

Mentoring and Coaching: The Roles and Practices

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring and coaching are all part of educational training to develop people in the professions. There are several similarities and differences in the main issues involved in mentoring and coaching. They are related to the self-development, professional growth and career development of the mentee/coachee. In establishing the approaches to be used, care must be taken to ensure that each person understands the limits or boundaries of the relationship. Indeed, it may be as important to indicate that there is a way out of the relationship as it is to encourage its development in the first place. Supervisory approaches vary and depend on the people involved, the place of meeting and the terms of the relationship. Not only do mentors/coaches have to play their role but the mentees/coachees too, and all this must be placed within the specific institutional context. Therefore, this paper will be reviewing the literature on mentoring and coaching. In this, roles and practices of mentor/coach and mentee/coachee will be described.

INTRODUCTION

Essentially, learning involves two parties, the teacher (also known as the supervisor, mentor, coach) and the student (known as the trainee, mentee, mentoree, coachee, protégé). The relationship between the teacher and student plays an important role in promoting the student's objectives. Many authors have mentioned the importance of the relationship between a student and a supervisor in this context (Acker *et al.* 1994; Cryer 2000; Graves and Varma 1999; Phillips and Pugh 2000), particularly where the two work closely over a number of years. However, sometimes a problem of compatibility occurs between them and therefore, Hockey (1997) and Wilkin (1992) suggest that they both need to know their roles in order to ensure a good relationship.

This paper will discuss the range of supervisory approaches commonly adopted towards student in order to help them achieve their objectives. In this, roles and practices of mentor/coach and mentee/coachee will be described. Both parties either a mentor/coach or mentee/coachee should play their roles effectively. Like any other technique used in human resource development, these approaches have particular strengths and weaknesses, which may prove unsuitable for some people. Hence, this paper begins with a review of the literature on mentoring followed by the review of the literature on coaching.

MENTORING

Mentor was the name of a character in Greek mythology. Ulysses left his son, Telemachus under the tutelage of his old friend Mentor, who was a wise and trusted adviser or counsellor (Clutterback 1991). It is a word that is often used by academics, politicians, sports people, actors and other performers to describe the person they chose as a role model or someone who had significant early influence on their professional careers. Looking at the origins of this practice, Hamilton (1981) pointed out that it was common in ancient Greece for young males to be partnered with older, experienced males. These were often relatives or friends of the family, and it was expected that the youths would learn from and emulate the values of their assigned mentor. The term mentor thus became synonymous with a wise, faithful guardian and teacher (Cooper and Palmer 1993; Fisher 1994; Smith and West-Burnham 1993) who was typically older, of greater experience and more senior in the world that a young man is entering and should have knowledge and skills to pass on (Carter and Lewis 1994).

Mentoring, it has been argued, is the most effective way to transfer skills and knowledge quickly and inspire loyalty in new employees to co-operate in an organisation (Robinson 2001). It is a word that is often used by academics,

politicians, sports people, actors and other performers to describe the person they chose as a role model or someone who had significant early influence on their professional careers. Generally, it is a popular approach in education and in business. In a recent survey of Fortune 500 companies, 96 percent of executives identified mentoring as an important developmental tool, and 75 percent of them said it had played a key role in their career success (Heinz 2003). A mentor is identified as someone who teaches the student in a personal and close long-term relationship that allows critical concentration on the task performance (Brown and Krager 1985; Kirkham 1993). Before the 1990s, most authors used the word 'supervisor' in reference to a mentor at school with the meaning of someone who directs or oversees and watches over students so as to maintain order (Gardiner 1989), but increasingly, we see references to the mentoring of young people entering the teaching profession.

