

A Review of Effective Mentoring Practices for Mentees Development

Norhasni Zainal Abiddin (Corresponding author)

Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education

Faculty of Educational Studies

Universiti Putra Malaysia

43400 UPM Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

E-mail: nonie@putra.upm.edu.my

Aminuddin Hassan

Department of Foundations of Education

Faculty of Educational Studies

Universiti Putra Malaysia

43400 UPM Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

E-mail: aminuddin@putra.upm.edu.my

Received: January 3, 2012

Accepted: January 10, 2012

Published: February 1, 2012

doi:10.5296/jse.v2i1.1226

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/jse.v2i1.1226>

Abstract

Mentoring is a part of educational training to develop people in the professions. It is related to self-development, professional growth and career development of the mentee. Not only do mentors have to play their role but the mentees too, and all this must be placed within a specific institutional context. The mentoring relationship has been described as an invaluable learning activity for beginners as well as experienced practitioners such as teachers, administrators, managers, and other professionals. This article is designed to summarize the existing literature on mentoring in order to assist mentors-mentees in enhancing the best practices for effective mentoring for mentees development. Thus, it focuses on two major areas: the concept of mentoring, and its theoretical foundations; and the nature of the mentor-mentee relationship.

Keywords: Mentoring, Mentee, Mentor, Practice, Relationship, Mentees' development

Introduction

Mentoring is off-line help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking (Clutterbuck, 1991). To be a successful a mentor requires knowledge and understanding of process as well as the variety of styles, skills and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the mentoring takes place. Simply put, the philosophy of mentoring it is that we humans are great, that we are all discovering what we really want, and that we can get what we want faster and more easily by having a coach who has been there and who can help others.

Mentoring is defined as an ongoing relationship between a caring adult and a young person. One-to-one mentoring is a traditional model of mentoring where one adult is paired with one young person. There typically will be an extensive matching process to insure a strong relationship, and it is expected that the commitment will be for one year or longer. Formal mentoring, on the other hand, refers to assigned relationships, often associated with organizational mentoring programs designed to promote employee development. In well-designed formal mentoring programs, there are program goals, schedules, training (for mentors and mentees), and evaluation. Mentors inspire their mentee to follow their dreams (Kirkham, 1993).

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

This article discusses one of the supervisory approaches commonly adopted towards the protégé in order to help them achieve their objectives. In this, roles and practices of mentor and mentee are described. Both parties either a mentor or mentee should play their roles effectively. Hence, this paper explores a reviews the literature on mentoring. It focusing on two major areas: the concept of mentoring and its theoretical foundations; and the nature of the mentor-mentee relationship.

The Concept of Mentoring

Mentor was the name of a character in Greek mythology. Ulysses left his son, Telemachus under the tutelage of his old friend Mentor: who was a wise and trusted adviser or counsellor (Clutterback, 1991). Mentoring is a word that is often used by academics, politicians, coaches, actors and other performers to describe the person they chose as a role model or someone who had significant early influence on their professional careers. Looking at the origins of this practice, Hamilton (1981) pointed out that it was common in ancient Greece for young males to be partnered with older, experienced males. These were often relatives or friends of

the family, and it was expected that the youths would learn from and emulate the values of their assigned mentor. The term mentor thus became synonymous with a wise, faithful guardian and teacher (Cooper and Palmer, 1993; Fisher, 1994; Smith and West-Burnham, 1993) who was typically older, of greater experience and more senior in the world that a young man is entering and should have knowledge and skills (Carter and Lewis, 1994; Levinson *et al.*, 1978).

Mentoring, it has been argued, is the most effective way to transfer skills and knowledge quickly and inspire loyalty in new employees to co-operate in an organization (Robinson, 2001). Generally, it is a popular approach in education and in business. In a recent survey of Fortune 500 companies, 96 percent of executives identified mentoring as an important developmental tool, and 75 percent of them said it had played a key role in their career success (Heinz, 2003). A mentor is identified as someone who teaches the protégé in a personal and close long-term relationship that allows critical concentration on task performance (Brown and Krager, 1985; Kirkham, 1993; Stones, 1984). Before the 1990s, most authors used the word ‘supervisor’ in reference to a mentor at school with the meaning of someone who directs or oversees and watches over protégés so as to maintain order (Gardiner, 1989; Stones, 1984; Young, 1967; Zimpher *et al.*, 1980), but increasingly, we see references to the mentoring of young people entering the teaching profession.

