

Building Excellent Workforce through Effective Coaching for Coachees' Development

Norhasni Zainal Abiddin (Corresponding author)

Department of Professional Development and Continuing Education

Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

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

Affero Ismail

Department of Manpower, Ministry of Human Resource
62502 Putrajaya, Malaysia

E-mail: affero.ismail@gmail.com

Received: January 3, 2012 Accepted: February 21, 2012 Published: March 12, 2012

doi:10.5296/ije.v4i1.1503 URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ije.v4i1.1503

Abstract

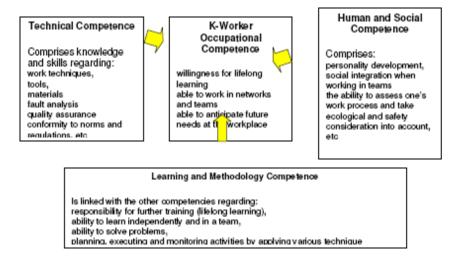
Coaching is a part of educational training especially in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) to develop people in the professions. Coaching is related to self-development, professional growth and career development of the coachee. Not only do coaches have to play role but the coaches too and all this must be placed within the specific institutional context. This article is designed to summarize existing literature on coaching in order to assist coach-coachee in enhancing the best practices for effective coaching. Thus, it focuses on model of coaching, role of coach and the nature of the coach-coachee relationship.

Keywords: Coaching, Coach, Coachee, Practices, Coachees' Development



1. Introduction

Recently, issue of excellent workers has become vital and widely debated across the countries. It is in synchronizing with the development of K-workers. The global changes in technology and particularly in the Malaysian industries have created a dire need for skilled workforce and comprehensive training. A holistic skills training and technical training program to train K-worker should encompass not only technical competences but also human and social competences. This can be achieved through effective coaching during their training and practical in Public Skills Training Institute (ILKA) and industries as well. The coaching relationship has been described as an invaluable learning activity for beginners as well as experienced practitioners such as teachers, administrators, trainers and other professionals.



K-worker Occupational Competence (Source: NVTC, 2005)

Many scholars have mentioned the importance of the relationship between a student and a supervisor in this context (Acker, Hill and Black, 1994; Cryer, 2000; Graves and Varma, 1999; Phillips and Pugh, 2000) particularly where the two work closely over a number of years. The relationship between the teacher and student plays an important role in promoting the student's objectives. 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. Learning involves two parties, the teacher (also known as supervisor, mentor, coach) and the student (known as the trainee, mentee, mentoree, coachee, prot & . This article will discuss the supervisory approach commonly adopted towards student/trainee in order to help them achieve their objectives. In this, roles and practices of coach-coachee are described. Both parties either a coach or coachee should play their roles effectively. Hence, this article explores a review of the literature on coaching. It focuses on coaching model and the nature of the coach-coachee relationship.

2. The Coaching Model

Coaching models help to provide a framework for a session, helping it to be a meaningful conversation with a defined outcome rather than just a chat with no clear purpose. Different



models provide alternative perspectives prompting different questions to help the coachee in a variety ways. The skill of the coach is in knowing what the client needs at a particular moment so a toolkit of different models is helpful to draw upon and use as appropriate.

There are many models of coaching. Each model has their own strengths, which can be seen by looking at the coaching goals. Coaching integrates many fields of knowledge. If we look closely, most coaching approaches share things in common: (1) The establishment of a relationship built on trust, unfeigned communication and confidentiality; (2) The formulation of client-based, agreed upon goals and expectations; and (3) A deep questioning and learning dynamic in relation to your goals. There are three models that will be discussed in this section which are Schon's Three Models, The GROW Model and The Coaching Method Model.

3. Schon's Three Models

This model area as follows: (1) Joint Experimentation Model; (2) Follow Me; and (3) Hall of Mirrors. These are three ideal types and are in practice more often found together, as coach and coachee shift from one to other. In Schon (1987) the coach is male and the practitioner or coachee is female. In Joint Experimentation, the coach first seeks to help a student formulate what she wants to achieve, and then via demonstration or description, they explore different ways of doing this. The coach's skill is in leading the student to search for a suitable means of achieving the desired objective. Having risked saying what she wants, she then risks experimenting in new ways. According to Schon (1987), the more the coach knows about the problem, the harder it is not to tell the student how to solve it or to solve it for her. This joint experimentation can only succeed when the student can already say what she wants to produce. The experimentation is in the processes for achieving the stated ends. During these, because of the unique and unpredictable nature of each situation, the student and coach work together to learn from it, but use orthodox methods. This approach is therefore inappropriate when wholly new ways of seeing and doing are required.