Bullock (1988) was of the opinion that a mentor should establish a good rapport with his protégés, assess their needs in consultation with other interested and appropriate parties, and end the mentoring relationship at the appropriate time and in an appropriate manner. Thus, each mentoring arrangement is unique, and its particular nature will be established according to the personalities of the two individuals concerned (Mountford 1993). The relationship facilitates another's personal growth and can also encourage and enable learning in order to maximise the mentee's potential, develop their skills, improve their performance and become the person they want to be (Brown and Krager 1985; Fisher 1994; Parsloe 1999). The relationship should be dynamic (Brooks and Sikes 1997; Danziger 2001; Edwards and Collison 1996; Smith and West-Burham 1993) and reciprocal and can be emotionally intense. It should assist with career development (Brown and Krager 1985; Mountford 1993; Smith and West-Burham 1993). Brooks and Sikes (1997) view mentoring as a discrete, self-contained relationship and define the mentor as the skilled craftsperson of the apprenticeship, the trainer, the reflective coach, critical friend and as a co-enquirer in the reflective practitioner tradition.

The Role of an Effective Mentor

There are many views and definitions of the role of a mentor, but all include verbs like support, guide and facilitate. The important aspects have to do with listening, questioning (Brown and Krager 1985; Carter and Lewis 1994; Fisher 1994), and enabling, as distinct from telling, directing and restricting (Parsloe 1999). In other words, most authors highlight that the most important role of the mentor is giving guidance, advice and counsel (Shaw 1992; Wilkin 1992). These roles can help all mentees to review and identify their own strengths and areas for further development, to develop skills and understanding and to plan and implement their own professional development (Mountford 1993). This statement also reflects the views of many authors, since most mentoring involves someone older than the learner, it cannot escape from an advising and counselling environment (Brooks and Sikes 1997). The general role of a mentor involves providing resources and opportunities for development, helping learners to set high but achievable goals, making realistic plans, monitoring progress, providing feedback (Smith 1989), providing a role model (Brown and Krager 1985; Carter and Lewis 1994; Anderson and Shannon 1988) passing on skills, assisting the learner in solving problems and providing personal support and motivation (Shaw 1992).

In the context of training a student to be a teacher, the following are leading roles: (1) training students to teach their particular subjects; (2) developing their understanding of how pupils learn; (3) training them to manage classes and assess pupils; (4) supervising them in relation to school-based elements of the course; and (5) assessing their competence in subject application and classroom skills (Kirkham 1993; Wilkin 1992). Therefore, to develop the student, a mentor needs preparation to fulfil these roles. Smith (1989) states that the success of school-based training and staff development can be highly dependent on the knowledge, skill and personal qualities of the mentor. How a mentor reacts probably depends on which organisation he is in and what role he wants to play. The literature indicates that a mentor can have various roles. In simple terms, successful mentoring involves the responsibility or the ability to respond to what is needed. There are various views about what a good or effective mentor is. However, they all incorporate the idea that a good mentor as usually has positive attitudes, while the opposite is true of a bad mentor.

To be successful, mentors need to possess certain qualities and skills that will help them meet the expectations of the mentoring role. A precise definition is difficult to provide, but the common characteristics of a good mentor include intelligence and integrity, ability, professional attitude, high personal standards, enthusiasm and a willingness to share

accumulated knowledge (Fisher 1994). Mentors must be flexible and willing to accept any decision made by the protégé, whatever the consequences (Carter and Lewis 1994; McIntyre *et al.* 1993). More specifically, Shaw (1992) states that generic mentoring skills include needs analysis, negotiation and conflict solving, giving and receiving positive and negative feedback, observation and assessment, report writing and target setting. In order to be successful and effective, the mentor must have confidence in his or her communication skills (Wilkin 1992). Parsloe (1999) proposes that besides clear role-definition, high quality mentoring is concerned with competence and experience, but it also crucially depends upon the right balance of personal qualities. A mentor will need an understanding, which may be partly intuitive, of what a learner is trying to achieve. Related to this is the fact that mentors also ideally need experience or knowledge of the organisation in which the mentoring relationship takes place (Brankin and Bailey 1992).