Bullock (1988) was of the opinion that a mentor should establish a good rapport with his protégés, assess their needs in consultation with other interested and appropriate parties, and end the mentoring relationship at the appropriate time and in an appropriate manner. Thus, each mentoring arrangement is unique, and its particular nature will be established according to the personalities of the two individuals concerned (Mountford, 1993; Stones, 1984). The relationship facilitates another’s personal growth and can also encourage and enable learning in order to maximise the mentee’s potential, develop their skills, improve their performance and become the person they want to be (Brown and Krager, 1985; Fisher, 1994; Mackenzie, 2004; Parsloe, 1999). The relationship should be dynamic (Brooks and Sikes, 1997; Danziger, 2001; Edwards and Collison, 1996; Smith and West-Burham, 1993) and reciprocal and can be emotionally intense. It should assist with career development (Brown and Krager, 1985; Mountford, 1993; Smith and West-Burham, 1993). Brooks and Sikes (1997) view mentoring as a discrete, self-contained relationship and define the mentor as the skilled craftsperson of the apprenticeship, the trainer, the reflective coach, critical friend and as a co-enquirer in the reflective practitioner tradition. Anderson and Shannon (1988) considered that mentoring could be defined as:

A nurturing in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter’s professional and/or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and the protégé.

Therefore, in discussing the role of an effective mentor and the mentoring process itself, the researcher has taken a general perspective, not emphasising any particular type of mentor or

differentiating the role by place and location.

The Role of an Effective Mentor

There are many views and definitions of the role of a mentor, but all include verbs like support, guide and facilitate. The important elements have to do with listening, questioning (Brown and Krager, 1985; Carter and Lewis, 1994; Fisher, 1994), and enabling, as distinct from telling, directing and restricting (Parsloe, 1999). In other words, most authors highlight that the most important role of the mentor is giving guidance, advice and counsel (Claxton, 1989; Schon, 1987; Shaw, 1992; Wilkin, 1992). These roles can help all mentees to review and identify their own strengths and areas for further development, to develop skills and understanding and to plan and implement their own professional development (Brown and Krager, 1985; Mountford, 1993). This statement also reflects the views of many authors, since most mentoring involves someone older than the learner, it cannot avoid from an advising and counselling environment (Brooks and Sikes, 1997; Mawer, 1996; Tomlinson, 1995). The general role of a mentor involves providing resources and opportunities for development, helping learners to set high but achievable goals, making realistic plans, monitoring progress, providing feedback (Nasser and Maglitta, 1989; Smith, 1989), providing a role model (Brown and Krager, 1985; Carter and Lewis, 1994; Anderson and Shannon, 1988) passing on skills, assisting the learner in solving problems and providing personal support and motivation (Carter and Lewis, 1994; Shaw, 1992; Tomlinson, 1995).

In the context of training a protégé to be a teacher, the following are leading roles: (1) training protégés to teach their particular subjects; (2) developing their understanding of how pupils learn; (3) training them to manage classes and assess pupils; (4) supervising them in relation to school-based elements of the course; and (5) assessing their competence in subject application and classroom skills (Kirkham, 1993; Wilkin, 1992). Therefore, to develop the protégé, a mentor needs preparation to fulfil these roles. Smith (1989) states that the success of school-based training and staff development can be highly dependent on the knowledge, skill and personal qualities of the mentor.

How a mentor reacts probably depends on which organization he is in and what role he wants to play. The literature indicates that a mentor can have various roles. **Table 1** presents the basic mentor's role and what seems to represent successful mentoring behaviours. There are various views about what a good or effective mentor is. However, they all incorporate the idea that a good mentor usually has positive attitudes, while the opposite is true of a bad mentor.

