EXPLORING COACHING AND MENTORING MODELS FOR EFFECTIVE HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Norhasni ZAINAL ABIDDIN*

Aminuddin HASSAN**

Abstracts

There are various mentoring and coaching models. A mentoring/coaching model gives structure to mentoring/coaching. Models help to provide a framework for mentoring/coaching sessions. Different models provide alternative perspectives to help the mentee/coachee in a variety ways. It is a strategy that allows a mentor/coach, to help a mentees/coachees see a path to reach their goals. How to achieve results as a mentor/coach is increased by learning how to use one or more approaches/models. A mentoring/coaching model acts as a guideline. It is a strategic way to find solutions, change behaviors, get rid of limiting beliefs, achieve growth and reach the mentee/coachee goals. This article is designed to summarize existing literature on mentoring and coaching models in order to assist coach-coachee in enhancing the best practices in mentoring/coaching for effective human resource development.

Key words: Coaching, Mentoring, Coach, Mentee, Model, Human Resource Development

Introduction

Coaching is the support for learning job-related skills that is provided by a colleague who uses observation; data collection; and descriptive, non-judgmental reporting on specific requested behaviors and technical skills. The coach must use open-ended questions to help the other employee more objectively see his or her own patterns of behavior, and to prompt reflection, goal-setting, planning and action to increase the desired results. Mentoring is the all-inclusive description of everything done to support protégé orientation and professional development. It includes creating the relationship, emotional safety, and the cultural norms needed for risk taking for the sake of learning, and the desired result of accelerated professional growth. Coaching is one of the strategies that mentors must learn and effectively use to increase their protégés' job skills. Therefore, we need both to maximize employee learning (Mentoring Association, 2010).

A combination of coaching and mentoring as a follow up support system to training appears to be the most powerful strategy for employee performance improvement and human resource development. That makes good sense because training provides the knowledge and initial skills development, and mentoring and coaching provide the on-going support and structures for development of skill mastery and implementation of better practices in the employee's daily work. Neither training nor mentoring/coaching alone is enough to ensure the protégé's performance is what is needed (Mentoring Association, 2010).

In the most general sense, a model is anything used in any way to represent anything else. They are used to help us know and understand the subject matter they represent (Wikipedia, 2010). There are various mentoring and coaching models that could be used. Models help to provide a framework for a mentoring/coaching session, helping it to be a meaningful conversation with a defined outcome rather

* Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia
** Department of Foundations of Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia

than just a chat with no clear purpose. Different models provide alternative perspectives prompting different questions to help the mentee/coachee in a variety ways. The skill of the mentor/coach is in knowing what the client needs at a particular moment so a toolkit of different models is helpful to draw upon and use as appropriate. Some mentoring/coaching approaches do not use models at all and some mentees/coaches would argue that models are constraining. Instead emphasis is put on the mentor/coach responding entirely to the mentee/coachee and their needs at a particular point in time, more emphasis being put on the process of mentoring/coaching itself such as raising awareness, generating responsibility and building self-belief in the mentee/coachee, rather than generating specific actions (Personal Coaching, 2010)

According to Cortes (2010), a mentoring/coaching model gives structure to mentoring/coaching. It is a strategy that allows a mentor/coach, to help the clients see a path to reach their goals. How to achieve results as a mentor/coach is increased by learning how to use one or more approaches/models. A mentoring/coaching model acts as a guideline, it will not tell what to do but rather help by providing a framework for doing things. It is a strategic way to find solutions, change behaviors, get rid of limiting beliefs, achieve growth and reach the coachee goals. As there are many mentoring/coaching niches, there are as many mentoring/coaching methodologies to go along with them. A mentor/coach may not need to be an expert in all mentoring/coaching approaches, but mentors/coaches eventually have to explain to clients how he/she is going to help them achieve their goals. It makes sense to learn many approaches/models. Some are better suited for some behaviors or situations, and as a mentor/coach he/she needs different angles to help clients find a solution.

This article explores a review of the literature on mentoring and coaching models commonly adopted towards trainee in order to help them achieve their goals. It aims to provide an overview of the different theoretically and empirically derived models.

