

The SAGE Handbook of Management Learning, Education and Development

Coaching and Mentoring in Support of Management Development 1

David Clutterbuck

This chapter aims to provide an overview of two closely related and often confused forms of developmental intervention within organisations. Both coaching and mentoring appear in a number of forms, influenced by culture, context and purpose. We explore the origins of supported mentoring and coaching, the applications, the benefits, competencies and some aspects of efficacy.

Ask an assembled group of managers how many have a clear perception of the difference between coaching and mentoring and at the least a substantial minority will admit that they are very confused. The two terms are often used interchangeably. Members of a particular professional group may attempt to seize the practitioner high ground by depicting coaching as a highly skilled, non-directive endeavour and mentoring as a directive, instinctive form of advising; only to be refuted by another group, which entirely reverses the definitional characteristics. Even the European Mentoring and Coaching Council, the most active body in bringing the worlds of coaching and mentoring together, cannot achieve a single definition acceptable to all.

The origins of this confusion lie in recent history and in the ways that different cultures and professions have established the one-to-one developmental alliance in the light of their own experiences. But the story of mentoring in particular goes back much further. Mentor was a character in the *Odyssey*, the old courtier, in whose care King Odysseus leaves his son Telemachus, while he fights the Trojan wars and finds his way home. Even the name Mentor has more than one interpretation. Homer no doubt meant it to signify a *minder* – someone who looked after the prince – but European tradition, through the adaptation of the Mentor story by a French cleric in the 17th century (Fenelon, 1699) interprets it more as someone, *who makes you think*. To make matters more complicated, the character Mentor was depicted in both accounts as a blithering old fool; it is the goddess Athena (who represents wisdom, amongst other virtues), who takes the lead role in developing Telemachus.

The term coaching is reported to have originated in the Universities of Warsaw, where the best teachers were compared to the most luxurious and well-constructed horse-drawn vehicles of the time. However, it has also attracted an association with the concept of coaxing – leading by encouragement.

Mentoring and coaching became established as learning tools long before they gained the names we give them today. The apprenticeship system of the Middle Ages in Europe, for example, was based on a relationship which, at its best conflated the two concepts. The master craftsman was both coach (passing on skills) and mentor (providing wider personal development).

Within a developmental alliance, the more experienced or more powerful partner can have strong influences on a learner's behaviour, simply by the force of their belief, in what the other person can do. Experiments in schools have found that, where a teacher demonstrates enhanced expectations of children, then their performance improves, sometimes by as much as twice that of a control group. Reversing the groups produces the same effect – performance of the individual is significantly dependent on the expectations of the teacher. In the workplace, subtle clues from the supervisor are absorbed consciously or unconsciously by employee. His or her expectations become translated into actual behaviours by the team, producing a self-fulfilling prophecy. This phenomenon is called the Pygmalion Effect (Livingstone, 2003)

The coach or mentor in the Pygmalion Effect can be a hard taskmaster. Their belief in what the learner could be is sometimes so strong that they may lose sight of whose benefit the learning process is for. For example, when sports coaches are heard saying 'I'm not going to allow you to let me down', it is arguable that they have become too emotionally involved with the learner's goal – that is, that it has instead become the coach's goal.

COACHING AND MENTORING IN THE LATE 20TH-CENTURY

The term mentoring only began to be used and understood widely in the academic and business literature in the late 1970s, although there had been occasional previous scattered mentions. All of these early references were to informal relationships. Only in the late 1970s and early to mid-1980s did academics turn their attention to the topic (Levinson, 1978; Kram, 1985) and only in the early 1980s did a number of US organisations begin to formalise mentoring for their young male graduates.. Under these programmes, new recruits were assigned a more senior, influential person to act as a godfather or sponsor – 'to oversee their career' (Gray and Gray, 1990). A model of mentoring emerged which emphasised the use of the mentor's influence on behalf of the protégé, required a level of loyalty in return and involved significant levels of advice giving and professional role modelling. This model is sometimes called *sponsorship mentoring*. (This is not the same as sponsorship *per se*. a narrower role, which Kram's seminal (1985) study differentiates from the mentoring role.) A relatively directive approach, often conflated with the line manager role, sponsorship mentoring places substantial emphasis on the mentor's authority and influence. It remains popular in some US corporations and in cultures, which have a high power-distance.

Cultural factors made this model of mentoring unsuitable for northern European countries, where elitism was frowned upon and where employers were investing heavily in encouraging people to take responsibility for the own careers and for self-development. A different model evolved, which placed greater emphasis on two-way learning, the value of different experience rather than influence and the stimulation of reflection and action through learning dialogue – that is, a questioning, exploring style rather than an instructional or advising one Hands-on interventions by the mentor are unwelcome and seen as unhelpful. This model of mentoring is commonly called *developmental mentoring* and tends to avoid the term protégé, preferring instead mentee (one who is helped to think) (Hay, 1995; Clutterbuck, 1985; Garvey, 1998; Clutterbuck and Megginson, 1999).

In recent years there has been a marked shift in the US, particularly in terms of academic attention, towards the developmental mentoring model and other less directive, power-based relationships (Eby, 1997; Kram, 1996; Higgins and Kram, 2001). This shift in definitional focus can be characterised as a gradual broadening from:

- *directive to non-directive* (e.g., James, 2000; Skerit and Draper, 2000). Both these case studies emphasise the importance of mentees taking control of their own learning and career management (also Stoddard and Tamsey, 2003; IDS 2004). Barham and Conway (1998) link the degree of directiveness to the mentor's normal working style. Where they normally view themselves as an expert the style of the mentoring relationship will be more didactic and less empowered from the mentee's perspective. Where the culture of the organisation expects managers to act more as facilitators, however, the balance of the relationship will be more equal and it will be about mutual learning and sharing and there will be an empowered feel' to the mentoring relationships.
- *career-focused to wider developmental focus* (Wellin, 2001; Gibb and Megginson, 1992). From the latter perspective, career progression occurs as a result of the expansion of the learner's capabilities and gaining relevant experience, rather than as a result of instrumental help by the mentor. Career success is a secondary outcome of the relationship, rather than its dominant rationale. Implicit in the wider perspective is the concept of a more extensive choice of career paths and trade-offs between work and non-work ambitions. Kram's original study (1985) identified both career and psychosocial elements to the sponsorship mentoring role. However, the psychosocial functions (a word she now perceives as too vague) she describes (offering friendship, providing challenging assignments, being a role model, giving advice) do not necessarily require a significant depth of learning dialogue. Developmental mentoring has much in common with counselling and mentor training often borrows heavily from the counselling theories of Egan (1994)

and others.