Table 1. Basic Roles of a Good Mentor

Roles	Good Mentor	Successful Mentoring

Adviser	Permissive not authoritarian	Keeping in touch - Maintains regular contact, demonstrates interest, exchange of information/ offers timely and sympathetic feedback
Guidance	Good time manager	First steps - Regular, frequent, face-to-face meetings essential in the early stages
Teacher	Well-educated	Line managers - The mentor must take care not to undermine the line relationship
Coach	Good communicator	‘A People’s Person’ - Enjoys working with people, able to spot their positive qualities and abilities, has a strong sense of equity and fairness and patience
Role model	Knowledge of value of action learning	Respect - Mentor and mentee give each other a sense of worth and dignity
Counsellor	Well organized	Clear mission -There must be a sense of vision, mission, purpose and objectives associated with mentoring

To be successful, mentors need to possess certain qualities and skills that will help them meet the expectations of the mentoring role. A precise definition is difficult to provide, but the common characteristics of a good mentor include intelligence and integrity, ability, professional attitude, high personal standards, enthusiasm and a willingness to share accumulated knowledge (Fisher, 1994). Mentors must be flexible and willing to accept any decision made by the protégé, whatever the consequences (Carter and Lewis, 1994; Cooper and Palmer, 1993; McIntyre *et al.*, 1993). More specifically, Shaw (1992) states that generic

mentoring skills include needs analysis, negotiation and conflict solving, giving and receiving positive and negative feedback, observation and assessment, report writing and target setting.

In order to be successful and effective, the mentors must have confidence in their communication skills (Schon, 1987; Wilkin, 1992). Parsloe (1999) proposes that besides clear role-definition, high quality mentoring is concerned with competence and experience, but it also crucially depends upon the right balance of personal qualities. A mentor will need an understanding, which may be partly intuitive, of what a learner is trying to achieve. Related to this is the fact that the mentors also ideally need experience or knowledge of the organization in which the mentoring relationship takes place (Brankin and Bailey, 1992). Furthermore, they need to understand through this experience how things get done and should be able to mobilize organizational support and opportunities to help a learner's development (Clutterbuck, 1991; Conway, 2001).

According to Parsloe (1992) good mentors are: (1) good motivators, who are perceptive and able to support the objectives of programs and fulfil their responsibilities to the candidate; (2) high performers, secure in their own occupied position within the organization and unlikely to feel threatened by, or resentful of, the candidate's opportunity; (3) able to show that a responsibility for mentoring is part of their own occupied job description; (4) able to establish a good and professional relationship, sympathetic, accessible and knowledgeable about the candidate's area of interest; (5) sufficiently senior to be in touch with the corporate structure, sharing the company's values and able to give the candidate access to resources and information; (6) good teachers, able to advise and instruct without interfering, and (7) good negotiators.

Nias (1989) states that interpersonal skills like questioning and observation are extremely important. In addition, being a good mentor requires analytical skills like interpretation (Fisher 1994) and creative thinking (Brooks and Sikes, 1997; Edwards and Collison, 1996). Good mentors will, it seems reasonable to assume, keep to their commitment and want to become even better at their job. Although the qualities and skills that a mentor possesses are vital to the effectiveness of the relationship, the qualities of a mentee are also influenced by the skills and characteristics of the linked mentor (Carter and Lewis, 1994).

It is interesting to note that successful mentoring could be defined by reference to evaluation by the mentee. Carter and Lewis (1994) take the view that a mentor needs to be able to support a learner having regard to his particular strengths and weaknesses in the process of development. Whatever the specific functional or technical skills, at the end of the process or relationship, a learner will probably need to employ some of the following: (1) learning skills; (2) setting goals; (3) identifying own learning needs; (4) planning own learning; (5) listening; (6) accepting help and feedback; and (7) risk taking. It is worth emphasising that mentoring is not an additional ^{management task}. Its main function is to enhance performance and to support people in their natural development.