The Mentoring Model

There are many models of mentoring. The selection of the best suited model should be based on the trainee's needs and organizational contexts. The mentoring models discussed in this article are: (1) The Counselling Model for Effective Helping; (2) The Competence-Based Model and the Mentor as Trainer; (3) The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring; (4) The Reflective Practitioner Model; and (5) The True and Pseudo Mentoring Relationship.

The Counselling Model for Effective Helping

Effective mentors will use counselling skills to enhance the achievements of students. Egan (1998) describes the three stages of counselling as: (1) identifying and clarifying problem situations and unused opportunities; (2) goal setting with the developing of a more desirable scenario; and (3) action and moving towards the preferred scenario. These three steps can be used when giving students guidance and support in working out their own action plans. Integral to the process is the concept of client self-responsibility, which is strengthened by success, modelling, encouragement and reducing fear or anxiety. In the context of teacher training, mentoring is essentially about classroom craft and articulating the knowledge, theory, skills and experience which make trainees into good teachers. Successful counselling by the mentor will both depend on and enhance the ability of the trainee to be self-aware and engage in constructive self-appraisal of his or her practice.

Besides, this model also underlines the importance of negotiation and problem-solving in sorting out conflict. It is important that all parties involved are able to maintain their self-esteem at all stages in the negotiation. The basic skills of good negotiation are anticipating and avoiding possible conflict, non-confrontational verbal or body language, good verbal and non-verbal communication, choosing appropriate settings for the negotiation to take place, clearly identifying and separating issues, the ability to review and summarises the other person's points, acknowledging the value of the other person's point of view and identifying issues of agreement (Egan, 1998).

The Competence-Based Model and the Mentor as Trainer

As stated by Brooks and Sikes (1997), this model is based on the view that teaching involves the acquisition of a specific set of competencies. In this approach, the mentor's role is fundamentally to act as a systematic trainer who observes the trainee with a pre-defined observation schedule and who provides regular feedback upon the progress made by the trainee in mastering the required skills. This is in effect the role of a coach. This approach has the advantage that standards and expectations are clear to both mentor and trainee. Certainly, the mentee will benefit from knowing about the standards as learning goals from the beginning of their course and using the standard statements regularly with mentors to chart their progress. Nonetheless, critics of competence training in education have argued that teaching cannot easily be broken down into a series of tasks. The fact that the 'standards' are currently under revision is an indication of the level of debate which has been generated in the education world about how to describe the complex act of teaching. In summary, the competence model, in which the mentor performs the role of a trainer, is central to government thinking and provides the basis for the regulations with which all initial teacher education courses must comply.

The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring

The Furlong and Maynard (1995) Model of Mentoring, which is empirically based. They propose that good-quality mentoring is a complex, sophisticated and multifaceted activity incorporating different strategies and requiring high-level skills. Furlong and Maynard's Model is a staged one which depicts learning to teach as a series of overlapping phases in which mentoring strategies need to be carefully matched to students' developmental needs as stated in Table 1. Therefore, the stages need to be interpreted flexibly and with sensitivity. The model is grounded in the conviction that:

Like any form of teaching, mentoring must be built on a clear understanding of the learning processes it is intended to support students. Mentoring cannot be developed in a vacuum, it must be built on an informed understanding of how students develop (Furlong and Maynard, 1995).

Table 1: The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring

Stage	Focus on Student Learning	Mentoring Role	Key Mentoring Strategies
Beginning Teaching	Rules, rituals and routines; establishing authority	Model	Student observation and collaborative teaching focused on rules and routines
Supervised Teaching	Teaching competence	Coach	Observation by the student; systematic observation and feedback on student's performance
From Teaching to Learning	Understanding pupil learning developing effective teaching	Critical friend	Student observation; re-examining lesson planning
Autonomous Teaching	Investigating the grounds for practice	Co-enquirer	Partnership teaching, partnership supervision

Source: Adapted from Furlong and Maynard (1995).