According to Parsloe (1992) good mentors are: (1) good motivators, who are perceptive and able to support the objectives of programmes and fulfil their responsibilities to the candidate; (2) high performers, secure in their own occupied position within the organisation and unlikely to feel threatened by, or resentful of, the candidate's opportunity; (3) able to show that a responsibility for mentoring is part of their own occupied job description; (4) able to establish a good and professional relationship, sympathetic, accessible and knowledgeable about the candidate's area of interest; (5) sufficiently senior to be in touch with the corporate structure, sharing the company's values and able to give the candidate access to resources and information; (6) good teachers, able to advise and instruct without interfering, and (7) good negotiators. For Carter and Lewis (1994) a mentor should be credible to a learner and demonstrate an open approach, accessibility and many of the key behaviours that a learner might be trying to develop, such as personal organisation or a managerial style. Carter and Lewis (1994) refer these skills as excellent interpersonal skills. Nias (1989) argues that interpersonal skills like questioning and observation are extremely important. In addition, being a good mentor requires analytical skills like interpretation (Fisher 1994) and creative thinking (Brooks and Sikes 1997). Good mentors will, it seems reasonable to assume, keep to their commitment and want to become even better at their job. Although the qualities and skills that a mentor possesses are vital to the effectiveness of the relationship, the qualities of a mentee are also influenced by the qualities, skills and characteristics of the linked mentor (Carter and Lewis 1994).

It is interesting to note that successful mentoring could be defined by reference to evaluation by the mentee. Carter and Lewis (1994) take the view that a mentor needs to be able to support a learner having regard to his particular strengths and weaknesses in the process of development. Whatever the specific functional or technical skills, at the end of the process or relationship, a learner will probably need to employ some of the following: (1) learning skills; (2) setting goals; (3) identifying own learning needs; (4) planning own learning; (5) listening; (6) accepting help and feedback; and (7) risk taking. It is worth emphasising that mentoring is not an additional management task. Its main function is to enhance performance and to support people in their natural development. For Aldisert (2001), when someone mentors, one of the best ways one can pay back the favour is to mentor someone oneself. The cycle of mentoring is about learning from someone and passing the wisdom along to someone else.

The Role of Mentees and their Relationship with their Mentor

As the relationship involves two parties, the mentee too should play a role in achieving the objectives. As already mentioned, the main objective of mentoring is to encourage and assist in the development and growth of a learner, and to provide the mentee with a resource regarding career aspirations (Danziger 2001). Each mentoring relationship will be different due to the mentee's needs, his or her personal interests, and the unique nature of the mentoring relationship that develops with the mentor. Lee (2003) states that mentors can provide glimpses into the occupations students are drawn to and a clearer vision of the day-to-day reality of working. A mentor can also provide a wide variety of assistance to students, and it is critical that the mentee communicates to the mentor about the areas in which he or she needs the most guidance. Among other things, the mentees need to be: (1) eager to learn and willing to take on new challenges (Robinson 2001); (2) receptive, be open to feedback, viewing it as an opportunity to improve his/herself (Saul 2004); (3) open to new ideas and able to see things from other perspectives (Lee 2003); (4) loyal, not violating confidences or trust (McIntyre *et al.* 1993); and (5) appreciative of the help the mentor is giving (Lee 2003).

Heinz (2003) refers to the mentee's role in a school perspective, pointing out that mentee should manage the relationship by establishing first contact and by continuing the relationship through e-mail, telephone or in person communication. The mentee should also be willing to attend mentor programme events and/or to plan activities, which may enhance the mentoring relationship. The mentee should bear in mind that he or she has to have a sincere interest in developing a personal and professional relationship that supports development towards graduation and securing the job that he or she desires (Stephens 1996). In order to ensure that the relationship is rewarding, mentees should talk to their mentors about what they hope to gain from the experience (Richo 1991). They should also learn about the mentor's experience and how he acquired his current position (Furlong and Maynard 1995). However, Robbins (1991) adds that, to enhance the effectiveness of the relationship, both parties should be on-time. The mentee should accept the mentor's advice (Phillips-Jones 1982), be honest, inform the mentor of his or her relevant training and employment experience, ask clarifying questions and then listen carefully (Flaxman *et al.* 1968).