For Aldisert (2001), when someone mentors, one of the best ways one can pay back the favour is to mentor someone oneself. The cycle of mentoring is about learning from someone and passing the wisdom along to someone else.

The Role of Mentees and Their Relationship with Their Mentor

As the relationship involves two parties, the mentee too should play a role in achieving the objectives. As already mentioned, the main objective of mentoring is to encourage and assist in the development and growth of a learner, and to provide the mentee with a resource regarding career aspirations (Danziger, 2001). Each mentoring relationship will be different due to the mentee's needs, his or her personal interests, and the unique nature of the mentoring relationship that develops with the mentor. Lee (2003) states that mentors can provide glimpses into the occupations protégés are drawn to and a clearer vision of the day-to-day reality of working. A mentor can also provide a wide variety of assistance to protégés, and it is critical that the mentee communicates to their mentor about the areas in which he or she needs the most guidance. Among other things, the mentees need to be: (1) eager to learn and willing to take on new challenges (Orland, 2001; Robinson, 2001); (2) receptive, be open to feedback, viewing it as an opportunity to improve themselves (Maynard, 1997; Saul, 2004); (3) open to new ideas and able to see things from other perspectives (Lee, 2003); (4) loyal, not violating confidences or trust (McIntyre *et al.*, 1993); and (5) appreciative of the help the mentor is giving (Lee, 2003).

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

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

Commitments vary widely, in terms of frequency and overall length. The meetings can take place anywhere (Welford, 2004). However, there are various views on this matter. It can be seen differentially depending upon many factors such as the mentor-mentee expectations, the organization of the mentee and how well the relationship has developed.

The focus in the meetings depends on the topics agreed by both parties. However, the way the mentor asks questions can decide or encourage the protégé to think about and support change in their developing and professional repertoire (Weiss, 2001). For example, in the context of the protégé becoming a teacher, the questions from the mentor can develop an idea of the learner's overall goal. Nevertheless, Wilkin (1992) states that the mentor should: (1) negotiate the mentee role, taking care with the evaluation dimension; and (2) if the mentee ask questions, give the rationale for asking them, which is also supported by Strohmeier *et al.* (1993). The mentee should: (4) ask the mentor what he wants to report on and discuss; (5) should not make judgments without clarifying their basis, in detail. Also, both mentor and mentee should: (5) beware of regarding the discussion as an opportunity to control, which is also supported by Mitsifer *et al.* (1992).

A mentoring relationship may end because the project for which the relationship was begun ends, or, one or the other of the participants no longer has the time or energy for the commitment, or the partners just are not clicking with one another. However, a structured mentoring program should give benefits in at least three ways, the mentee, the mentor and the agency. As an example a mentee can increase his/her skills and knowledge for professional development, a mentor should have the opportunity to test new ideas and an agency can improve the delivery of service by having more informed and skilled staff (Saul, 2004).

The Mentoring Model

There are many models of mentoring. The selection of the best suited model should be based on the protégé's needs and organizational contexts. This section aims to provide an overview of the different theoretically and empirically derived models. The models discussed here are: (1) The Counseling 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 first model is The Counselling Model for Effective Helping. Effective mentors will use counselling skills to enhance the achievements of protégés. 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 protégés 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 summarize the other person's points, acknowledging the value of the other person's point of view and identifying issues of agreement (Egan, 1998).

The second model is 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 third model is 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 protégé's developmental needs as stated in Table 2. 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 protégés. Mentoring cannot be developed in a vacuum, it must be built on an informed understanding of how protégés develop (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 protégé forward, which needs to combine support with challenge.

Table 2. The Furlong and Maynard Model of Mentoring

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

Source: Furlong, J. and Maynard, T. (1995).

The fourth model is 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 protégés 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 protégés 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 fifth model is 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 programs 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 mentee 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 programs. The people involved are obliged to achieve the identified aims, purposes and outcomes of a recognised program 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.