In Follow Me, coach's skill consists in his capacity to improvise a complete performance and within this, to share short examples of reflection-in-action. Here, the relationship between the whole performance and its parts is crucial. The coach demonstrates a number of ways of breaking down the whole into parts and reassembling these into the whole in more understandable way. The student attempt to imitate him, and the coach and student respond each other. Here, the student's skill is to keep as many possibilities as feasible alive in her mind, temporarily suspending her own intentions while she observes the coach and tries to follow him, attempting to reproduce his operations in order to discover their meaning. She then decodes his response, testing whether the meanings she has constructed as a result are like his. By this means, she will gain some of the coach's understanding but will then utilize this ultimately in her own way (Hockey, 1997).

In the Hall of Mirrors, the student and coach continually shift perspectives. Their interaction is at one moment a re-enacting of some aspect of the take a two-tiered view of their interaction, seeing it for itself, and as a mirror to reflect back to the student what she has brought to that interaction. The coach's skill is in showing his own confusions authentically in order to enable the student to see error or failure as learning opportunity. However, the

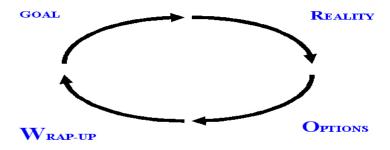


Hall of Mirrors can only work on the basis of parallels between practice and the practicum, as for example, when the kind of enquiry established in the practicum resembles the inquiry that the student seeks to exemplify in real practice. Therefore, in all of the above models, it is important for both student and coach to assess their own learning. Thus, to do their jobs well, they become researchers, each enquiring consciously into his or her own and each other's changing understandings. However, this enquiry takes place under difficult conditions because of the complexity of the human situations of which they are part, and because they are often unaware what they already know. Their tacit knowledge as well as their confusions, their beliefs and doubts, needs to be examined. Talking to each other and working together are the main means of so doing (Hockey, 1997).

4. GROW Model

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

- Agree topic for discussion Agree specific objective of session Set long-term aim if appropriate
- Offer specific examples of feedback Avoid or check assumptions
- Discard irrelevant history



- Commit to action
- Identify possible obstacle
 - Make steps specific and define training
- Agree support

- Cover the full range of options
- Invite suggestions from coachee Offer suggestions carefully

GROW Model (Source: Ravier, L. (2005))



5. The Coaching Method Model

The third model is The Coaching Method Model. Parsloe (1992) suggests that there are four coaching methods, which he calls hands-on, hands-off, supporter and qualifier. Hands-on is when the coach is acting as instructor when working with inexperienced learners, whereas hands-off is best for developing higher performance with experienced learners. The supporter method can be used when helping learners to use a flexible learning package technique and the qualifier method is suitable in helping a learner develop a specific requirement for a competence-based or professional qualification. The basic coaching process and the necessary knowledge and skills also apply to the other two main coaching roles identified, the supporter and the qualifier method. This method of learning is very inexpensive way of providing learners with a body of learning resources compared to the cost of full-time tutors and classroom-based activities. Learners can choose both the way they would like to use the learning resources and also the time and pace to suit the pressures of their environment. The qualifier method will usually apply in situations where a candidate for a competence-based or professional qualification identifies a specific performance task in which he/she needs to develop competence as part of a larger qualification program. A typical situation might be for a candidate to develop competence in preparing marketing plan, using a spreadsheet, chairing a meeting or inputting and retrieving from a database.

