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A comparison of mentor and coach approaches across disciplines

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Abstract

A comparison of mentor and coach approaches across disciplines

Confusion surrounds the role of the mentor and coach, given the broad and sometimes conflicting definitions attributed to mentoring and coaching. This prohibits practitioners communicating clearly about their role and whether it is suitable to the needs of the client. Furthermore, it presents difficulties with purchasers or potential clients understanding what they might get out of being mentored or coached. This study examined the shared and distinctive approaches of mentors and coaches, by exploring the work of practitioners within six disciplines: mentors of young people, mentors of leaders, mentors of newly qualified teachers, executive coaches, coaching psychologists and sports coaches.

A review of the literature was carried out in relation to these six areas which suggested that shared practitioner approaches were evident, particularly where client needs were similar. The literature also intimated some differences in approach when the specific discipline was taken into account. However, no research was found which asked mentors and coaches to identify any unique aspects of their role that might set them apart from other types of practitioners. A qualitative study using comparative case studies explored the approaches of practitioners from each of the six identified disciplines to address this gap.

Findings suggest that mentor or coach approaches might be viewed as discipline-specific where practitioners want to specialise in a particular type of mentoring or coaching which requires specific knowledge and/or skills. However, for the field of mentoring and coaching to further develop, mentors and coaches could expand their capacity and scope of work by adopting interdisciplinary approaches and reapplying their skills across a range of disciplines, where appropriate. This would also encourage the sharing of good practice across the mentoring and coaching disciplines.

Further research is needed which takes into consideration the approaches and needs in other disciplines not featured in this study.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

A recurring dilemma is evident in the mentoring and coaching literature and in practice-based settings: there is significant confusion surrounding the definition of the two concepts (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Clark, Jamieson, Launer, Trompetas, Whiteman & Williamson, 2006; Clutterbuck, 2008; Garvey, 2004; Passmore& Gibbes, 2007).Whilst some commentators highlight the overlap between the two roles (Cox, 2003; Passmore& Gibbes, 2007) or the impractical nature of attempting to separate one from the other (Ferrar, 2004),others are eager to gain some clarity and distinction (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Clark *et al*, 2006; Garvey, 2004). However, these on-going debates fail to articulate the differences and similarities in approach across mentoring and coaching disciplines: how mentors and coaches see their roles, what it is they are intending to achieve and how they go about their practice. In addition, a greater sense of clarity would support mentors and coaches by coherently communicating what it is they do and why; therefore prospective mentees and coachees looking to engage in the mentoring or coaching process would also be able to identify what each entails (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Garvey, 2004). It is apparent that in some practice-based areas, mentoring might be more readily available than coaching whilst in other areas coaching is the preferred intervention; and it is not altogether clear from existing literature why this is the case. Furthermore, it is not known if, and how, mentors and coaches adapt their approaches when working across a variety of disciplines. The potential for transferability of skills between different types of mentoring and/or coaching disciplines is also under-researched and not widely addressed in the literature.

A clearer understanding of mentor and coach approaches is needed

Observing the current mentoring and coaching landscape, I believe a deeper understanding of how mentor and coach approaches are shared and distinct from one another is vital for the development of the field. Confusion associated with defining mentoring and coaching amongst practitioners and existing or prospective clients and buyers is arguably hampering growth. This belief is based on several factors: 1) personal experience, which has led to a lack of clarity regarding my own professional boundaries; 2) associated stakeholders who send mixed messages about mentoring and coaching; 3)

an array of literature which often describes how mentoring and coaching might be implemented without acknowledging the complexities associated with the differentiation.