The Meentees Development

As a mentor, one should understand that the individual must be considered as a whole person and each mentee is a unique person and must be treated as such. In order to play their role effectively, mentor must aware that the mentee's total environment is educational and must be used to help the mentee achieve full developmental potential. The development of the mentee has to say about how institutions and people around them can best challenge and support individual to promote their psychosocial and cognitive development.

According to Low, Lomax, Jackson and Nelson (2004), in reviewing the mentee/student development process and blending the positive contributions of the emotional mind (affective learning), several important elements emerge. These elements need to be addressed in mentee/student development programs that strive to balance cognitive and affective learning: (1) Systemic and sustained as a normal part of the educational experience; (2) An emphasis on the understanding of meaning rather than an accumulation of knowledge facts; (3) Communal with respect to the development of individuation and community; (4) Team building and human relationship development are inherent aspects of the learning environment; (5) Cross-disciplinary, interconnected, integrated, and holistic; (6) Cognitive and affective learning given great breath, depth and width throughout the curriculum; (7) Active and collaborative learning maximized; (8) Service learning integral to the process of education and leadership development; (9) Powerful partnerships between those responsible for "in-class" and "out-of-class" learning (seamless transition from in-class to out-of-class learning environments); (10) Learning viewed as an inherent (casual) outcome of the total environment; and (11) Applied institutional research used as a mechanism for improvement.

The mentee development focuses on human growth and environmental influences and designs that provide environments to promote mentees' learning and maturation. Mentees development encourages educational interventions that strengthen skills, stimulate

self-understanding and increase knowledge. Therefore, the development of mentee requires consideration of equality, cooperation and collaboration among all parties. Individual can be assisted to build on their own unique developmental processes. The more individualized this development and the activities that support it, the better. The well-rounded development of the whole person is the primary goal of those who promote mentee development.

Summary and Conclusion

Mentoring is related to self-development, professional growth and career development of the mentees. The mentor's role is to help learners to achieve their goals by acting as counsellor, facilitator and advisor. Counselling is an important function in relation to the mentoring because it can lead to an improved relationship between the mentor and mentee. It consists of support, feedback, providing counsel, consultation, teaching, evaluation, motivation and the monitoring of professional issues. One of the important functions of a mentor is to be a role model for the mentee. This view is supported by many authors who have mentioned that the mentor is someone who has greater experience and helps less skilled or less experienced practitioners to achieve professional abilities.

In order to react effectively, a mentor must: (1) have certain goals and plans; (2) be a good communicator; (3) have the knowledge and relevant skills about the candidate's area of interest; (4) be able to establish a good and professional relationship; and (5) be flexible in supervision strategies depending on the individual requirements. In maintaining a good relationship, the mentor and mentee must have certain goals or objectives. The relationship will focus on these and both parties must trust, respect, empathise and be honest with each other. An effective mentor will have access to a range of teaching and learning methods, and will be able to adapt to individual supervisees and to provide clear and focused feedback to facilitate learning. A good relationship can make both parties comfortable with meeting regularly and sharing ideas or knowledge with a view to mentee development. As a protégé, one must be eager to learn, enhance one's self-awareness, learn from mistakes and successes, develop and apply new skills and design action plans or timetables. In addition, he must be diligent, conscientious and hardworking, open to criticism, willing to listen to others and to talk openly.

Assigning experienced mentors to guide and support mentee provides valuable professional development for both parties. Mentoring helps mentees face their new challenges; through reflective activities and professional conversations. Mentoring allowed mentors to help others, improve themselves, receive respect, develop collegiality from the mentees' fresh ideas and energy because the benefits of mentoring are both career-related and psychosocial.