- *hierarchical to humanistic*. That is, the hierarchical level of the players becomes less important than the learning potential between them. Studies of peer mentoring (e.g., Beattie and McDougall, 1995) and upward or reverse mentoring begin to appear in the literature (Proctor & Gamble, 2002). Mutuality and reciprocity of benefit, becomes a core theme – for example, Applebaum et al. (1994). McManus and Russell (2007) make an important distinction between relationships that begin as peer mentoring, and traditional mentoring arrangements, which evolve into peer relationships. In my work guiding organisations in the design of mentoring programmes, there is an increasing requirement to ensure that both forms are encouraged.
- *one-way learning to mutual learning*. Whereas early texts emphasise the transfer of learning from the mentor to the mentee/protégé, we now see a greater expectation that learning will be two-way. (Hawken, 2000; Apter and Carter, 2001; Garvey and Galloway, 2001). Fletcher and Ragins (2007) suggest that all high quality developmental interactions involve a fluidity in roles between expert and learner.
- *exclusive to inclusive*. From an emphasis on the highly talented young man (Levinson, 1978; Collins, 1979) mentoring is seen as a resource for a much wider range of individuals and circumstances. In particular, mentoring becomes an important tool in the management of equal opportunities and diversity. Indeed, the literature on mentoring and diversity now forms a substantial proportion of published academic papers. (e.g., Ragins and McFarlin, 1990; Clutterbuck and Ragins, 2002).
- *one very powerful relationship to a network of supportive/learning relationships*. A number of authors have taken the view that a single mentor is inadequate for the learning needs of people operating in complex work and career environments. Effective learners, they propose, have one or more mentors simultaneously within a learning net of relationships, some of which may be highly intense and others much less so. Some of these relationships, such as formal mentoring, may be recognised; others may be tacit (Caruso, 1990; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Higgins, 2004).

A similar process of evolution has occurred within coaching. Ellinger and Bostrum (1999: 754), reviewing the coaching literature, identify an early model, which emphasises managerial control and directiveness, giving way to one, which emphasises empowerment. Line manager: 'coaches help create enabling relationships that make it easier for people to learn'.

Coaching had gradually emerged during the early and mid-20th century as an instructional process, which used feedback from an experienced person to a less experienced. The coach assigned a task, observed performance and then gave feedback, which he or she discussed with the learner, with a view to determining how to do better next time. Effective coaches had the skills of breaking tasks into manageable chunks, pacing learning according to the coachee's ability and providing motivation. They also tried to move the coachee towards greater ownership of their learning, by encouraging and supporting them in defining their own learning tasks, observing their own performance and bringing their own feedback for discussion with the coach. This general model is often described as *traditional coaching*.

The link with superior expertise was broken initially in sports coaching, where both individuals and teams were assisted in achieving higher performance by people, who had moderate personal competence in the sport but high ability in assisting others to focus on areas of improvement potential. Some sports coaches, such as Timothy Galwey (1975), went further and developed styles of coaching that used questioning techniques to help players access their intuitive competence and to overcome the mental barriers that prevented excellence. These approaches were rapidly adapted to the business context, particularly for senior managers, and have in recent years been badged as developmental coaching.

It is (hopefully) obvious that sponsorship mentoring and traditional coaching have a lot in common. Both are relatively directive, in that control of the process rests more with the helper than the learner. The standards which the learner is expected to meet are not set by the learner, but by the organisation, the mentor or some external stakeholder, such as a sports governing body. Similarly, developmental mentoring and developmental coaching have much in common. Both rely heavily on asking insightful questions, holding back on advice giving and giving as much control of the process as possible to the learner. They use very similar techniques and make very similar assumptions about the nature of learning and the role of the helper.

So what, if any, are the differences between coaching and mentoring, particularly in the context of management development? One critical difference relates to purpose. Coaching almost always relates to some aspect of performance – it answers the questions: *What do you want to achieve?* or *What do you want to do better?* It therefore tends towards the specific. Mentoring has much more holistic intentions and tends to address the question: *Who or what do you want to become?* Mentoring is also much more closely associated with career outcomes than coaching. Ellinger and Bostrum (1999: 753) cite previous definitions of coaching as ‘a process for improving problem work performance’ (Fournies, 1987) and as a process of empowering employees to exceed prior levels of performance’ – that is, performance management is seen as the critical link between traditional and developmental coaching. They distinguish mentoring from coaching as ‘a longer-term process that is developmental, career-focused and covers all life structures’. Another critical difference relates to scope of the helping intervention. For example, mentors often help mentees network, either by making introductions, or assisting them in designing and pursuing networking strategies; coaches rarely stray into this territory. In general, mentoring relationships tend to be longer lived than coaching relationships (typically two years versus six months, in formal arrangements).

Do the differences matter? Anecdotal evidence from coaches and mentors from all four of these roles suggests that the boundaries between one style and the next are often breached. In particular, developmental coaches may temporarily shift role into developmental mentor and vice versa. Sometimes it is necessary for a developmental coach to take a more directive style – for example, if the learner has low competence and low motivation to learn. However, mismatched expectations of role and behaviour are also associated with relationship failure, so it would appear important to have some degree of clarity. One organisation, for example, makes a distinction between:

- Skills coach – someone expert in an area, who will spend time passing on know-how to others; typically a technical area or a very specific managerial skill, such as negotiating; usually a relatively short-term intervention.
- Line manager coach – responsible for performance management and creating the opportunities for putting new knowledge and skills into practice.
- Developmental or career mentor – someone who works with the learner on their wider and longer-term development.
- Sponsor – someone at senior level, who undertakes a general oversight of the person's career, ensuring, for example, that people in the talent pool are moved on within the organisation, when it is appropriate for their learning.

FORMAL V. INFORMAL COACHING AND MENTORING

A great deal of research effort has been undertaken in the US, in particular, to assess the relative virtues of formal and informal mentoring. No significant studies have attempted to examine these issues in coaching and this may be in large part a result of different expectations from the coaching relationship, which is almost always referred to in a formal context. Informal coaching – *ad hoc*, unsupported by the organisation – does occur, of course, especially between peers in the same team, but it has not attracted the same level of academic interest.

A plethora of studies in the 1990s suggested that formal mentoring would always be inferior to informal, because it did not have the emotional substrate of a relationship that develops out of an evolving friendship. (e.g., Chao et al., 1992) These studies almost all asked large numbers of people about their mentoring relationships and compared them on the basis of either ‘receipt of mentoring functions’, as a surrogate for relationship quality, or specific outcomes, such as career advancement. The researchers’ conclusions were that formal relationships and programmes should aim at duplicating, as much as possible, the spontaneity and behaviours of the informal.