Training for effective mentoring needs to be seen as a process rather than an event, with scheduled and regular meetings between partners within a partnership on a regular basis to discuss and develop the course, which will be dynamic since contexts (time, schools, mentors) are in constant flux (Mountford 1993). The mentee should make an attempt to contact the mentor at least every three to four weeks so that the relationship can be built and maintained (Davis 2004). Others give different views about the frequency of meeting stating that they should maintain informal contact at least twice per week or that the mentor should complete at least three structured academic activities per semester with the mentee (GreenBay 2004). Whiteside and Lies (2004) give their views on the mentoring of psychologists. They point out that the mentor and mentee should meet at least once to determine whether enough interest and commonality exists to warrant the establishment of a continued relationship. Beyond that, the frequency of meeting and length of association should be mutually decided upon too. Commitments vary widely, in terms of frequency and overall length. The meetings can take place anywhere (Welford 2004). However, there are various views on this matter. It can be seen differentially depending upon many factors such as the mentor-mentee expectations, the organisation of the mentee and how well the relationship has developed.

The focus in the meetings depends on the topics agreed by both parties. However, the way the mentor asks questions can decide or encourage the student to think about and support change in their developing and professional repertoire (Weiss 2001). For example, in the context of the student becoming a teacher, the questions from the mentor can develop an idea of the learner's overall goal. Nevertheless, Wilkin (1992) highlights conversation, and points out that there are five things that need to do in it. The mentor should: (1) negotiate the mentee role, taking care with the evaluation dimension; and (2) if the mentee ask questions, give the rationale for asking them, which is also supported by Strohmeier *et al.* (1993). The mentee should: (3) ask the mentor what he/she wants to report on and discuss; (4) should not make judgments without clarifying their basis, in detail. Also, both mentor and mentee should: (5) beware of regarding the discussion as an opportunity to control, which is also supported by Mitstifer *et al.* (1992). A mentoring relationship may end because the project for which the relationship was begun ends, or, one or the other of the participants no longer has the time or energy for the commitment, or the partners just are not clicking with one another. However, a structured mentoring programme should give benefits in at least three ways, the mentee, the mentor and the agency. As an example a mentee can increase his/her skills and knowledge for professional development, a mentor should have the opportunity to test new ideas and an agency can improve delivery of service by having more informed and skilled staff (Saul 2004).

COACHING

Coaching and mentoring are similar activities and, in the work context a mentor can be called upon to fulfil both roles. The term coaching is often used interchangeably with counselling and mentoring, but many scholars differentiate these activities (Carter and Lewis 1994; Evered and Selman 1989; Kirk *et al.* 1999). Counselling generally addresses the employee's emotional state and the causes of personal crises and problems, and it involves short- term interventions designed to remedy problems that interfere with the employee's job performance (Mink *et al.* 1993), while mentoring typically describes a longer term process that is developmental and career focused and covers all life structures

(Hansman 2002). However, Parsloe (1992) proposes that coaching will be more effective where it is a formal requirement and part of a person's job description. For Pearson (2001), the clear differentiation between the two is that, typically, mentoring is a long-term arrangement and has a wide perspective. A coach may or may not be a member of the same organisation as the coachee, so the coaching arrangement may be short-term for the immediate improvement of performance and its focus may be narrow. They require different methods, in that coaches 'instruct' and mentors 'counsel'. However, in practice, the distinction between coaching and mentoring is not always so clear.

A general literature on coaching exists from a sports and athletics perspective (Parsloe 1992, 1999). As documented by Parsloe (1999), coaching is derived from university slang for a private tutor or instructor in sport. Therefore, much of the literature about coaching in the context of management has been drawn from sports coaching (Evered and Selman 1989). Coaching is, in essence, about human relationships, between the coach and coachee, and the coach and the organisation (Lyle 1985; Pearson 2001). The relationship between coach and athlete is an empathetic one extending beyond the instrumental operation of the process, which takes place over an extended period of time (Lyle 1985). Adler (1965) stated that coaching has long been established in the history of music. Its beginnings can be traced back to the introduction of vocal monody and the appearance of the first operas, roughly around 1600. In the beginning of opera, a musician had to be everything at once: composer, arranger, voice teacher, music teacher, conductor and coach. In music, the purpose of coaching is to build a repertoire and preparation for specific performances-concerts, auditions or contests. In such preparation, the coach must be very persistent, even regarding the most minute details, so that a piece is completely ready for performance.