If the points stated in Furlong and Maynard's Model are accepted: (1) effective mentoring is based not on a single generic model but is a collection of strategies used flexibly and sensitively in response to changing needs; (2) different stages in the mentoring process are likely to be cumulative rather than sequential. As the course progresses, the range of strategies employed is likely to expand and the balance between them is likely to shift; (3) mentoring is an individualised form of training, often

conducted on a one-to-one-basis, which needs to be tailored to the needs of the individual; and (4) mentoring is a dynamic process, aimed at propelling students forward, which needs to combine support with challenge.

The Reflective Practitioner Model

Arthur et al. (1997) argue that teaching involves values and attitudes, which are largely ignored in the competence models. They note that the terms reflection and critical reflection are used in many descriptions of approaches to teacher education. It should, however, be noted that there is no one specific set of strategies constituting the reflective practitioner approach. Some writers stress that the reflective practitioner should be concerned with the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching as well as the pedagogical and practical ones. Hence, the term reflective practitioner has been used in different ways. Also, it is worth noting that research by Tann (1994) suggests that many students want mentors to just give them their opinions on their teaching, rather than to question them and encourage them to reflect. However, it has also been argued that by reflecting on practice students can derive 'personal theory' from experience and may relate this to formal theory which they have acquired from reading and other sources.

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

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

The True and Pseudo Mentoring Relationship

Classical mentoring and contract mentoring can be considered as true mentoring, as both contain the vital elements essential to mentoring, namely the helper functions, mutuality and sharing, and identified stages and duration. Pseudo-mentoring or quasi-mentoring approaches have probably occurred due to the initial lack of understanding of the roles, purposes, processes and formal applications of mentoring (Cooper and Palmer, 1993). In business, the emphasis is for the mentor to function as a sponsor, guide or net-worker within a competitive culture that is often male-dominated. The main focus has been on career guidance, executive nurturing and managerial support, with informal or formal, planned programmes of contract or facilitated mentoring (Murray and Owen, 1991). Cooper and Palmer (1993) elaborate the relationship as follows:

Jointly attracted by each other's qualities and attributes, in classical mentoring the mentor and mentoree are free to develop the relationship in the manner of their choosing. The emphasis is on informality. In classical mentoring the nature and terms of the relationship are set informally by the people involved. Contact mentoring concerns the adaptation of classical mentoring and its resulting application within structured programmes. The people involved are obliged to achieve the identified aims, purposes and outcomes of a recognised programme of development and support.

In classical mentoring, the central focus of the partnership is on the mutual trust of two adult individuals attracted by the possibility of what has been described as a 'mentor signal' (George and Kummerow, 1981). In the early stages of the relationship, the mentee may appear dependent or reliant on the mentor in terms of the intensity of the support offered. As the relationship develops, this intensity will change as the needs and priorities of the mentee change. The aspects of mentoring that set it apart from other, more specific relationships and give it its multidimensional and dynamic nature are: (1) the repertoire of helper functions; (2) mutuality and reciprocal sharing; and (3) the fact that duration identifies the stages and transitional nature of the relationship. These required elements match those of Darling (1984), who maintains that the vital ingredients for mentoring are attraction, action and effect.

The Coaching Model

There are many models of coaching. All have their own strengths, which can be seen by looking at the coaching goals. There are three coaching models reviewed in this article: Schon's Three Models, The GROW Model and The Coaching Method Model.

Schon's Three Models

Schon's Three Models are as follows: (1) Joint Experimentation Model; (2) Follow Me; and (3) Hall of Mirrors. These are three ideal types and are in practice more often found together, as coach and coachee shift from one to the other. In Schon (1987) the coach is male and the practitioner or coachee is female.

Joint Experimentation Model

In Joint Experimentation, the coach first seeks to help a student formulate what she wants to achieve, and then via demonstration or description, they explore different ways of doing this. The coach's skill is in leading the student to search for a suitable means of achieving the desired objective. Having risked saying what she wants, she then risks experimenting in new ways. According to Schon (1987), the more the coach knows about the problem, the harder it is not to tell the student how to solve it or to solve it for her. This joint experimentation can only succeed when the student can already say what she wants to produce. The experimentation is in the processes for achieving the stated ends. During these, because of the unique and unpredictable nature of each situation, the student and coach work together to learn from it, but use orthodox methods. This approach is therefore inappropriate when wholly new ways of seeing and doing are required.