Yet case studies from Europe, which measured the outcomes from structured mentoring programmes (e.g.,

Browne, 2000) reported very high levels of benefit for both participants and for the organisations. These organisations did not measure informal mentoring to compare with formal, although in at least one case a major reason for launching the formal programme was the failure of employees to acquire and make effective use of informal mentors.

One reason for this divergence of conclusions was methodological – it is not uncommon for two different research methods to produce conflicting results. Another is a basic flaw in the method used in most of the US studies, which did not include failed attempts at initiating informal relationships in their calculations. We still don't know how many frogs a potential mentee or protégé has to kiss before they find a prince! Relationships perceived as informal mentoring by the mentee/protégé are almost by definition likely to be successful to a degree, in the sense that they deliver some value. Formal relationships, which do not work out, are a lot easier to identify and measure and there has been a considerable literature on failed mentoring relationships (e.g., Eby et al., 2004; Scandura, 1998; Ragins et al., 2000). A third reason may be the different cultural expectations and models of mentoring in the US and Europe – the constituents of a successful relationship are not the same.

In addition, defining formality and informality proved a problem. Rather than clearly differentiated variables, there are spectra. For example:

- How people come together (by chance, by mentee purposeful approach, by mentor purposeful approach, through an 'informal' introduction by human resources, or through a matching scheme based on preset criteria).
- Who sets the objectives (the mentee, the mentor, the organisation or all of these).
- Provision of training (from none, through voluntary participation to mandatory participation).
- Support (from none, through having a library or similar resource to search, through to having a steering group and/or programme coordinator).

However, Ragins et al. (2000) largely resolved this conflict in a study that demonstrated that the critical issue was not the level of relationship formality. What matters is the quality of the relationship, whether it be formal or informal. This general independence of context has been supported more recently by my own longitudinal studies of mentoring relationships, which find that expectations of organisational supportiveness show no significant correlations with relationship quality or participant outcomes (Clutterbuck, 2007).

The inferences of our current understanding of the formal–informal debate include:

- It is important to ensure that all people likely to participate in a mentoring relationship have the skills to manage their respective roles, regardless of whether they do so in a formal or informal capacity.
- Having a support mechanism – for example, a source of advice, technique training – promotes the quality of both formal and informal mentoring.

There has been some speculation, supported by anecdote, that a critical mass of formal mentoring can trigger a culture change, which supports widespread informal coaching and mentoring. It remains to be seen whether this is indeed the case, and whether what constitutes a critical mass is generic, wholly situational, or somewhere in-between.

Ragins advises that formal and informal mentoring should be seen as mutually supporting activities. Both have advantages and disadvantages. Informal mentoring tends to last longer, and hence has time to acquire depth. At extremes, this may also be a disadvantage, because it can in some circumstances encourage dependency. Formal mentoring can focus more narrowly on specific career goals – because of constrained expectations about duration; but informal relationships may lack sufficient sense of purpose and direction. Informal relationships tend to take place within the same business area, so there are more opportunities for role modelling and the mentor is likely to understand the issues (particularly the politics and personalities) the mentee is grappling with. However, formal mentoring, which typically and deliberately matches people outside their business area,

provides the advantage of a different perspective. Oil company Petronas, which experimented with giving managers two mentors (one in the same business area, but not their boss) and one in a completely different area, found that the latter was felt by participants to be the most valuable.

Participants in structured programmes – both mentors and mentees – may be less committed to the relationship than informal partnerships, but the evidence for this being more prevalent than in informal mentoring is unconvincing. Many informal mentoring relationships are also casual. However, the danger that organisational objectives may subvert or smother individual objectives is real – I have seen a number of rigidly designed programmes that leave little scope for person-centred dialogue. On the other hand, if an organisation is investing in encouraging mentoring, it is not unreasonable to expect some organisational benefits to emerge.

Perhaps the strongest argument in favour of some level of formality is that informal matches tend to occur for reasons related to the emotional gratification of the mentor. For example, they may see in the protégé or mentee themselves 20 years before. This may lead them to play too strong a role in steering the protégé's career; it may also stimulate cloning. Most troubling of all, however, is that people choosing in their own image perpetuate race and gender imbalances in the organisation. Unless it occurs in a culture, where there is already formal mentoring with a strong diversity flavour, informal mentoring can simply reinforce the old boy network and undermine diversity management objectives.

In their extensive, but largely US-centric review of mentoring research, Wanberg et al. (2003) point out that 'there is a striking dearth of research on formal mentoring' (p. 85). They also describe the conflation of formal and informal mentoring as a significant limiting factor on the validity of much mentoring research in general.

The constituents of an effective formal mentoring programme, according to Kram and Bragar (1992) are:

- 'Specific objectives and a defined target population
- a process to select and match protégés with mentors
- an orientation that involves suggestions on maintaining the relationship as well as expectation setting
- communication with involved parties about the intent of the programme
- a monitoring and evaluation process
- a co-ordinator to provide support to participants'.

It is perhaps significant that these characteristics are all contained in the International Standards for Mentoring Programmes in Employment.

BENEFITS OF COACHING AND MENTORING

One of the problems with defining the benefits of coaching and mentoring is that they are contingent on the relationship or programme purpose. However, some generic benefits can be identified. For convenience, it is normal to break these into four categories of beneficiary: organisation, learner, coach/mentor and line manager. Evidence of outcomes for each of these audiences tends to be scattered in reports and case studies to conferences, or in small numbers of empirical studies (Wanberg et al., 2003). However, taken together the volume of literature suggests that mentoring delivers a wide range of positive outcomes to participants and to the organisation. In general, strongly positive mentee outcomes are more clearly delineated and more frequently recorded than for mentors (Clutterbuck, 2007).

Benefits for the organisation

Retention: Mentoring is strongly associated with improved retention, with case studies of evaluated mentoring programmes showing increased retention of 30 percent and in one case 1,300 percent by comparison with control groups (e.g., Browne, 2000). Wider, general multi-company studies of employee motivation indicate that people who have a mentor are only half as likely to be considering leaving the organisation (Emerging workforce study, 1999).

Job commitment: Both coaching and mentoring have been shown to increase the learner's engagement with their work and with their employing organisation, and this in turn has an impact on employee retention (Aryee and Chay, 1994). Job commitment has been used in numerous research studies as one of the principal ways of measuring the impact of mentoring and/or coaching.