1. Personal confusion

My own professional background has prompted questions about the mentoring discipline I come from, and whether or not I could or should reapply those skills in other mentoring and coaching disciplines. With a youth work background I have mentored young people deemed to be 'at risk' of exclusion from the education system. I have also managed mentoring schemes supporting the same client group where I recruited, trained, matched and supervised volunteer mentors. This context provided a limited experience of mentoring which was later challenged when I joined a master's degree programme at Oxford Brookes University. The course exposed me to a range of coaching disciplines. Amongst my cohort, I was the only mentor working within the voluntary sector; the majority of colleagues on the programme were self-employed executive coaches operating in the private sector. During each session, I reflected on the similarities and differences of my own professional experiences as a mentor compared with different types of coaches and this raised lots of questions in my own mind. I was unsure if business acumen and expertise was a pre-requisite for coaching in the private sector, or whether the completion of a master's degree in both mentoring and coaching was sufficient for me to call myself a coach as well as mentor. In addition, the empirical research carried out for the master's degree included interviewing someone who had established himself as a successful coach, having had no previous coaching training. I started to wonder if I could make the transition from mentor to coach by using my previous professional experiences and reapply these skills elsewhere and if so, which coaching disciplines would be easier or more appropriate for me to enter, and why.

The other area of personal interest to me has been the observation of significant increase in mentoring programmes for young people (Colley, 2003) compared with coaching opportunities. Whilst coaching programmes for young people can be found (Leach, Green & Grant, 2011; McKenna, 2010; Wentz, Nyden & Krevers, 2012), the use or variance of these interventions, or indeed how decisions are made about their applications, is not discussed (Gibb, 1994). No evidence can be found that shows practitioners considering mentoring or coaching and which of the two might be best suited to the individual situation. This kind of assessment or division of mentoring and

coaching processes has not been fully discussed in relation to youth work services and provisions, or indeed other areas.

2. Stakeholder confusion

Associated stakeholders including professional membership bodies, trainers and buyers either add to or are affected by the confusion surrounding mentoring and coaching terminology. Professional membership bodies either incorporate 'mentoring and coaching' into their organisational title or choose to use only one or the other (see Table 1.1). There is also uncertainty about why some professional bodies focus on either mentoring or coaching; whilst others look to attract members from both.

MENTORING Membership Organisations:	COACHING Membership Organisations:	MENTORING AND COACHING Membership Organisations:
Mentoring and Befriending Foundation (www.mandbf.org)	Association for Coaching (www.associationforcoaching.com)	European Mentoring and Coaching Council (www.emccouncil.org)
International Mentoring Network Organization (www.imno.org)	The Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (www.wabccoaches.com)	The Coaching and Mentoring Network (www.coachingnetwork.org.uk)
	International Association of Coaching (www.certifiedcoach.org)	
	International Coach Federation (www.coachfederation.org)	
	Coaching Supervision Academy (www.coachingsupervisionacademy.com)	
	The Association for Professional Executive Coaching and Supervision (www.apecs.org)	

Table 1.1: Mentoring and coaching membership bodies or associations

There is clearly a range of perspectives on mentors and coaches represented here, given the number of professional bodies that have been established. Having so many umbrella organisations adds to the uncertainty, as each one seems to promote a niche aspect such as supervision or business coaching, as the main focus. The overall bias veers towards coaching as there are more bodies targeted at coaches compared with mentors

or both. This sends a subliminal message that coaching has higher status than mentoring.

A similar pattern emerges from the training providers of mentors and coaches. Again, a diverse range of programmes – some accredited, others not – have a bias towards either mentoring or coaching, or look to encompass both. Table 1.2 summarises the UK-based training providers who have European Quality Award (EQA) status and can be found on the European Mentoring and Coaching Association website (www.emccouncil.org):

MENTORING EQA training providers:	COACHING EQA training providers:	MENTORING AND COACHING EQA training providers:
None listed	Academy of Executive Coaching	Clutterbuck Associates
	Ashridge Business School	Chartered Institute for Professional Development
	Bluesky International	Intuition
	British Broadcasting Corporation	Oxford Brookes University
	Chartered Institute for Professional Development	The Oxford School of Coaching and Mentoring
	Coface UK and Ireland	Pegasus Partnership
	Elliott Griffiths	Quiver Management
	Forensic Science Service	Sheffield Hallam University
	I-coach academy	
	Lambent UK Ltd	
	Lane 4	
	Metropolitan Police Services	
	The Oxford School of Coaching and Mentoring	
	PB Coaching / Metier MCD	
	PDF.Net	
	Performance Coach	
	The School of Coaching	
	SLAM Partners	
	Tavistock Consultancy Service	