Antonioni (2000) and Vander (2000) identify coaching in business. Coaching for them is a partnership between a manager and an individual who reports directly to him or her in which the coach focuses on helping the coachee to optimise his or her potential. Coaching can help an organisation create an environment of meaningful jobs and a positive atmosphere by eliminating barriers that prevent employees from reaching their full potential. It can empower employees to be more productive and improve morale (Franklin 2000). It can also help companies to address five common concerns: (1) how to use time effectively and reduce over commitment and stress; (2) how to lead an organisation rather than just manage its day-to-day activities; (3) how to be strategic while being deluged with e-mail, voice mail, fax messages, telephone calls, regular mail and staff members, all requiring responses; (4) how to maximise the effectiveness of staff while avoiding micro-management; and (5) how to deal effectively with difficult employees (Maher 2001). There are three primary strategies for coaching: (1) creation of a relationship between the coach and each individual as a part of the team; (2) observation to uncover technical and skill deficiencies that need coaching; and (3) demonstration of alternative ways to increase an individual's effectiveness (Ridlehuber 2001).

A landmark survey commissioned by Manchester Consulting has revealed the findings about executives coaching. The results show that, 53 percent of executives report a company increase in productivity, while 48 percent report an increase in both quality and organisational strength. Among the personal benefits of coaching, executives report improvements in working relationships (77%); in relationships with immediate supervisors (71%); in teamwork (67%); in relationships with peers (63%); and in job satisfaction (61%) (Bolch 2001). Bolch (2001) proposes that, successful factors for a coaching engagement are: (1) a motivated client; (2) organisational support (Russell 1994); (3) tracking progress; and (4) maintaining dynamics. However, Vander (2000) reports that a successful coaching takes place when a coachee maintains a level of commitment to the coach and client, as well as to the goals. The survey also shows that clients turn to their coach for help with time management (81%), career guidance (74%), and for business advice (74%). To a lesser (but still significant) degree, they seek coaching on relationships and family (59%), wellness (52%) and spirituality (51%).

The Role of an Effective Coach

The coach has often been compared to a teacher (Adler 1965; Frost 1971; Oermann and Garvin 2001). There are many authors who suggest that coaching is a form of facilitating learning (Frost 1971; Mink *et al.* 1993) which is concerned with the improvement of performance and the development of skills (Antonioni 2000; Frost 1971; Gene 2001; Lyle 1985; Ridlehuber 2001). Coach can also be seen as a trainer or counsellor (Lyle 1985) and should be

significant as a source of the guidance (Adler 1965; Lyle 1985; Maher 2001), development, preparation and motivation on how to improve the coachee's performance (Lyle 1985). Parsloe (1999) suggests that the coach's role should include, analysing current performance, planning suitable learning, implementing the plan and evaluating performance. According to Antonioni (2000) and Bolch (2001), a coach should also be expert in change, spot strengths and limitations, help to crystallise visions and values, clarify and define strategy, coordinate resources to achieve goals, optimise performance, satisfaction and balance in life and stay accountable to a vision. In other words, a coach can be seen as influencing individuals' personal development and a having an ability to achieve appropriate objectives (Pearson 2001; Smith 2004).

In the business context, a coach is part consultant and part motivator, who works in helping the coachee to define and achieve their goals (Frost 1971; Maher 2001). These might be career-oriented or personal, and often they are both. Unlike a therapist, a coach is more concerned with the future than with the past, with action than with introspection and with how things can happen rather than why they have done so. Unlike a traditional consultant, a coach creates solutions with the client rather than telling him or her what to do (Beam 2001). According to Maher (2001) an executive coach can provide insights into current problems and suggest a wide range of options. On the other hand, Smith (2004) takes the view that such a coach should help the coachee to think things through, develop structures up on which to base action, monitor the progress in order for the coachee to succeed and keep on the right track, and help to avoid common management pitfalls.