References

- Acker, S., Hill, T., & Black, E. (1994). Thesis Supervision in the Social Science: Managed or Negotiated? *Higher Education*, 28(1), 483-498.
- Adler, K. (1965). *The Art of Accompanying and Coaching*. Minnesota: The University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

- Aldisert, L. (2001). The Value of Mentoring. *Bank Marketing*, 33(3), 40.
- All England Women's Hockey Association. (1983). *Guidelines for Coaching Hockey- How to Build Up and Develop the Game*. Brackley: Smart and Co. (Printers) Ltd.
- Anderson, E. M., & Shannon, A. L. (1988). Towards a Conceptualization of Mentoring. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(1), 38-42. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002248718803900109>
- Antonioni, D. (2000). Leading, Managing and Coaching. *Industrial Management*, 42(5), 27-34.
- Beam, L. (2001). Would You Like Your Own Coach? *Nursing Homes Long Term Care Management*, 50(3), 58-61.
- Bolch, M. (2001). Proactive Coaching. *Training*, 38(5), 58-63.
- Bowers, C. O., Fie, J. U., Kjeldsen, K., & Schmid, A. B. (1972). *Judging and Coaching Women's Gymnastics*. California: Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Brankin, M. and Bailey, T. (1992). *Establishing Criteria for Mentoring*. In Wilkin, M. (1992). *Mentoring in Schools*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Brooks, V., & Sikes, P. (1997). *The Good Mentor Guide- Initial Teacher Education in Secondary Schools*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Brown, R. D., & Krager, L. (1985). Ethical Issues in Graduate Education: Faculty and Student Responsibilities. *Journal of Higher Education*, 56(4), 403-418.
- Bullock, A. (1988). *Meeting Teachers' Management Needs*. Norfolk: Peter Frances.
- Carter, S., & Lewis, G. (1994). *Successful Mentoring in a Week*. London: Headway.
- Clutterbuck, D. (1991). Everyone Needs a Mentor. Institute of Personnel Management. In Parsloe, E. (1992). *Coaching, Mentoring and Assessing- A Practical Guide to Developing Competence*. London: Kogan Page.
- Cooper, A. M., & Palmer, A. (1993). *Mentoring and Preceptorship- A Guide to Support Roles in Clinical Practice*. London: Blackwell Scientific Publications.
- Cryer, P. (2000). *The Research Student's Guide to Success*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Danziger, K. (2001). Mentors Can Help Further Your Career. *Internet Week*, 848 (12), 49-51.
- Davis, R. L. (2004). *Mentoring Program*. Available at: <http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~rldavis/ausc/mentor.html>
- Evans, J. (1987). Coaching Children: A Question of Priority and Principle. *Sports Coach*, 11(2), 14-17.
- Evered, R. D., & Selman, J. C. (1989). Coaching and the Art of Management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, 16-32. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(89\)90040-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(89)90040-5)

- Fisher, B. (1994). *Mentoring*. London: Library Association Publishing.
- Flaxman, E. Ascher, L., & Harrington, C. (1968). *Mentoring Programs and Practices: An Analysis of the Literature*. New York: Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Columbia University Teacher's College.
- Franklin, D. (2000). Coaching For Success. *Credit Union Management*, 24(12), 50-54.
- Frost, R. B. (1971). *Psychological Concepts Applied to Physical Education and Coaching*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Fry, J. P. (2000). Coaching a Kingdom of Ends. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport*, 27, 51-62.
- Furlong, J., & Maynard, T. (1995). *Mentoring Student Teachers- The Growth of Professional Knowledge*. London: Routledge.
- Gardiner, D. (1989). *The Anatomy of Supervision- Developing Learning and Professional Competence for Social Work Students*. Suffolk: SRHE and Open University Press.
- Gene, F. (2001). Coaching Plan Helps Managers Increase Employee Commitment. *Hotel & Motel Management*, 216(6), 16.
- Graves, N., & Varma, V. (1999). *Working for a Doctorate- A Guide for the Humanities and Social Sciences*. London: Routledge.
- GreenBay, K. (2004). *Scholar Program*. Available at: <http://www.ferris.edu/Htmls/COLLEGES/university/scholar.htm>
- Hamilton, M. S. (1981). Mentorhood, a Key to Nursing Leadership. *Nursing Leadership*, 4(1), 4-13.
- Hansman, C. (2002). *Critical Perspectives on Mentoring: Trends and Issues*. Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education.
- Heinz, H. J. (2003). *Mentor Program Guidelines*. Available at: <http://www.mism.cmu.edu/mentorsite/programguidelines.asp>
- Hockey, J. (1997). A Complex Craft: United Kingdom PhD Supervision in the Social Sciences. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 2(1), 45-68. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13596749700200004>
- Kirk, J., Howard, S., Ketting, I., & Little, C. (1999). Type C Workplace Interventions. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 11(3), 105-114. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13665629910264271>
- Kirkham, G. (1993). *Mentoring and Head teachers*. In Smith, P. and West-Burnham, J. (1993). *Mentoring in the Effective School*. Essex: Redwood Books.
- Lee, A. (2003). *Qualities and Guidelines for Mentor and Mentee*. Available at: http://www.vtoast.com/printer_48.shtml