Table 1.2: Mentoring and coaching training providers with EQA status

Table 1.2 shows again how coaching dominates in terms of accredited courses on offer. This list does not include programmes available which do not have EQA status. Other courses found which specialise in mentor training included an Edexcel BTEC Level 2 Certificate in Peer Mentoring (www.edexcel.com); a Mentoring in the Workplace Certificate awarded by Oxford and Cambridge RSA (www.ocr.org.uk) and a National Occupational Standards in Mentoring and Befriending for Offenders Level 3 programme (www.mandbf.org). Again, this reinforces the view that the demand for coaching training is much higher, and therefore of greater value than mentoring. This is reflected

in my own experience of participating on programmes targeted at mentors and coaches. Often, the emphasis leans towards coaching with little mention of mentoring beyond the first few sessions. Therefore it is important that training providers are clear about their own perspectives on mentoring and coaching so that potential students can select the most appropriate institution (Bachkirova & Kauffman, 2009).

Buyers include organisations or individual prospective clients who specifically want to find an effective intervention which will meet either their own needs or those whom they represent. This could include Human Resource Managers who coordinate internal mentoring schemes or recruit external coaches for employees identified as needing additional support. Or this might include an individual who believes they are good at a particular sport and wants to develop their skills to see if they have the potential to become a professional athlete. It is unclear how the individual or corporate buyer goes about finding the right mentor or coach and how particular approaches of practitioners adapt in order to meet such a diverse range of needs represented by clients.

3. Confusion in the Literature

The problem of understanding the role of the mentor or coach in light of theory is also evident. Due to the range of settings where mentoring and coaching can be found, finding a definition that will be applicable in all contexts is an almost insurmountable difficulty (Law, Ireland & Hussain, 2007). Frameworks often start from the premise and experience of the author(s) and take for granted other disciplines where principles are not so easily reapplied. For example, Berkeley (2004), Conway (1995), King (2012), Noe (1988), Stead (1997) and Wynn, Wilson Carboni, & Patall (2007) state that a key part of the mentoring process is the shared professional background between the mentor and mentee. However, when matching mentors to young people, the shared professional context does not apply. Similarly for coaches, the general theoretical assumption is that coaching uses a facilitative approach and therefore common ground is not needed (Blackman-Sheppard, 2004; Boyce, Jackson & Neal, 2010). However, sports coaches believe that shared experiences and knowledge are crucial to the coaching relationship (Lemyre, Trudel & Durand-Bush, 2007). Bachkirova and Kauffman (2009) agree that any attempt to arrive at a universal definition will inevitably exclude certain types of mentors and coaches. Consideration needs to be given to all mentoring and coaching disciplines where authors are tempted to offer subjective and therefore inadequate definitions.

There are also many gaps in the literature. The issue of mentoring for young people being more available than coaching has already been highlighted. This is mirrored in the literature where virtually no theory can be found which explores any frameworks or approaches exploring coaching for young people. By contrast, research-based studies (Beattie & Holden, 1994; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Shiner, Young, Newburn & Groben, 2004) and wider literature (Colley, 2003; Newburn, Shiner & Young, 2004; Meier, 2008; Miller, 2002; Rhodes, 2002; Smith & West-Burnham, 1993;) have focused on the practice of mentoring for young people.

One logical explanation for the lack of clarity within the literature about the diverse nature of mentoring and coaching is the ever-evolving settings in which both are found. Garvey, Stokes and Megginson (2009) posit that this will never be resolved because evolutionary social changes in mentoring and coaching are inevitable, as history testifies. They suggest that one way of dealing with such complexities might be to look for 'localised understanding' (p.27).

Aim of study

Given the challenges outlined above, the aim of this study is to explore the differences and similarities between mentors and coaches from a fresh perspective by comparing mentor and coach approaches within six disciplines. Firstly, I will critically review research that relates to each of the six identified disciplines, in order to shed further light on the approaches that practitioners take to their mentoring or coaching.