Among the ways coaching and mentoring influence job commitment are:

- By reinforcing the positive cycle of exploration, understanding, competence, self-confidence, self-esteem and personal performance (see below).
- By providing recognition for the learner's achievements.
- By helping the learner identify and value opportunities for learning even in difficult or routine situations.
- By clarifying and strengthening the links between today's work tasks and tomorrow's career aspirations.
- By providing positive role models.

By helping the learner to develop their skills in collaborating and getting on.

Performance: Coaching is generally associated in the handful of empirical studies conducted with increases in performance, either specific skills or behavioural elements of a competence framework (e.g., Elliott, 2006; Jarvis et al., 2006).

Recruitment and induction: Having a mentoring programme is a significant factor in selection of an employer. Mentors also provide a very cost-effective resource to re-capture talented employees who have moved to other organisations. When these employees are ready to move again, the first person they often talk to is their former mentor, if they have had a good mentoring relationship.

Induction into the organisation is typically improved by mentoring. People become acclimatised up to twice as fast as normal. At senior management levels, where the track record of success in external appointments is not high in general, mentoring is believed to make a substantial difference in acceptance of the new manager.

Other key areas of organisational benefit include:

- Succession planning – many companies find that mentoring provides a clearer picture of the talent pool available, and helps people position themselves more clearly against the likely needs of the business.
- Merger and acquisition – establishing mentoring relationships across the two organisations helps build trust and overcome cultural differences, making the integration process faster and more efficient. (It also helps keep key people, who might otherwise have left through uncertainty about their future.)
- Diversity management – mentoring has proved to be one of the most important elements of diversity programmes. A number of major employers, such as the UK's National Health Service, have targeted mentoring particularly at the transitions into senior management and top management.

Benefits for the mentee/coachee

These are very wide, but the most commonly reported are:

- Greater clarity about personal development and career goals.
- Being able to discuss, in an open and unthreatening environment, issues about their career and development.
- Improved networking.
- Practical advice on organisational politics and behaviour.
- The opportunity to be challenged constructively.
- Increased self-confidence.
- Transfer of knowledge and, in particular, judgement.
- Having a role model.
- Greater clarity (within a coaching relationship) about how they are actually performing and what is preventing them from achieving more.

Various research data suggest that mentees achieve greater confidence in their own potential and ability; feel more secure in their role (especially at senior levels) and earn more than their non-mentored counterparts (e.g., Bartram and Garreffa, 2004).

Dougherty and Dreher (2007) provide a valuable overview of the literature relating to mentoring and career outcomes. Many of these studies suffer from methodological problems (e.g., an over-reliance on protégé self-report and inadequate definition of mentoring). However, there emerges a broad picture of multiple benefits. Chao et al. (1992), for example, report stronger career-related outcomes than psychosocial. The context of the majority of these studies, however, is sponsorship mentoring. In my own longitudinal study of developmental mentoring, the opposite results emerge – career outcomes are of less significance than personal development outcomes. This may be partly to do with the difference between the two constructs of sponsorship mentoring and developmental mentoring (and the data show that mentees and mentors both perceive them as separate constructs); or it may be related to the fact that supported mentoring programmes have a shorter duration (typically 12–18 months) than those in the predominantly US studies reviewed (and hence career outcomes have not had sufficient time to occur). In Europe and Australasia, there seems to be much less expectation that the mentor will be instrumental in what happens to the mentee's career, and a greater emphasis on achieving career goals independently.

Benefits for the mentor/coach

The most frequently cited benefits for mentors and coaches are:

- Their own learning (often mentors and coaches report as much and more learning than mentees and coachees).
- The opportunity to practise good developmental behaviours outside their direct line responsibilities.
- Development of their own self-awareness.
- Greater understanding of other areas of the business and/or of other cultures.

Benefits for the line manager

Line managers, whose direct reports take part in mentoring or off-line coaching schemes, typically comment upon:

- The value of a 'second opinion' – someone the mentee can take issues to, who does not have a direct involvement.
- Improvements in the mentee's relationships with peers and the line manager him/herself.
- A clearer sense of purpose and direction on the part of the mentee.

Line managers acting as coaches to their direct reports often find that they:

- Gain a greater understanding of the work tasks and what really happens in work processes.
- Can delegate more and worry less.
- Can identify and act to reduce team conflict at an earlier stage than normal.
- Can acquire more honest feedback about their own management style and behaviour.
- Build stronger relationships with their teams.

There are, however, significant difficulties in the role of line manager as coach. Because they have such a stake in the team's outputs, it is easy for the line manager coach to impose his or her agenda on the coaching conversations. In addition, some of the principle barriers to a direct report's performance may lie in the manager's own attitudes, assumptions and behaviours, which they may be reluctant to address or may even be unaware of (Farrar, 2006). This is also a strong argument against attempting to conflate the roles of mentor and line manager, a practice strongly advised against in the practitioner literature (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002; Cuerrier, 2003). In the mentoring context, the different perspective a mentor can bring from *not* being involved

in the mentee's direct work environment or reporting line is valuable. The Malaysian national oil company Petronas has routinely provided senior level mentees with two mentors – one off-line, but within the same general functional area and one much more distant. The majority of mentees report that the more distant mentor is the most valuable, not least because of the greater psychological safety they experience.

EVOLUTION OF COACHING AND MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

While only the evolution of mentoring relationships has been studied empirically (Kram, 1985), and then in the context of informal, sponsorship mentoring only, the general principles seem to apply equally to supported, developmental mentoring. The five stages depicted in Clutterbuck (1985) are:

- Initiation – building the rapport and particularly the trust necessary to establish psychological safety; contracting, if appropriate; and getting to know each other. Critical in this process is an exchange of values (Hale, 2000). Recommended good practice is for the dyad in a formal programme to review the relationship at the end of the second meeting, with a view to either dialogue about how to build rapport, or a 'no-fault divorce'.
- Goal-setting – establishing a general or specific purpose for the relationship. Although many coaching textbooks (and the most famous model of the coaching conversation, GROW) maintain that SMART goals are essential for effective coaching, there is little evidence for this. My own longitudinal studies of mentoring relationships (Clutterbuck, 2007) find no correlation between goal clarity (specificity) or goal commitment on the part of the mentee and either relationship experience (quality) or mentee outcomes. Megginson (2007) draws upon a range of studies to suggest that goals in effective mentoring and coaching relationships are emergent. Having overly defined goals, it seems, focuses attention such that other opportunities are missed.
- Progress-making – The dyads have established a clear sense of direction, which focuses their conversations. Issues that occur on a meeting-by-meeting basis are now placed in the context of the relationship purpose, and broader learning takes place. The interchange of learning becomes more balanced, rather than primarily from coach or mentor to coachee or mentee.
- Winding up – In a detailed study of relationship endings (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2004), a clear differentiation emerged between relationships regarded positively by both parties and those regarded negatively. Positive relationships were associated with a planned and well-managed disengagement from the formal process. Typically, participants reviewed what had and had not been achieved and discussed where the learner would look next for their one-to-one development needs – that is, what will take the place of the coach or mentor? Negatively perceived relationships were associated with a gradual drifting away.
- Moving on – Kram (1985) describes this phase as redefinition. Having achieved (to a greater or lesser extent) its original purpose, the relationship evolves into a more *ad hoc*, informal form, akin to a strong friendship. Gratitude on the part of the mentee or coachee, and the generative effect on the coach or mentor (Levinson, 1978) combine to establish a loose relationship, in which either party may use the other as a sounding board from time to time.

However, the validity of the phase model approach has been questioned by Bullis and Bach (1989), who found that, while the phase model may be *generally* descriptive, the progress of individual relationships was much more random. Surprisingly, this early work has not stimulated other studies, although it has significance in the design and deliverer of training and support for mentors and mentees.

Professional coaching relationships in the workplace (and particularly in the context of executive coaching) tend to be of relatively short duration – typically between six months and a year and sometimes only two or three meetings. Hence it is not possible to extrapolate a similar pattern of evolution of coaching relationships. In the absence of relevant empirical research, we can postulate an alternative general dynamic:

- A brief *contractual* phase, in which the objectives of the relationship are defined and the dyad determine whether they can work together. (Essentially an amalgamation and truncation of the rapport-building and goal-setting phases above.)
- A *transactional* phase, in which the coach helps the client explore specific issues of behaviour, leadership or

skill, maintaining the goal focus.

- A brief *review* phase, in which the outcomes of the relationship are assessed, from the perspective of coach and coachee and, where appropriate, other stakeholders, such as the coachee's direct reports and boss.

RESEARCH INTO COACHING AND MENTORING

One of the major distinctions between coaching and mentoring is the volume and nature of the research, which has been carried out into each. The great majority of research into mentoring is quantitative and US-centric. (A recent *Handbook of Mentoring* (Allen and Eby, 2007) almost completely ignores the growing volume of mentoring research from Europe, Australasia, South Africa and elsewhere.) Some of the major criticisms with this body of research include:

- Failures of definition (e.g., not specifying what kind of mentoring or coaching is being studied).
- Confusion over what kind of relationship is being measured (e.g., relations between boss and subordinate are often conflated with off-line relationships – two very different dynamics).
- Lack of triangulation.
- Misuse of instruments (e.g., confusion of what mentors do, with what the relationship achieves).

There is a much smaller volume of research into coaching and most of this is qualitative (Megginson, 2006). The few quantitative studies are focused on attempts to demonstrate return on investment on executive coaching (Wasylyshyn, 2003; Parker-Wilkins, 2006; Jarvis et al., 2006).

SHARED PRINCIPLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL COACHING AND DEVELOPMENTAL MENTORING

Both coaching and mentoring in their non-directive forms adhere to the principle that they are focused on helping the learner with the quality of his or her thinking. Hence the emphasis in much of the literature on the importance of crafting and posing insightful questions. Observation of effective mentors and coaches indicates that they:

- Ask relatively few, but very concise questions.
- Avoid offering solutions until they and the learner have established a strong, mutual understanding of the issues under consideration; and even then prefer to assist the learner to identify to their own solutions.

It can be very difficult for a line manager to behave in this way, not least because he or she is conditioned to solve problems and is likely to see his or her role from that perspective. However, it is broadly accepted (although not empirically proven, to my knowledge) that solutions, which the individual has thought through in their own mind, with or without the assistance of a developmental partner, receive greater commitment and are more likely to be the basis of new behaviour patterns.

CREATING TIME TO THINK

Management development is difficult to achieve in an environment of frenetic action. As Argyris and Schon (1996) have shown, change at anything but a superficial level requires a process of reflection. Yet most managers and professionals struggle to find any real thinking time during their working hours. Coaching and mentoring provide opportunities to find personal reflective space (PRS) and to operate on the quality of the learner's thinking.

CORE COMPETENCIES OF COACHING AND MENTORING

The situational nature of coaching and mentoring mean that the competencies required vary according to the level at which the coach or mentor intends to work, the kind of intervention required (e.g., skills transfer, strategic thinking or therapeutic) and the purpose of the relationship. The wide spread of competencies has

been captured by the European Mentoring and Coaching Council and is downloadable from its website www.emccouncil.org. However, in *The Situational Mentor* (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004), we attempted to identify, from an extensive series of workshops, some generic skills, which appear to apply to all coaches and mentors.

Self-awareness (understanding self)

Mentors need high self-awareness in order to recognise and manage their own behaviours within the helping relationship and to use empathy appropriately. The activist, task-focused manager often has relatively little insight into these areas – indeed, s/he may actively avoid reflection on such issues, depicting them as 'soft' and of low priority. Such attitudes and learned behaviours may be difficult to break.

Behavioural awareness (understanding others)

Like self-awareness, understanding how others behave and why they do so is a classic component of emotional intelligence. To help others manage their relationships the mentor must have reasonably good insight into patterns of behaviour between individuals and groups of people. Predicting the consequences of specific behaviours or courses of action is one of the many practical applications of this insight.

Business or professional savvy

The experience and judgement that come from having been around for some time – whether in an organisation, a profession, or simply in life – can be very valuable in helping a coachee or mentee learn the ropes, understand the politics and focus on what matters. Passing on 'coping strategies' – how to get by – can be equally valuable.

Sense of proportion/good humour

It's important that participants should *enjoy* the sessions they have together, because learning is generally more effective in a relaxed atmosphere. Laughter, used appropriately, is invaluable in developing rapport, in helping people to see matters from a different perspective, in releasing emotional tension.

In practice, good humour is a vehicle for achieving a sense of proportion – a broader perspective that places the organisation's goals and culture in the wider social and business context. People acquire this kind of perspective by ensuring that they balance their day-to-day involvement with work tasks against a portfolio of other interests. Some of these may be related to work – for example, developing a broader strategic understanding of how the business sector is evolving; others are unrelated to work, and may encompass science, philosophy or any other intellectually stimulating endeavour. In general, the broader the scope of knowledge and experience the mentor can apply, the better sense of proportion s/he can bring.