Follow Me

In Follow Me, the coach's skill consists in his capacity to improvise a complete performance and, within this, to share short examples of reflection-in-action. Here, the relation between the whole performance and its parts is crucial. The coach demonstrates a number of ways of breaking down the whole into parts and reassembling these into the whole in a more understandable way. The student attempts to imitate him, and the coach and student respond to each other. Here, the student's skill is to keep as many possibilities as feasible alive in her mind, temporarily suspending her own intentions while she observes the coach and tries to follow him, attempting to reproduce his operations in order to discover their meaning. She then decodes his response, testing whether the meanings she has constructed as a

result are like his. By this means, she will gain some of the coach's understanding but will then utilise this ultimately in her own way (Schon, 1987).

Hall of Mirrors

In the Hall of Mirrors, the student and coach continually shift perspectives. Their interaction is at one moment a re-enacting of some aspect of the student's practice and at another a dialogue about it, at another a modelling of its redesign. They continually take a two-tiered view of their interaction, seeing it for itself, and as a mirror to reflect back to the student what she has brought to that interaction. The coach's skill is in showing his own confusions authentically in order to enable the student to see error or failure as a learning opportunity. However, the Hall of Mirrors can only work on the basis of parallels between practice and the practicum, as for example, when the kind of enquiry established in the practicum resembles the inquiry that the student seeks to exemplify in real practice. Therefore, in all of the above models, it is important for both student and coach to assess their own learning. Thus, to do their jobs well, they become researchers, each enquiring consciously into his or her own and each other's changing understandings. However, this enquiry takes place under difficult conditions because of the complexity of the human situations of which they are part, and because they are often unaware of what they already know. Their tacit knowledge as well as their confusions, their beliefs and doubts, needs to be examined. Talking to each other and working together are the main means of so doing (Schon, 1987).

GROW Model

This model involves four phases, for which GROW is an acronym (Goal, Reality, Options, What). This means that firstly the individual must set overall goals and goals for individual sessions, secondly, he must find out the current position or reality. Thirdly, he must generate options with plans and strategies and finally he must decide what is to be done by whom, when and how (Carter and Lewis, 1994; Pearson, 2001). This coaching method explains the GROW sequence in detail and introduces the concept of SMART (Specific, Measurable, Agreed on, Realistic, Timed) goals. It provides the coachee with the opportunity to practise coaching a colleague through the whole GROW sequence or with a powerful way to turn team meetings into goal-focused events. The coachee can also use the GROW sequence to focus on creating an action plan to ensure that clear decisions are made, team members own the actions agreed, and decisions are carried through to successful completion (Pearson, 2001). Antonioni (2000) suggests a quite similar model to the GROW model involving the following seven primary steps: (1) making observations; (2) conducting an analysis; (3) giving feedback; (4) engaging in enquiry; (5) setting goals; (6) planning action steps; and (7) recognising improvements. Step seven recycles into step one, with both parties either focusing on the original improvement goal or setting a new one. In step two, coaches must determine how the system may contribute to the gap between an individual's desired and actual performance.

The Coaching Method Model

Parsloe (1999) suggests that there are four coaching methods, which he calls hands-on, hands-off, supporter and qualifier. Hands-on is when the coach is acting as an instructor when working with inexperienced learners, whereas hands-off is best for developing higher performance with experienced learners. The supporter method can be used when helping learners to use a flexible learning package technique and the qualifier method is suitable in helping a learner develop a specific requirement for a competence-based or professional qualification. The basic coaching process and the necessary knowledge and skills also apply to the other two main coaching roles identified, the supporter and the qualifier method. This method of learning is a very inexpensive way of providing learners with a body of learning resources compared to the cost of full-time tutors and classroom-based activities. Learners can choose both the way they would like to use the learning resources and also the time and pace to suit the pressures of their environment. The qualifier method will usually apply in situations where a candidate for a competence-based or professional qualification identifies a specific performance task in which he/she needs to develop competence as part of a larger qualification programme. A typical situation might be for

a candidate to develop competence in preparing a marketing plan, using a spreadsheet, chairing a meeting or inputting and retrieving information from a database.