In the context of sport, the main function in the role of a coach is to assist the athletes or the team to improve their performance. To achieve this, the coach mediates between the athletes and their objectives (Lyle 1985). Bowers *et al.* (1972) suggest that the coach's role includes offering encouragement and moral support from behind the lines and being physically present when that is necessary for the best and safest performance of competitors. A coach who is indifferent to the outcome of the meeting or has the old attitude that 'the score does not count, only the way you play the game' will seldom produce teams that do their best under pressure. Producing this delicate balance is one of the most difficult jobs a coach has. Bowers *et al.* (1972) and Frost (1971) also state that it is important for the coach to understand the aims and motivations of all the athletes. In order to take on this great responsibility, he should first be at peace with himself, so that he can concentrate on the reactions of students. To fulfil his responsibility, he must be adaptable, imaginative, creative and capable of being a leader (Adler 1965; Antonioni 2000; Frost 1971; Gene 2001; Maher 2001).

Oermann and Garvin (2001) exploring the responsibilities of a coach in the nursing context, state that, when coaching a new graduate these include: (1) assessing gaps in their knowledge and skills; (2) providing necessary instruction; (3) being available to them during new situations and procedures; (4) increasing patient assignments; and (5) developing a supportive relationship. They also mention that a coach should maintain realistic expectations, particularly in the areas of technical skills and clinical knowledge, critical thinking and decision making. This is because the new graduates need time to develop their knowledge and skills. According to Oermann and Garvin, a successful teacher: (1) recognises the individual differences and competencies of each graduate; (2) plans assignments and learning activities that develop lacking competencies; (3) gradually increases workload and patient responsibilities; (4) remains available to help organise care and make clinical judgments; (5) meets with the new graduates throughout the day to answer questions; and (6) holds a debriefing session at the end of the day.

Discussion will now centre on the qualities of the effective coach, and, in particular, the skills needed. It is important that a coach has 'appropriate qualifications' (Adler 1965; Antonioni 2000; Bowers *et al.* 1972; Frost 1971). In the partnership, the coach uses a non-judgmental style and the skill of inquiry to help individuals enhance their abilities, knowledge and skills (Vander 2000). It is common that the process of learning is achieved through a combination of doing, seeing and hearing (All England Women's Hockey Association 1983). Over-all, there is general agreement that the skills required of an effective coach are listening skills, analytical skills, interviewing skills, effective questioning techniques, observation, giving and receiving performance feedback (Bolch 2001; Franklin 2000; Gene 2001; Ridlehuber 2001), communicating (Frost 1971), setting clear expectations, and creating a supportive environment conducive to coaching (Antonioni 2000; Smith 2004). Therefore, in some cases, coaches need to develop strategies to help individuals learn how to accept constructive feedback in addition to developing an action plan for improvement (Antonioni 2000, Gene 2001). For Adler (1965) for example, the coach in a musical environment must be a good sight-

reader and have the ability to transpose.

For Maher (2001), coaching in the performance of effective leadership can help a company, but requires three distinct types of intelligence in the coach: cognitive, emotional and behavioural. Most company executives have the first type of intelligence. Their innate cognitive intelligence has qualified them to become leaders in the first place. Emotional and behavioural intelligence are rarer and usually need to be developed. Emotional intelligence concerns the development of effective personal and interpersonal styles. Maher describes five components of emotional intelligence that are characteristic of leaders: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. The third type of leadership intelligence is behavioural intelligence, which concerns the specific actions required to create a vision and translate it into reality. Using the concepts of emotional and behavioural intelligence provides a context for exploring leadership issues and developing skills that would not have come up on their own. For Parsloe (1999), the three important skills the coach should acquire are core skills, technical skills and personal skills. Core skills, which are common to mentoring and assessing, include listening, observing, demonstrating and responding to situations. Technical skills are related to each learner being coached using a different coaching style to fit the performance goals of the learner. Finally, personal skills, which relate to the style and tone of the coach's behaviour, include using good communication, giving support, building confidence and empathising with learners' thoughts and ideas.