Communication competence

Communication isn't a single skill; it is a combination of a number of skills. Those most important for coaches and mentors include:

- Listening – opening the mind to what the other person is saying, demonstrating interest/attention, encouraging them to speak, holding back on filling the silences.
- Observing as receiver – being open to the visual and other non-verbal signals, recognising what is *not* said.
- Parallel processing – analysing what the other person is saying, reflecting on it, preparing responses. Effective communicators do all of these in parallel, slowing down the dialogue as needed to ensure that they do not overemphasise preparing responses at the expense of analysis and reflection. Equally, they avoid becoming so mired in their internal thoughts that they respond inadequately or too slowly.
- Projecting – crafting words and their emotional 'wrapping' in a manner appropriate for the situation and the recipient(s).
- Observing as projector – being open to the visual and other non-verbal signals, as clues to what the recipient is hearing/understanding; adapting tone, volume, pace and language appropriately.
- Exiting – concluding a dialogue or segment of dialogue with clarity and alignment of understanding

(ensuring message received in both directions).

Conceptual modelling

Effective coaches and mentors have a portfolio of models they can draw upon to help the mentee understand the issues they face. These models can be self-generated (that is, the result of personal experience), drawn from elsewhere (e.g., models of company structure, interpersonal behaviours, strategic planning, career planning) or – at the highest level of competence – generated on the spot as an immediate response.

According to the situation and the learning styles of the mentee, it may be appropriate to present these models in verbal or visual form. Or the mentor may not present them at all – simply use them as the framework for asking penetrating questions.

Commitment to their own continued learning

Effective coaches and mentors become role models for self-managed learning. They seize opportunities to experiment and take part in new experiences. They read widely and are reasonably efficient at setting and following personal development plans. They actively seek and use behavioural feedback from others. They see the coaching or mentoring relationship more as an opportunity for their own learning than for 'putting something back' (Engstrom, 1998).

Strong interest in developing others

Effective coaches and mentors have an innate interest in achieving through others and in helping others recognise and achieve their potential. This instinctive response is important in establishing and maintaining rapport and in enthusing the mentee, building his or her confidence in what they could become.

While it is possible to 'switch on' someone to self-advantage of helping others, it is probably not feasible to stimulate an altruistic response.

Building and maintaining rapport/relationship management

The skills of rapport building are difficult to define. When asked to describe rapport, in their experience, managers' observations can be distilled into five characteristics:

• Trust: will they do what they say?
 will they keep confidences?

Focus: are they concentrating on me?
 are they listening without judging?

Empathy: do they have goodwill towards me?
 do they try to understand my feelings, and viewpoints?

Congruence: do they acknowledge and accept my goals?

Empowerment: is their help aimed at helping me stand on my own feet as soon as practical?

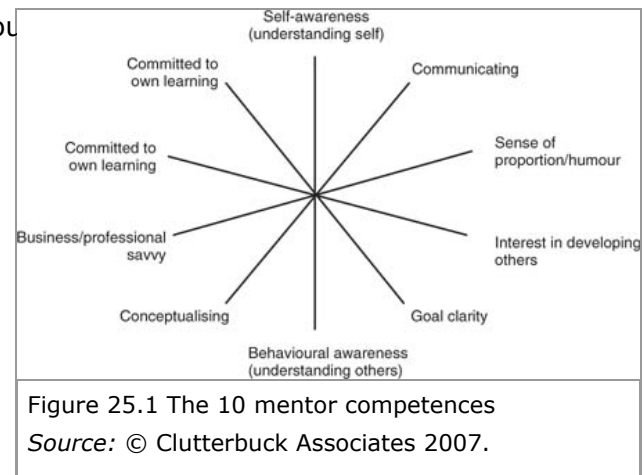
Goal clarity

The mentor must be able to help the learner sort out what s/he wants to achieve and why. This is quite hard to

do if you do not have the skills to set and pursue clear goals of you

Goal clarity appears to derive from a mixture of skills including systematic analysis and decisiveness. Like so many of the other mentoring competencies, it may best be developed through opportunities to reflect and to practice.

The mentoring or coaching relationship is a partnership, however. The effectiveness of the relationship also depends on the competencies exhibited by the mentees or coachees, who need to have at least a basic level of communication skill, to articulate their issues. Coachees/mentees also need to be open, to be prepared to challenge constructively and to reflect on their issues both before and after coaching/mentoring sessions (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004). Empirical study of mentee and coachee competencies is patchy and inconclusive. Some behaviours and attributes suggested by the literature include:



- Communication skills and self-esteem (Kalbfleisch and Davies, 1993).
- Willingness to engage in personal developmental activity (Maurer et al., 2003).
- In the context of sponsorship mentoring, particularly, ingratiation (in this context meaning using emotional intelligence to manage personal reputation with the relationship) (Aryee et al., 1996).
- Ambition (high need for power and achievement) (Fagenson, 1992).

Whereas the behaviours required to be an effective mentor are relatively constant throughout the relationship, the mentee may (need to) evolve behaviours and competencies as the relationship progresses (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004). Personality factors may also influence mentee efficacy at different phases of the relationship (Turban and Lee, 2007). In community mentoring, an issue of considerable concern is that people who need mentoring most may not have the qualities either to attract and motivate a mentor or to contribute effectively to the mentoring process.

There is a small but significant body of literature on dysfunctional mentoring (Scandura, 1998; Eby et al., (2004)). The assumptions behind most of this literature relate more to sponsorship mentoring than to development mentoring. Anecdotal evidence from developmental mentoring suggests that problems arise most frequently from failure in the education of the mentor into the role. The mentor's motivation may be an important factor here. Engstrom (1998) indicates that motivation to learn is closely associated to relationship success and an emphasis on altruistic motives to relationship dysfunction. Mentors, who use phrases such as 'I want to prevent her making the same mistakes as I did', may stifle the spontaneity of the relationship and learning dialogue, for example.

Much also depends on the quality of the matching process. In structured programmes, mentors and mentees are supported in finding an appropriate match. While the ability to work closely together to achieve personal growth for the mentee may depend on a variety of factors, the most critical in establishing the relationship appears to be the sense that both parties share similar values (Hale, 2000).

COACHING THE TEAM

Team coaching differs from individual coaching in a number of ways. Confidentiality is more difficult to manage, the scope of discussions is likely to be narrower and the speed at which individuals within a team consider and reach decisions may vary widely. Team coaching is often confused with team facilitation, which involves a much lower level of engagement with the team. There is very little empirical research on team coaching and what there is focuses on project teams (Hackman and Wageman, 2005) – there are at least five other types of team in the workplace.