6. The Responsibility of an Effective Coach

The coach has often been compared to a teacher (Adams, 2000; Adler, 1965; Cohen and Tichy, 1998; Frost, 1971; Oerman and Garvin, 2001; Senge, 1990; Zeigler, 1984). There are many authors who suggest that coaching is a form of facilitating learning (Frost, 1971; Ellinger and Bostrom, 1999; Ellinger, Ellinger and Keller, 2003; Mink and Mink, 1993) which is concerned with the improvement of performance and the development of skills (Antonioni, 2000; Frost, 1971; Gene, 2001; Hotel, 2002; Humphrey and Stokes, 2000; Lyle, 1985). Coach can also be seen as a trainer or counselor (Adams, 2000; Lyle, 1985; Mackenzie, 2004) and should be significant as a source of the guidance (Adams, 2000; Adler, 1965; Lyle, 1985; Maher, 2001), development, preparation and motivation on how to improve the coachee's performance (Lyle, 1985). Parsloe (1992) suggests that the coach's role should include, analyzing current performance, planning suitable learning, implementing the plan and evaluating performance. According to Antonioni (2000), a coach should also be expert in change, spot strengths and limitations, help to crystallize visions and values, clarify and define strategy, coordinate resources to achieve goals, optimize performance, satisfaction and balance in life and stay accountable to a vision. In other words, a coach can be seen as influencing individuals' personal development and a having an ability to achieve appropriate objectives (Pearson, 2001; Smith, 2004). In the business context, a coach is part consultant and a part motivator, who career-oriented or personal, and often they are both. Unlike a therapist, a coach is more concerned with the future than with the past, with action than with introspection and with how things can happen rather than what they have done so. Unlike a traditional consultant, a coach creates solutions with the client rather than telling him or her, what to do (Beam, 2001). According to Maher (2001) an executive coach can provide insights into current problems and suggest a wide range of options. On the other hand, Smith



(2004) takes the view that such a coach should help the coachee to think things through, develop structures up on which to base action, monitor the progress in order for the coachee to succeed and keep on the right track, and help to avoid common management pitfalls.

7. Qualities of an Effective Coach

Discussion will now center on the qualities of the effective coach and in particular, the skills needed. It is important that a coach has 'appropriate qualifications' (Antonioni, 2000; Adler, 1965; Frost, 1971; Bobbit, Breinholt, Doktor and McNaul, 1978; Bowers, Fie, Kjeldsen and Schmid, 1972). In the partnership, the coach uses a non-judgmental style and skill of inquiry to help individuals enhance their abilities, knowledge and skills (Vander, 2000). It is common that the process of learning is achieved through a combination of doing, seeing and hearing (All England Women's Hockey Association, 1983). Over-all, there is general agreement that the skills required of a an effective coach are listening skills analytical skills, interviewing skills, effective questioning techniques, observation, giving and receiving performance feedback (Gene, 2001; Maher, 2001; Franklin, 2000), communicating (Frost, 1971; Mackenzie, 2004; Tim, 2003), setting clear expectations, and creating a supportive environment conducive to coaching (Antonioni, 2000; Smith, 2004; Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester, 1993; King and Eaton, 1999; Marsh, 1992; Mobley, 1999; Phillips, 1994; Zemke, 1996). Therefore, in some cases, coaches need to develop strategies to help individuals learn how to accept constructive feedback in addition to developing an action plan for improvement (Antonioni, 2000; Gene, 2001). For Adler (1965), the coach in a musical environment must be a good sight-reader and have the ability to transpose.

According to Maher (2001), coaching in the performance of effective leadership can help a company, but requires three distinct types of intelligence in the coach: cognitive, emotional and behavioral. Most company executives have the first type of intelligence. Their innate cognitive intelligence has qualified them to become leaders in the first place. Emotional and behavioral intelligence are rarer and usually need to be developed. Emotional intelligence concerns the development of effective personal and interpersonal styles. Maher describes five components of emotional intelligence that are characteristic of leaders: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. The third type of leadership intelligence is behavioral intelligence, which concerns the specific actions required to create a vision and translate it into reality. Using the concepts of emotional and behavioral intelligence provides context for exploring leadership issues and developing skills that would not have come up on their own. For Parsloe (1992), the three important skills the coach should acquire are core skills, technical skills and personal skills. Core skills, which are common to mentoring and assessing, include listening, observing, demonstrating and responding to situations. Technical skills are related to each learner being coached using a different coaching styles to fit the performance goals of the learner. Finally, personal skills, which relate to the style and tone of the coach's behavior, include using good communication, giving support, building confidence and empathizing with learners' thoughts and ideas.