According to Beam (2001), a good coach must: (1) have a general sense of what the supervisee wants to work on or clarify expectations; (2) evaluate the personal chemistry; and (3) set an initial timeframe and establish checkpoints along the way to measure progress and make midcourse correction. Also, his professional qualifications should be checked. On the other hand, Franklin (2000) states that rather than telling employees how to solve a problem, an effective coach should be available, give employees the benefit of his expertise and let those who are self-reliant figure out solutions on their own. A relationship based on trust must be the foundation of successful coaching (Ahern 2003; Manager's Intelligence Report 2001; Nasser and Maglitta 1989; Ridlehuber 2001; Seifert 2004). Effective coaches must show confidence in the individuals they are coaching, confidence in their knowledge, skills, willingness to learn and willingness to become more effective. A coach must earn the respect of those they work with by setting examples or sharing stories from their own experiences. Before suggesting ideas and sharing experiences with staff members, a coach should have a clear understanding of each individual's knowledge base as well as his or her strengths and skills by conducting observation (Ridlehuber 2001).

According to Frost (1971), effective coaches should be measured by looking at positive performances, winning teams and successful business organisations. However, Russell (1994) disagrees with this statement, believing that successful coaches are not necessarily those who have the best players or winning teams, but that players should be given the motivational tools to perform at extraordinary levels. Furthermore, Bowers *et al.* (1972) also agree that coaches who are successful are not necessarily effective coaches. There are many other factors involved. Bowers *et al.* (1972) point out that a coach will either know her area well or will not be ashamed to admit her weaknesses and learn along with her students in order to be better prepared in the future. Additionally, Franklin (2000) states that, in the sports context, the role of the coach is to make maximum use of players' talents. In business, a corporate coach does much the same thing by helping employees develop and use their skills in the most effective way. Therefore, the role of both the athletic and corporate coach is to create an environment where there exists challenge and the possibility of personal growth, which allows individuals to achieve their best (Franklin 2000; Russell 1994). Evans (1987) proposes that the best approach to coaching in sport always involves the concept of 'athlete first, winning second'. This idea of the athlete before winning is also supported in the philosophical studies of Fry (2000) who contend that a coach must see each athlete as an 'end in themselves' and not just 'a means to an end'.

The ROLE OF COACHEES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR COACH

In general, a coachee should define his or her own goals. In business, coaching is designed to support the coachee in achieving greater success in his/her career. Coachees should be open to feedback, flexible, and willing to see themselves as others see them. They must have a commitment to improve and own behavioural causes and outcomes (Xavier 2004). If a coachee can make an evaluation of himself, at the end of the day, he can expect to: (1) enhance his

self-awareness, learning from mistakes and successes; (2) identify and overcome obstacles; (3) develop new ideas and strategies; (4) build self-confidence and self-reliance; (5) develop and apply new skill; and (6) design action plans, and follow them through in order to advance the career (Seifert 2004). However, the Manager's Intelligence Report (2001) suggests that a coachee should first identify the challenge, which means the aspects of his or her work that present the most problems. Secondly, he/she should assess his/her skills and organisational *savior-faire*. This is important because it can help the coach to determine the level of preparation and the knowledge about the company that he needs in order to provide the training. Thirdly, the coachee should show his or her readiness to learn to make the relationship work.