VIRTUAL COACHING AND MENTORING

The assumption that coaching and mentoring need to be carried out face to face, to be fully effective, is increasingly being challenged, with more and more organisations implementing some form of IT-based programmes or support, and a small but growing literature on the subject (e.g., Fagenson-Eland and Lu, 2004). The face-to-face meeting has the virtue of length – people usually set aside an hour or more, which is difficult to sustain using distance media – so it is possible to explore issues in depth. It is easier to build rapport and to get into flow – sparking ideas off each other. And the visual clues of body language can provide valuable insights into the other learning partner's emotions and reveal inconsistencies between what they say and what they think.

However, there are advantages to e-coaching and e-mentoring as well. There is built-in reflective time, so participants can think more deeply about their questions and their answers. As a result, coaches and mentors tend to ask better, more insight-provoking questions. There is a written record, which can be analysed subsequently to reveal hidden patterns (taking copious notes in a coaching/mentoring session undermines the attentiveness of both parties). There are no visual distractions. And the dialogue can take place on more of a just-in-time basis, rather than wait until the next scheduled meeting.

Telephone mentoring and coaching has the disadvantages of both face-to-face and virtual approaches. It tends to work really well only when both parties are experienced coaches or mentors. One of the big problems is that people struggle to cope with the silences.

Many large programmes now encourage participants to use a mixture of media, including face-to-face, e-mail, video-conferencing and even podcasts. This allows for considerable flexibility.

EFFECTIVE COACHING AND MENTORING PROGRAMMES

Effective mentoring schemes:

- begin with **clarity of purpose**. What exactly does the business expect to achieve from investing in this activity? Objectives vary widely, from the relatively general, such as raising the competence of our people, to the very specific, such as achieving targets for increasing the number of women or racial minorities in senior positions. Having a clear set of programme goals is critically important in helping each relationship develop its own clear sense of purpose and direction. (Otherwise mentor and mentee struggle to find anything to talk about after the first few meetings);
- have **top management champions**, who are prepared not only to support mentoring with encouragement and resources, but who become role models for mentoring. At District Audit, which has one of the most successful schemes in the UK, the chief executive attended a high proportion of training sessions and talked openly about his own current experience as a mentee;
- are clear about who their **audiences** are. Although there are examples of all-comers schemes that work well, it is not normally realistic to expect everyone to have a mentor at the same time;
- manage well the three key processes of **selecting, matching and training**. The selection criteria will normally depend on who the target audience is, but a pragmatic groundrule is that mentors should be substantially more experienced than the mentee, but not so far ahead that it is difficult for the two of them to empathise with each other's work issues. The practice, now largely abandoned in most countries, of placing young graduate recruits with very senior managers, led to very little real learning, because the experience gap was too great. They allow participants at least some choice of mentoring partner and to build in a **'no-fault divorce'** process. A broad rule of thumb is that without any focused training, less than one in three mentoring relationships delivers real value. With appropriate mentor training, the proportion rises to two out of three and with in addition training for the mentee and some form of education in mentoring for line managers, success rates of 90 percent are common;
- **measure and review using** both hard outcomes (e.g., retention rates) and key processes, such as whether people meet sufficiently frequently, help on three levels. First, review within each relationship helps in re-assigning those that don't work. Second, measurement and review at the six-month point helps the coordinator adjust the scheme. Finally, measurement at 12 months and beyond provides the data to

demonstrate that mentoring is delivering results for the business.

The effectiveness of mentoring relationships can also be affected significantly by the attitudes of participants and influential third parties. Some of the most important issues include:

- Whether participants are volunteers or press-ganged. The quality of learning and of the relationship itself is likely to be much lower, when participants did not actively select into the programme.
- How supportive influential third parties are. For example, a resentful line manager can make it very difficult for the mentee and mentor to meet.
- Participant expectations – If mentors do not expect the relationship to be one of equality or of two-way learning, it will achieve much less. Equally, if the mentee is expecting some form of sponsorship, which the mentor is unwilling to offer, then it will be difficult to retain rapport and a sense of mutual purpose.
- The mentoring 'ambiance' – do people see having a mentor as a sign of positive support for individual development; or as a remedial (or worse, a means of helping people exit the organisation)?

Attitudes towards mentoring need to be identified before a mentoring programme is launched. Training of mentors and mentees should help shape participants' expectations; as should briefings for influential third parties.

CREATING A COACHING AND MENTORING CULTURE

The stark reality, however, is that most managers put very little effort into coaching. Even though the company may have provided coaching training for them, unless there is a robust coaching climate, there will be very little overall impact on the performance of the business, on retention of talent or on the achievement of strategic goals.

So what exactly is a coaching culture? Some of the signs identified in our research (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 1999), include:

- Personal growth, team development and organisational learning are integrated and the links clearly understood.
- People are able to engage in constructive and positive confrontation.
- People welcome feedback (even at the top) and actively seek it.
- Coaching is seen as a *joint* responsibility of managers and their direct reports.
- There is good understanding at all levels about what effective developers and developpees do.
- Coaching is seen primarily as an opportunity rather than as a remedial intervention.
- People are recognised and rewarded for their activity in sharing knowledge.
- Time for reflection is valued.
- There are effective mechanisms for identifying and addressing barriers to learning.
- People look first inside the organisation for their next job (a typical average would be that only one in five does so!).
- There are strong role models for good coaching practice.

Some of the most useful interventions include:

Ensuring that all managers have at least the basic skills of coaching. Just running a training course isn't enough. Managers need to put what they have learned into practice. Initial training needs to be reinforced with opportunities to review each coaching session and to reflect upon feedback from the coachee. Good practice typically involves either follow-up group sessions, or the use of a mastercoach to sit in on coaching sessions and provide immediate feedback.

Equipping all employees with the skills to be coached/mentored effectively. CA's research indicates that coaching works best when the coachee is both a willing and an informed participant. The more the coachee understands about the coaching process, the easier it is to help the coach help them. For example, effective coachees learn

how to phrase questions in ways that will elicit the kind of help they want. Greater impact can also be gained by regarding coaching as a team activity (most coaching is actually done by peers, not by superiors, anyway) and engaging the whole team in learning how to make coaching a day-to-day activity.

Providing an advanced coaching/ mentoring skills programme for senior managers. The more senior a manager is, the more important it is that they coach well – the cost of mistakes and lost talent rise exponentially the higher up the organisation one goes. An advanced coaching skills programme builds on the existing knowledge and competence of the manager, providing a range of techniques and approaches that broaden his or her portfolio of responses. In some cases, a whole day is devoted to practising these techniques, with expert feedback to each pair from a mastercoach, who observes them.