Secondly, empirical research will be conducted to compare and analyse the approaches of mentors and coaches working in specific disciplines of work from the perspective of the practitioner. Primary research will allow coaches and mentors to articulate how they see their role in relation to their area of work. The findings from each discipline will form the basis of a comparative case study. Findings will then be critically evaluated in order to further understand how mentoring and coaching approaches are shared and distinctive. It is anticipated that the findings will suggest ways in which the mentor's and coach's approach differs in relation to the discipline they are working in, as well as similarities or overlaps which span professional boundaries.

Thirdly, consideration will also be given to the potential for transferability of mentor and coach skills across disciplines whilst acknowledging types of mentoring and coaching which require specialist knowledge or expertise of the practitioner. It is hoped that any

new insights about the mentor and coach in relation to their area of work will help inform the sharing of good practice across the broader mentoring and coaching field.

1.	Critically review literature on approaches of mentors and coaches within six disciplines.
2.	Explore how mentors and coaches from six disciplines define their approaches through primary research.
3.	Compare and analyse the findings, giving consideration to shared and distinctive mentor and coach approaches.
4.	Critically evaluate and synthesise how the practice of mentors and coaches coincides/differs and suggest how inter-disciplinary practice may be shared.

Table 1.3: Summary of research objectives:

A clearer understanding of how mentors and coaches differ in their approach is needed for several reasons:

- Mentors and coaches alike can articulate clearly what it is they do or don't do;
- Mentees and coachees/clients have a clearer understanding of the relationship they are embarking on so that they can make informed decisions about what might best suit their needs;
- Purchasers or referrers can appreciate what can be achieved through mentoring and coaching and play their part in the assessment process when referring individuals on;
- Practitioners can consider whether they should specialise in types of interventions or understand ways in which their skills are transferable across disciplines;
- A more rigorous theoretical underpinning is needed for mentoring and coaching that takes the area in which the discipline is being carried out into consideration.

Whilst this study does not set out to solve the on-going debate around definition, examination of issues associated with mentoring and coaching practice within disciplines will help provide additional insights.

Difficulties with terminology

Aside from the obvious difficulties associated with defining mentoring and coaching, other problems were encountered when selecting key words to include within the title and aim of this study. Specifically, this relates to the use of the word 'approach' when referring to mentor and coach practice; and 'discipline' when describing a type or area of mentoring and coaching. A brief explanation of the decisions made regarding the inclusion of these words and the rejection of others is offered.

'Approach' is admittedly a broad term to use when referring to mentor and coach practice. However, the rationale for this was to use a term which incorporates the philosophy of the practitioner as well as the kinds of activities they use within their mentoring or coaching discipline. Brockbank and McGill (2006) refer to approach as a way of explaining how practice can be variable depending on the purpose and processes used. This was deemed to be a good starting point when seeking to compare practice across a variety of disciplines. Whilst the term 'practice' would have sufficed, it would have not incorporated the motivational aspect of what the practitioner is hoping to achieve.

Prior to using 'disciplines' when referring to mentor and coach type, 'context' was considered based on authors such as Roberts (2000), Clutterbuck (2008) and Delaney (2012) who suggest that a broader understanding of the context is needed to understand the definition intended. Cox (2003) also refers to context by identifying how environmental, cultural and historical factors significantly influence the professional relationship. This is reinforced by Bozeman and Feeney (2007) who link these elements to boundary demarcations between contexts. Garvey (2004) also associates terminology to social contexts: "Words have different and sometimes quite subtle differences in different contexts" (Garvey, 2004:7). An exploration of the role of the practitioner in any given context seems to be of paramount importance (Ferrar, 2004). However, the term context is not sufficient when considering some types of mentoring and coaching which are not specifically wedded to a contextual setting. For example, coaching psychologists are set apart by a qualification and are viewed as a sub-discipline of psychology (Grant, 2006);therefore the professional context in which they operate could be one of many. Similarly mentors of leaders could work in the private or public sector, or indeed both; therefore the context is difficult to pin down and attribute to a particular label associated with mentoring. Ferrar (2004) points out that accommodating all contextual 'anomalies and variables' (p.58) would be impossible.