According to Bolch (2001), some coaches insist on face-to-face meetings, while others rely more on phone calls or e-mail discussion. On the other hand, Nasser (2004) suggests that, in the business context, the frequency of meeting should depend on the urgency of the goals, while Xavier (2004) proposes that it should depend on the level of involvement of the person being coached. It can be once a week, or at other times once every two or three weeks to allow the coachee time for research and practice (Nasser 2004). According to Antonioni (2000), coaching is a process that works best when it occurs daily. It should not be a formal event that happens only a few times a year (six months to a year) (Xavier 2004). Bolch (2001) points out that most coaches agree that the personal touch is best when establishing a coaching relationship. After the groundwork has been laid, phone calls or e-mail can solve small problems, but nothing can replace live interaction. Vander (2000) states that coaching is efficient, flexible and portable, which means it will not take up too much of time. Sessions typically run half an hour to one hour per week by phone, but coaches should encourage and welcome e-mail and fax contacts between sessions. Xavier (2004) suggests that the meeting should be about 90-120 minutes per month for a period of six to twelve months. According to Antonioni (2000), most coaching conversations are brief, lasting five to fifteen minutes. Brief conversations have more impact, while longer conversations tend to open the door for issue jumping and excessive feedback, which can lead to defensive conversations. Short periods of coaching are also more realistic to schedule, because they leave time for other high priority tasks. As suggested in the Manager's Intelligence Report (2000), the following five-step strategy can build a better coaching relationship: (1) start with a face-to-face meeting to establish trust; (2) discuss confidentiality and parameters which are intended to help the coachee perform at his or her best; (3) lay out the goals which both parties will need to decide on; (4) make a contact for the initial meeting; and (5) give feedback, which hopefully, can raise important questions and even boost self-confidence. However, Bernard (1994) suggests that, a coachee primarily engages in four basic processes during a meeting: (1) coming up with ideas, which requires a lot of thinking; (2) investing ideas with power; (3) communicating; and (4) giving feedback on performance.

CONCLUSION

There are several similarities and differences in the main issues involved in mentoring and coaching, which have been discussed in this paper. Mentoring and coaching are all part of educational training to develop people in the professions. They are related to the self-development, professional growth and career development of the supervisee. The mentor's/coach's/ role is to help learners to achieve their goals by acting as counsellor, facilitator, advisor and guide. Counselling is an important function in relation to the above-mentioned because it can lead to an improved relationship between the supervisor and supervisee. It consists of support, feedback, providing counsel, consultation, teaching, evaluation, motivation and the monitoring of professional issues. One of the important functions of a supervisor is to be a role model for the supervisee. This view is supported by many authors who have mentioned that the supervisor is someone who has greater experience and helps less skilled or less experienced practitioners to achieve professional abilities.

In order to react effectively, a mentor/coach/ must: (1) have certain goals and plans; (2) be a good communicator; (3) have the knowledge and relevant skills about the candidate's area of interest; (4) be able to establish a good and professional relationship; and (5) be flexible in supervision strategies depending on the individual requirements. In maintaining a good relationship, the supervisor and supervisee must have certain goals or objectives. The relationship will focus on these and both parties must trust, respect, empathise and be honest with each other. An effective supervisor will have access to a range of teaching and learning methods, and will be able to adapt to individual

supervisees and to provide clear and focused feedback to facilitate learning. A good relationship can make both parties comfortable with meeting regularly and sharing ideas or knowledge with a view to supervisee development. As a student, one must be eager to learn, enhance ones self-awareness, learn from mistakes and successes, develop and apply new skills and design action plans or timetables. In addition, he/she must be diligent, conscientious and hardworking, open to criticism, willing to listen to others and to talk openly.

The mentor/coach and mentee/coachee should have regular meetings. The meetings can be face-to-face. On the other hand, some students rely more on phone calls or e-mail discussion. However, face-to-face meetings are the most practical in mentoring, coaching, clinical supervision or research student supervision. In mentoring, the mentee and mentor should make an attempt to contact each other at least every two to four weeks. Meetings vary widely, in frequency and overall length. At the same time, in coaching, the frequency of meetings should depend on the urgency of the goals and the level of involvement of the person being coached and can be either once a week to every two or three weeks. In summary, both parties either a student or supervisor should play their roles effectively in order to achieve any objectives.

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