- Lyle, J. (1985). *Coach Education- Preparation for a Profession*. Glasgow: Conference
- Low, G., Lomax, A., Jackson, M., & Nelson, D. (2004). *Emotional Intelligence: A New Student Development Model*. A Paper Presented at the 2004 National Conference of the American College Personnel Association in Philadelphia Pennsylvania.
American College Personnel Association in Philadelphia Pennsylvania.
- Maher, S. (2001). The Case for a Coach. *Association Management*, 53(4), 78-84.
- Manager's Intelligence Report. (2000). Use Technology to Enhance your Coaching Performance. *Manager's Intelligence Report*, Dec. 2000, 13.
- McIntyre, D., Hagger, H., & Wilkin, M. (1993). *Mentoring- Perspectives on School-Based Teacher Education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Mink, O. G., Owen, K. Q. and Mink, B. P. (1993). *Developing High-Performance People: The Art of Coaching*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Mitstifer, D. I., Wenberg, B. G., & Schatz, P. E. (1992). *Mentoring: The Human Touch*. East Lansing, MI: Kappa Omicron Nu.
- Mountford, B. (1993). Mentoring and Initial Teacher Education. In Smith, P. and West-Burnham, J. (1993). *Mentoring in the Effective School*. Essex: Redwood Books.
- Nasser, K. (2004). *Coaching*. Available at: <http://www.katenasser.com/coaching.html>
- Nias, J. (1989). *Primary Teachers Talking: A Study of Teaching as Work*. London: Routledge.
- Oermann, M. H., & Garvin, M. F. (2001). When Coaching New Grads. *Nursing Management*, 32(1), 26-27. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00006247-200101000-00012>
- Parsloe, E. (1992). *Coaching, Mentoring and Assessing- A Practical Guide to Developing Competence*. London: Kogan Page.
- 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 Organizations?* Available at: <http://www.acrpi.com/crf/12-2pearson.html>
- Phillips, E. M., & Pugh, D. S. (2000). *How To Get a PhD- A Handbook for Students and Their Supervisors*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Phillips-Jones, L. (1982). *Mentors and Protégés*. New York: Arbor House.
- Richo, D. (1991). *How to be an Adult*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Ridlehuber, T. R. (2001). Coaching: A Key To Managing Wealth. *Trusts & Estates*, 140(4), 26-29.
- Robbins, A. (1991). *Awaken the Giant Within*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