8. Roles of an Effective Coach

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

According to Frost (1971), effective coaches should be measured by looking positive performances, winning teams and successful business organizations. However, Russell (1994) disagree with this statement, believing that successful coaches are not necessarily those who are the best players or winning teams, but players should be given the motivational tools to perform at extraordinary levels. Furthermore, Bowers et al. (1972) and Zeigler (1984) also agree that coaches who are successful are not necessarily effective coaches. There are many other factors involved. Bowers et al. (1972) point out that a coach will wither know her area well or will not be ashamed to admit her weakness and learn along with her students in order to be better prepared in the future. Additionally, Franklin (2000) states that, in the sports context, the role of the coach is to make maximum use of players' talents. In business, a corporate coach does much the same thing by helping employees develop and use skills in the most effective way. Therefore, the role of both the athletic and corporate coach is to create an environment where there exists challenge and the possibility of personal growth, which allows individuals to achieve their best (Franklin, 2000; Russell, 1994). Evan (1987) and Johns, Wells, Peters and Johnson (1982) propose that the best approach to coaching in sport always involves the concept of 'athlete first, winning second'. This idea of the athlete before winning is also supporter in the philosophical studies of Fry (2000) and Rowland, (2000), who contend that a coach must see each athlete as an 'end in themselves' and not just 'a means to an end'.

9. Summary and Conclusion

There are many models of coaching that can be adapted in TVET and also in the implementing of Competency Based Training (CBT). All have their own vigor, which can be seen by looking at the coaching goals. There were three models that have been discussed in this article: Schons's Three Models, The GROW Model and The Coaching Method Model. Coaching is related to self-development, professional growth and career development of the



coachees. The coach's role is to help learners to achieve their goals by acting as counselor, facilitator and advisor. Counseling is an important function in relation to the coaching because it can lead to an improved relationship between the coach and the coachee. It consists of support, feedback, providing counsel, consultation, teaching, evaluation, motivation and the monitoring of professional issues. One of the important functions of a coach is to be role model for the coachee. This view is supported by many authors who have mentioned that the coach is someone who has greater experience and helps less skilled or less experiences practitioners to achieve professional abilities. In order to react effectively, a coach must: (1) have certain goals and plans; (2) be a good communication; (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 coach and coachee must have certain goals or objectives. The relationship will focus on these and both parties must trust, respect, empathize and be honest with each other. An effective coach 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 coachee development. As a student, one must be eager to learn, enhance ones self-awareness, learn from mistakes and success, develop and apply new skills and design action plans or timetables. In addition, he/she must be diligent, conscientious and hardworking, open to critics, willing to listen to others and to talk openly. Assigning experienced coaches to guide and support coachee provides valuable professional development for both parties. Coaching helps coaches face their new challenges; through reflective activities and professional conversations. Coaching allowed coaches to help others, improve themselves, receive respect, develop collegiaty from the coachees' fresh ideas and energy because the benefits of coaching is career-related and psychosocial.

References

Acker, S., Hill, T., and Black, E. (1994). Thesis Supervision in the Social Science: Managed or Negotiated? *Higher Education*, 28(1), 483-498.

Adams, S. (2000). *Coaching Basics*. Retrieved from: http://www.baseballontario.com/cbasics.pdf. (Accessed March 19, 2004).

Adler, K. (1965). *The Art of Accompanying and Coaching*. Minnesota: The University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

Ahern, G. (2003). Designing and Implementing Coaching/Mentoring Competencies: A Case Study. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly*, 16(4), 373-383. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0951507032000156871

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.



Antonioni, D. (2000). Leading, Managing and Coaching. Industrial Management, 42(5).

Beam, L. (2001). Would You Like Your Own Coach? *Nursing Homes Long Term Care Management*, 50(3), 58-61.

Bobbit, H. R., Breinholt, R. H., Doktor, R. H., and McNaul, J. P. (1978). *Organizational Behavior: Understanding and Prediction. Englewood Cliffs.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Bowers, C. O., Fie, J. U., Kjeldsen, K., and Schmid, A. B. (1972). *Judging and Coaching Women's Gymnastics*. California: Mayfield Publishing Company.

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

Cohen, E., & Tichy, N. (1998). Teaching: The Heart of Leadership. *Healthcare Forum Journal*, 41(2), 20.

Cryer, P. (2000). *The Research Student's Guide to Success*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Ellinger, A. D., and Bostrom, R. P. (1999). Managerial Coaching Behaviors in Learning Organizations. *Journal of Management Development*, 18(9), 752-771. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02621719910300810

Ellinger, A. D., Ellinger, A. E., and Keller, S. B. (2003). Supervisory Coaching Behavior, Employee Satisfaction and Warehouse Employee Performance: A Dyadic Perspective in the Distribution Industry. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 14(4), 435-458. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1078

Evans, J. (1987). Coaching Children: A Question of Priority and Principle. *Sport Coach*, 11(2), 14-17.