Developing a cadre of mastercoaches/mastermentors

A number of organisations, such as Kellogg in Europe, have developed some line managers and HR professionals as mastercoaches, giving them a wide enough experience of coaching and related developmental approaches to tackle most problems they may encounter, both as coaches in their own right and in helping other managers grow in coaching skills. As a group, they also provide a valuable resource of experience to support each other and less experienced coaches.

The core process is action learning – participants share the learning burden and explore issues together in a series of one-day meetings. There are also opportunities for contributions of knowledge from outside experts. At the end of the programme, they have the confidence and competence to act as real champions for coaching.

Providing opportunities to review good coaching/mentoring practice. Bringing coaches – of all levels of experience – together from time to time helps to spread good practice and remind people of what is expected of them. This is particularly true around the time of annual appraisal. A coaching practice review can help managers prepare direct reports more effectively for their appraisal, and thus extract much greater value from it.

Recognising and rewarding managers who demonstrate good coaching/mentoring practice

If managers who do not coach or invest significant effort in developing others still receive promotions and high rewards, it sends a very negative message. Some organisations are now making developmental performance an integral part of their succession planning and annual bonus systems.

Measuring and providing feedback on the quality, relevance and accessibility of coaching/mentoring

It's important to have a clear picture of what coaching is happening, and how effective it is, especially from the perspective of the coachee. Identifying pockets of good and poor practice allows for remedial action.

Ensuring that top management provide strong, positive role models

Top management can choose to be coached by a professional external resource, by a peer, or by someone more junior, who can educate them in other perspectives. (This is especially useful when the more junior person comes from a different gender or racial origin.)

A positive example from the top is critical. Unless people see that top managers are investing in their own development, and in coaching/mentoring others, their own motivation will inevitably be muted.

Identifying cultural and systems barriers to developmental behaviours

The excuses managers give for not devoting sufficient time to coaching or to encouraging coaching between members of the team are many. Top of the list is usually inadequate time and much can be achieved by helping managers develop better skills of prioritising, general time management and establishing regular and sacrosanct periods of reflective space.

Other barriers to coaching behaviour are often more subtle – for example, a general reluctance to address difficult behavioural issues, or to admit to weaknesses. Initial research to establish these most common such barriers can prove invaluable. From this understanding, it is possible to conduct educational and motivational campaigns and to coach managers to overcome their own specific barriers.

Interestingly, although Kram's (1985) original study of mentoring suggested that organisational culture was an important contextual variable in effectiveness of mentoring relationships, my own qualitative studies show no correlation between a scale of organisational supportiveness (Clutterbuck, 2007) and find no significant correlation with mentor or mentee behaviours, with quality of relationship experience or with outcomes for either mentor or mentee. It seems that, where participants have been well-trained in their roles, the relationship is insulated from the organisational context. A moderate level of correlation can be observed, however, between strength of participants' perception that the organisation's purpose in supporting mentoring is aligned with their relationship purpose, and the relationship dynamics.

MEASURING THE IMPACT OF COACHING AND MENTORING

Measurement in coaching and mentoring is important for three purposes: to troubleshoot relationships that aren't working well; to improve the overall programme; and to demonstrate return on investment. Hence it makes sense for organisations to use a balanced portfolio of measures, both hard and soft, process-related and outcome-related. My own organisation's clients have access to a database that allows them to compare metrics, using validated scales of participants' behaviour, relationship experience and outcome, both amongst participant groups and against other participating organisations. Another useful resource is the International Standards for Mentoring Programmes in Employment, which provides a benchmark for assessing programmes. Similarly, the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) has a quality assurance programme to assess coach and mentor training against common standards.

Standard advice for measuring the impact of individual coaching interventions is that they should start with an initial assessment of the learner's competence in the area to be focused on; should involve regular progress reviews; and should conclude with a repeat of the original competence measures. It is important in this context to use a wide range of inputs and observations – a common error is to use only the perceptions of the coachee's boss(es). However, a recent case study (Ertam, 2007), in which members of a management talent pool were assessed using 360° feedback at the beginning and end of a 12-month coaching/mentoring relationship found that direct reports saw very substantial positive changes, while bosses saw almost none. We have called this phenomenon 'relationship drag'. It appears that bosses' initial perceptions take a lot more time and effort to shift.

Another problem with measuring coaching impact is that defining output measures at the beginning of the relationship tends to close down opportunities for wider learning. Professional executive coaches report frequent problems of conflict between the measures imposed by the organisation and the learning needs that emerge for the coachee.

ROLE OF STANDARDS AND PROFESSIONAL BODIES

There is a growing army of executive or managerial coaches with a plethora of qualifications. A number of bodies have arisen to regulate and professionalise the sector, notably the International Coach Federation, originating from the US and the EMCC, which has a much wider remit. Other organisations, such as the Association for Coaching, exist to promote good practice in a particular area of coaching. Increasing collaboration between these bodies is beginning to establish some commonality of standards for individual practitioners, but *caveat emptor* still applies within the marketplace as a whole. In carrying out assessment centres to select pools of external coaches for large employer organisations, it is evident that the proportion of truly effective (and not dangerous!) executive coaches within the market is relatively small. The EMCC has

carried out extensive research to map the range of competencies required at different levels and in different applications of coaching and mentoring. These standards have subsequently been used to establish a quality award to accredit coaching and mentoring educational programmes.

The International Standards for Mentoring Programmes in Employment (ISMPE) provide an assessment, accreditation process for in-company mentoring. Compiled by an array of practitioners, providers and academic observers, they allow programme coordinators to benchmark against other programmes. A similar awarding body has been discussed for in-company management of coaching and may be created in the future.

CONCLUSION: THE CHALLENGES TO COME

Coaching and mentoring are increasingly popular instruments of management development, used in some fashion, according to surveys by the American Society for Training and Development and the Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development, in most large- and medium-sized organisations. Critical challenges for organisations include:

- Raising the competence of all employees, particularly those in management positions, to coach/mentor and be coached/mentored, so that these behaviours become endemic within the culture.
- Integrating coaching and mentoring more coherently with other business and people management systems, from strategic planning to succession planning and performance management.

For the coaching and mentoring profession, the critical challenges lie in:

- Achieving common standards of accreditation and qualification, to remove customer and client confusion about what to expect.
- Establishing the business case for coaching in ways that are credible to senior managers and leaders.

NOTE

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