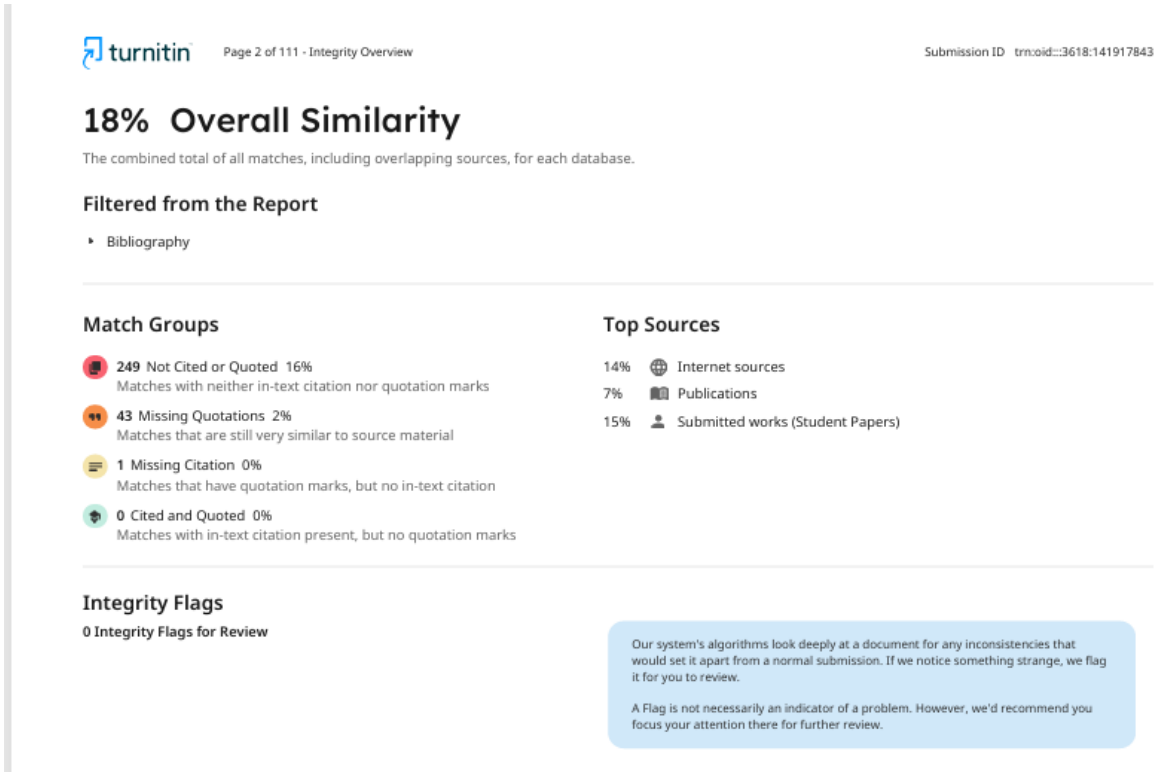
Collinearity: All VIF values range 1.064–1.732 (well below 10); Tolerance values 0.577–0.940. No multicollinearity detected.

APPENDIX VII: MAP OF STUDY SITE





APPENDIX VII: AI ORIGINALITY CHECK CERTIFICATE



turnitin Page 2 of 111 - Integrity Overview Submission ID trn:oid:::3618:141917843

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