Due to the perceived limitations of the term 'context', the decision was made to describe mentor and coach types as 'disciplines' which acknowledges certain parameters to the role which may or may not be context-specific. The term discipline is not widely used within mentoring and coaching. Ives (2008) describes coaching as an emerging discipline which would imply that specialist coaching types are sub-disciplines. Renton (2009) argues that the debates associated with trying to define coaching and mentoring result from the range of disciplines that have entered into the arena predominantly from business and psychology. Additionally, she describes how within the business sector, cross-discipline approaches began to emerge in the 1990's when coaching started to grow. I would argue that as the mentoring and coaching profession develops, further cross-discipline work is needed to help enhance practice. Viewing the field through the lens of disciplines and interdisciplinary approaches might offer greater understanding and a more accurate depiction of what is taking place.

For the purposes of this study I have deliberately presented mentoring ahead of coaching when referring to both together. The usual terminology found in the literature often presents the order as 'coaching and mentoring'; I am using the opposite for a number of reasons. Firstly, related to the confusion surrounding terminology, I am unsure why coaching usually appears first; and whether this is simply an alphabetical arrangement or an indication of where the perceived importance or priority lies. Secondly, as mentoring goes much further back in history, I have chosen to present mentoring first reflecting how coaching has emerged in more recent years (Brockbank & McGill, 2012). The following provides a rationale for the selected disciplines, and explains aspects that will be considered when carrying out the empirical research.

Rationale for the selection of six disciplines

Mentoring and coaching take place in a variety of arenas with many different emphases. Potential mentoring disciplines include business (Hughes, 2010), career (Garvey, 2004), developmental (Clutterbuck, 2008), e-mentoring (Williams, Sunderman & Kim, 2012), informal and formal (Chandler & Kram, 2005), leadership (Shenkman, 2008), peer (Garvey, 2004; Kram & Isabella, 1985), reciprocal (Boyer, Maney, Kamler & Comber, 2004), reverse (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012) and sponsorship (Clutterbuck, 2008), amongst others. Examples of coaching include: business (Ellinger, Hamlin & Beattie, 2009), career (Knowdell, 2009), developmental (Clutterbuck, 2008), executive (Walker, 2004), peer

(Shams and Law, 2012), performance, psychology and sport (Garvey, 2004), solution-focused (Ives, 2008) and team (Ben-Hur, Kinley & Jonsen, 2012).

For the purposes of this study, six disciplines have been chosen which represent three types of mentors and three types of coaches. A set of criteria was established in order to help identify appropriate disciplines:

- Areas of practice which have been established for a significant period of time;
- Disciplines where existing research can be found;
- Disciplines which provide practitioners with the opportunity to either work full-time as a mentor or coach; or be trained in a specialist area of work.

With these set criteria in mind, the following disciplines were selected as areas of focus within the study: 1) mentors of young people, 2) mentors of leaders, 3) mentors of newly qualified teachers, 4) executive coaches, 5) coaching psychologists and 6) sports coaches. These choices all represent disciplines where mentoring and coaching have been implemented for a significant period of time, giving practitioners a wealth of knowledge and expertise to draw upon. These disciplines were also selected on the basis of providing significant contrasting elements, such as the juxtaposition of mentoring leaders with executive coaching or mentoring young people with sports coaching. Figure 1.1 shows the six mentoring and coaching contexts sitting within a range of domains:
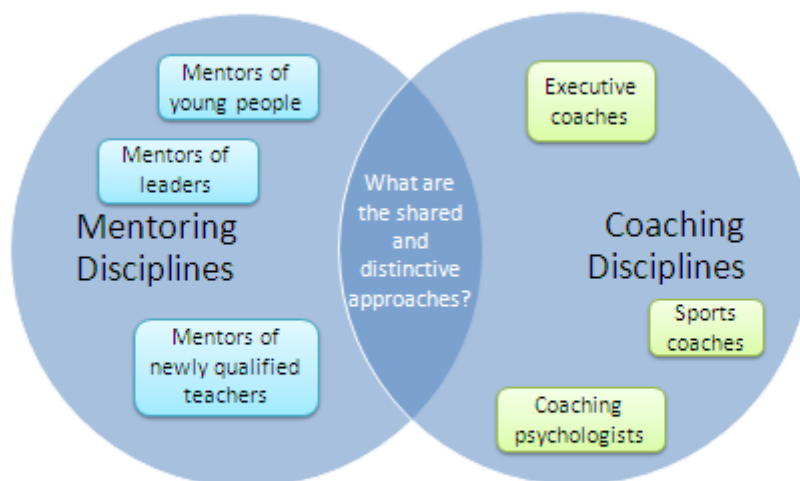