- Robinson, T. (2001). Mentoring Speeds The Learning Curve. *Information Week*, 832(9), 77-78.
- Russell, P. (1994). Hone your Management Skills with Coaching Techniques. *Telemarketing*, 12(7), 62-63.
- Saul, J. (2004). *Creating Mentoring Relationship*. Available at: <http://gbgm-umc.org/Response/articles/mentor.html>
- Seifert, L. (2004). *Coaching One-to-One*. Available at: <http://www.for-trainers.com/coaching2.htm>
- Shaw, R. (1992). Can Mentoring Raise Achievement in Schools? In Brooks, V. and Sikes, P. (1997). *The Good Mentor Guide- Initial Teacher Education in Secondary Schools*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Smith, J. V. (2004). *Key Skills for Coaching*. Available at: <http://hsc.uwe.ac.uk/pec/keycoachingskills.pdf>
- Smith, P., & West-Burnham, J. (1993). *Mentoring in the Effective School*. Essex: Redwood Books.
- Smith, R. (1989). Research Degrees and Supervision in Polytechnics. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 13(1), 76-83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0309877890130110>
- Stephens, P. (1996). *Essential Mentoring Skills- A Practical Handbook for School-based Teacher Educators*. London: Stanley, Thornes (Publishers) Ltd.
- Vander, S. K. (2000). Exec Coaching Hones Competitive Edge. *Credit Union Executive Newsletter*, 26(32), 2-4.
- Weiss, A. (2001). What I've Learned in the Mentoring Profession. *Consulting to Management*, 12(1), 32-37.
- Welford, K. (2004). *Mentorship*. Available at: <http://www.unc.edu/~jdanaher/MAMENTOR.html>
- Whiteside, J., & Lies, J. (2004). *Minnesota Women in Psychology*. Available at: <http://www.womenpsychologists.org/Newsletter%204-03.htm>
- Wilkin, M. (1992). *Mentoring in Schools*. London: Kogan Page.
- Xavier, S. (2004). *The Coaching FAQ*. Available at: http://www.cornerstone-edg.com/coaching_faq.html#ec

for future development. A review of DoFsâ€™™ development needs, based on local discussions with the HfMA, current DoH research (2001, 2002, 2003) and wider leadership development literature. (for example Alimo-Metcalfe & Lawler, 2001; Bryman, 1993), can be distilled into three broad categories of pragmatic, effective and sustainable needs. â€¢ Pragmatic.â€ Effective needs would also embrace the broader leadership needs identified by the NHS including breaking down organisational barriers, challenging old perceptions, building new systems (DoHâ€ and a development programme for mentors and mentees to support the scheme. The mentoring scheme. The mentoring scheme took responsibility for promoting mentoring, recruiting men PDF | We used meta-analysis to review 55 evaluations of the effects of mentoring programs on youth. Overall, findings provide evidence of only a modest | Find, read and cite all the research you need on ResearchGate.â€ The effectiveness of this program relative to non-BB/BSA programs is thus of particular interest.â€ empirically based indices of best practices for mentoring interventions are developed for use in this portion of the research. These indices are utilized in. Elements of Effective Practice for Mentoringâ„¢. Research Board Review Process. Nomination Form.â€ A practice that involves the intentional use of information about mentor and mentee characteristics to inform pairing mentors and mentees in programs. View Insight. Match Support for Mentors. A practice that involves ongoing, two-way communication between mentoring program staff and mentors in order to provide appropriate guidance, oversight, and encouragement to facilitate the development of a high quality mentoring relationship. View Insight. Mentor-Mentee Activity Guidance. PDF | Mentoring is often identified as a crucial step in achieving career success. However, not all medical trainees or educators recognize the value of | Find, read and cite all the research you need on ResearchGate.â€ The relevant literature was reviewed to identify mentoring best practice and qualities of effective or admired mentors as well as existing mentor evaluation instruments [14,18,[32][33][34][35][36][37][38]. Based on the literature review and extensive discussion among the research team and a panel of mentoring experts to identify consistent themes, we initially developed an 18-item mentor evaluation instrument which was pre-tested with 20 School of Dentistry faculty in 2009 (Fig 1). ...â€ Previous evaluation tools focused on specific types of mentors or mentees. Why Mentorship Matters. Effective mentoring relationships can engage and develop the talent of a broader group of students interested in STEMM careers, and as a result, help with the development of STEMM professionals by increasing access, equity, and inclusion in STEMM. Talent is equally distributed across all sociocultural groups, but access and opportunity are not. The underrepresentation of women of all racial/ethnic groups and individuals specifically identifying as Black, Latina/o, and American Indians/Alaska Natives in STEMM contexts is pervasive.