Conclusion

This article provides common mentoring and coaching models that inform mentoring and coaching practice. A combination of coaching and mentoring as a follow up support system to training appears to be the most powerful strategy for employee performance improvement and human resource development. Neither training nor mentoring alone is enough to ensure the protégé's performance is what is needed. The mentoring models discussed in this article are: (1) The Counselling Model for Effective Helping; (2) The Competence-Based Model and the Mentor as Trainer; (3) The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring; (4) The Reflective Practitioner Model; and (5) The True and Pseudo Mentoring Relationship. For coaching, there are three models reviewed in this article namely: (1) Schon's Three Models, (2) The GROW Model, and (3) The Coaching Method Model. There are many models of mentoring and coaching and all have their own strengths. The selection of the best suited model should be based on the mentee's/coachee's needs and organizational contexts.

REFERENCES

ANTONIONI, D. (2000). "Leading, Managing and Coaching", *Industrial Management,* 42(5), 27- 34.

ARTHUR, J., Davison, J. and Moss, J. (1997). *Subject Mentoring in the Secondary School.* London: Routledge.

BROOKS, V. and Sikes, P. (1997). *The Good Mentor Guide- Initial Teacher Education in Secondary Schools,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

CARTER, S. and Lewis, G. (1994). *Successful Mentoring in a Week,* London: Headway.

COOPER, A. M. and Palmer. A. (1993). *Mentoring and Preceptorship- A Guide to Support Roles in Clinical Practic,* London: Blackwell Scientific Publications.

CORTER, J. P. (2010). *Why coaching models are important for developing your coaching practice?* Available at: http://www.what-is-coaching.com/coaching-models.html (Accessed August 9, 2010).

DARLING, L. A. W. (1984). *What do Nurses Want in a Mentors?, Nurse Educator*, 11(2), 29-30.

EGAN, G. (1998). *The Skilled Helper- A Problem-Management Approach to Helping (6th ed.),* Pacific Grove, California: Brooks/Cole.

ELLIOT, J. (1991). "A Model of Professionalism and its Implications for Teacher Education", *British Educational Research Journal.* 17(4), 309-18.

FURLONG, J. and Maynard, T. (1995). *Mentoring Student Teachers- The Growth of Professional Knowledge,* London: Routledge.

GEORGE, P. and Kummerow, J. (1981). "Mentoring for Career Women", *Training,* 18(2), 46-49.

Mentoring Association. (2010). *How is coaching different from mentoring,* Available at: http://www.mentoring-association.org/faqs.html (Accessed August 9, 2010).

MURRAY, M. and Owen, M. A. (1991). *Beyond the Myths and Magic of Mentoring: How to Facilitate an Effective Mentor Program,* Oxford: Jossey-Bass.

PARSLOE, E. (1999). *The Manager as a Coach and Mentor,* London: The Guernsey Press.

PEARSON, G. (2001). *Coaching: The Latest Buzz Word and Business Fad, or an Invaluable and Indispensable Activity for All Organisations?,* Available at: http://www.acrpi.com/crf/12-2pearson.html (Accessed March 19, 2004).

Personal Coaching. (2010). *Coaching Models.* http://www.personal-coaching-information.com/effective-coaching-models.html (Accessed August 9, 2010).

POLLARD, A. (2001). *Reflective Teaching in the Primary School: A Handbook for the Classroom (3rd ed.,* London: Cassell.

SCHON, D. A. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner,* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

TANN, S. (1994). *Supporting the Student Teacher in the Classroom,* In Wilkin, M. (1992). Mentoring in Schools. London: Kogan Page.

Wikipedia. (2010). *Models.* Available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Model

http://www.mentoring-association.org/faqs.html (Accessed August 9, 2010).