Figure 1.1: Mentoring and coaching disciplines

Each discipline is described in more depth below, also providing additional information about the rationale for including these areas within the study:

1. Mentors of young people

This discipline is steeped in history; therefore a wealth of existing research can be found which will be considered within the literature review chapter. One of the first mentoring organisations to be established, and indeed still survives today, is Big Brothers Big Sisters, founded in 1904 (Frecknall & Luks, 1992). This organisation epitomises a rich history of mentoring interventions aimed at young people, and this provides a good starting point from which to compare other forms of mentoring that have been introduced more recently or are aimed at adults. The other aspect which appears to differ from other disciplines is the use of volunteer mentors (Sandford, Armour & Stanton, 2010) in contrast to employees who are expected to mentor as part of their organisational or professional role (Parker, 2010).

2. Mentors of leaders

The term leadership incorporates managers at various hierarchical levels, so mentoring can be broad engaging with talented employees showing management or leadership potential (Simon, 2003) through to established senior executives accessing on-going support (Mullen, 1997; Zachary & Fischler, 2009). Mentoring can also be aimed at those in leadership positions as well as using the leader to mentor others (Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000). The nature of leadership mentoring can at times be informal and therefore hard to report on if not captured or written down (Mullen in Allen & Eby, 2010). The needs of leadership mentoring are quite specific and it will be interesting to compare the findings in this study between mentors of leaders and executive coaches, given that they do often occupy the same territory.

3. Mentors of newly qualified teachers

Education has a rich history of utilising mentoring, particularly as an induction and training strategy. In 1972, the James Report on Teacher Education and Training recommended that qualified teachers should be involved in the process of inducting teachers. Teacher tutors were used as supervisors in the '70s and '80s, until the term 'mentor' was introduced by Goodman in 1987 (Turner & Bash, 1999). In the early 1990's, this became formalised into the teaching profession as an established element of the induction and training process (Bleach, 1999). More recently, coaching has also become a popular intervention in schools, particularly as a way of offering on-going staff

development (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011) or developing senior managers and leaders (Forde, McMahon, Gronn and Martin, 2013). Therefore, those participating as mentors of newly qualified teachers may also have some knowledge and understanding of what coaching is, given that mentoring and coaching are established within educational settings (Cordingley & Bell, 2007).

4. Executive coaches

The title of executive coach has varied meanings to different people, as this encompasses practitioners who are both trained and untrained. Executive coaches will sometimes market themselves through particular approaches, tools or methods, such as NLP Coaching (McDermott, 2010) or cognitive behavioural coaching (Neenan, 2010). Some will focus on helping to build more effective teams (Ben-Hur *et al*, 2012), or use personality profiling as a way of helping executives understand themselves and others better (McDowell & Smewing, 2009).Given the vagueness of this area of coaching coupled with high levels of growth (Lewis-Duarte & Bligh, 2012), it is important that research is conducted to try and further understand what sets this apart from other forms of coaching and mentoring. It will also be interesting to see how executive coaching compares with mentoring leaders.