Franklin, D. (2000). Coaching for Success. Credit Union Mangement, 24(12), 50-54.

Frost, R. B. (1971). *Psycological Concepts Applied to Physical Education and Coaching*. Massuchusetts: Addison-Wesly Publishing Company.

Fry, J. P. (2000). Coaching a Kingdom of Ends. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport*, 27, 51-62.

Gene, F. (2001). Coaching Plan Helps Mangers Increase Employee Commitment. *Hotel & Motel Management*, 216(6), 16.

Graham, S. Wedman, J. F., and Garvin-Kester, B. (1993). Manager coaching Skills: Development and Application. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 6(1), 2-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1937-8327.1993.tb00569.x

Graves, N., and Varma, V. (1999). Working for a Doctorate-A Guide for the Humanities and Social Sciences. London: Routledge.



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

Hotel, D. R. (2002). Skills for the 21st Century Supervisor. What Factory Personnel Think. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 12(2), 61-83.

Humphrey, B. and Stokes, J. (2000). The 21st Century Supervisor. HR Magazine, 185-192.

Johns, B. J., Wells, J. J., Peters, R. E., and Johnson, D. J. (1982). *Guide to Effective Coaching Principles and Practices*. Massachussets: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

King, P., and Eaton, J. (1999). Coaching for Results. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 31(4), 145-148. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00197859910275791

Lyle, J. (1985). Coach Education-Preparation for a Profession. Glasgow: Conference.

Mackenzie, B. (2004). *The Complete Guide to Successful Coaching*. Retrieved from: http://www.sports-coach.net/prewp/prelaunch-htw21-7950.html. (Accessed march 19, 2004).

Maher, S. (2001). The Case for a Coach. Association Management, 53(4), 78-84.

Manager's Intelligence Report. (2001). Are you Prepared to Work with a Management Coach? *Manager's Intelligence Report*, 3-5.

Marsh, L. (1992). Good Manager: Good Coach? What is Needed for Effective coaching? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 24(9), 3-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00197859210020213

Mink, O. G., Owen, K. Q., and Mink, B. P. (1993). *Developing High-Performance People: The Art of Coaching*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Mobley, S. A. (1999). Judge Not: How Coaches Create Healthy Organizations. *Journal for Quality and Participation*, 22(4), 57-60.

Nasser, K. (2004). *Coaching*. Retrieved from: http://www.katenasser.com/coaching.html (Accessed March 19, 2004).

NCVT (2005). National Certification in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur: NVTC.

Oerman, M. H., and 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.

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

Phillips, E. M., and Pugh, D. S. (2000). *How to Get a PhD-A Handbook for Students and Their Supervisors*. Buckingham: Open University Press.



Phillips, R. (1994). Coaching for Higher Performance. *Management Development Review*, 75(5), 26-29.

Ravier, L. (2005). Art and Science of Coaching: Its History, Philosophy and Essence.

Rowland, T. W. (2000). On the Ethics of Elite-level Sport Participation by Children. *Pediatric Exercise Science*, 12, 1-5.

Russell, P. (1994). Hone your Management Skills with Coaching techniques. *Telemarketing*, 12(7), 62-63.

Schon, D. A. (1987). Educationg the Reflective Practitioner. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Seifert, L. (2004). *Coaching One-to-One*. Retrieved from: http://www.for-trainers.com/coching2.htm (Accessed March 19, 2004).

Senge, P. M. (1990). The Fifth Discipline. New York: Doubleday.

Smith, J. V. (2004). *Key Skills for Coaching*. Retrieved from: http://hsc.uwe.ac.uk/pec/keycoachingskills.pdf (Accessed March 19, 2004).

Tim, D. (2003). Coaching the Mental Game: Leadership Philosophies and Strategies for Peak Performance in Sports-and Everyday Life. *Library Journal*, 128(16), 86.

Vander, S. K. (2000). Exec Coaching Hones Competitive Edge. *Credit Union Executive Newsletter*, 26(32), 2-4.

Wilkin, M. (1992). Mentoring in Schools. London: Kogan Page.

Zeigler, E. F. (1984). Applied Ethics in Sport and Physical Education. *Philosophy in Context*, 13, 52-64.

Zemke, R. (1996). The Corporate Coach. *Training*, 33(12), 24-28.

Copyright Disclaimer

Copyright reserved by the author(s).

This article is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/).