5. Coaching psychologists

Coaching psychology began in the 1960's when the positive psychology movement first emerged (Williams, 2012). Grant and Cavanagh (2007:2) define coaching psychology as "using theoretically grounded and scientifically validated techniques to help clients reach goals in their personal and business lives". Perhaps unique to this area is the pre-requisite for coaches to also be qualified psychologists; something that is not mandatory in other kinds of coaching. However generally speaking, mentors and coaches may well draw on theoretical frameworks such as solution-focused psychology in their work without having had the same degree of training as psychologists. This aspect of training and possessing the 'right' qualification will make an interesting comparison point when examining the approaches of other kinds of coaches and mentors.

6. Sports coaches

The seventeenth-century heralded the beginning of sports coaching once some games started to become codified, which in turn encouraged aristocrats to pay others to help them increase their ability in horseracing, golf, cricket and boxing (Jones, Hughes & Kingston, 2008). Sports coaching is often viewed as one of the traditional roots to other

forms of coaching (Garvey *et al*, 2009). Many believe that in order for coaches to pass on skills and teach others, their own experiences as a player helps them in this process (Lemyre *et al*, 2007). This resonates strongly with mentoring approaches where prior knowledge is needed, compared with other more facilitative styles adopted by other kinds of coaches (Clark *et al*, 2006). Others see coaching as not necessarily skills-related in terms of understanding specific physical techniques required by a sport but the ability to work with someone's state of mind from a psychological perspective, helping them improve to decrease anxiety and increase levels of motivation, concentration and self-confidence (Siripatt, 2005). These issues will be considered when talking to professional sports coaches.

Outline of Study

In order to realise these research aims and objectives, this thesis is organised into the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The literature review chapter will consider previous discussions about the similarities and differences between mentors and coaches with reference to other debates that have taken place between disciplines such as therapy and counselling. This will be followed by an analysis of the six disciplines outlined above in relation to existing research on mentoring and coaching. As this study will be carrying out empirical research with mentors and coaches representing the specified disciplines, the literature review has been designed to focus on the same areas. This will provide the opportunity to make comparisons between the literature findings and data collected for this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Taking a social constructivist approach, data will be collected which seeks to understand approaches associated with mentors and coaches in their particular discipline. Semi-structured interviews involving 18 participants will be undertaken, comprising nine mentors and nine coaches. Three mentors will be interviewed from each of the following mentoring disciplines: those who work with young people, leaders and newly qualified teachers. Nine coaches will also be interviewed, representing three from each of the following disciplines: executive coaches, coaching psychologists and sports coaches. Full consideration will be given to ethical issues at this stage, including confidentiality and maintaining the anonymity of participants.

Chapter 4: Discipline-associated approaches

Using thematic analysis, this 'first findings' chapter will highlight areas which help illustrate how the approaches of mentors and coaches manifest themselves in the disciplines they represent. Any themes that offer insight into elements of mentor and coach approaches which might be discipline-specific will be highlighted. Shared approaches will also be considered and presented as interdisciplinary approaches across the mentoring areas as well as analysing any interdisciplinary coach approaches common to the three coaching disciplines.

Chapter 5: Mentor-coach interdisciplinary approaches

Building on the themes discussed in chapter four, further comparisons will be made across all six mentoring and coaching disciplines to further understand where overlaps might be found. Using an interdisciplinary framework, consideration will also be given to the potential for practitioners to utilise their skills in a range of disciplines which might further develop the mentoring and coaching field. Any specialist areas will be noted, suggesting that the transferability of skills is not always appropriate.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations for future research

Key findings will be summarised here with a view to better understanding the terrains of mentoring and coaching in relation to theory and practice. By helping identify the unique aspects of each discipline featured in this study, practitioners might better understand how their role compares with others working in different settings. Theory will be enhanced by considering how this study has contributed to the terminology debate of mentoring and coaching. Also, consideration will be given to any recommendations for areas that may warrant further research. The conclusion will offer space to consider my own learning throughout this process including any limitations of the research design with the benefit of hindsight.

Summary

In this chapter, I have demonstrated the need to explore how mentors and coaches approach their work by comparing practice from a range of disciplines. The design of the study takes into consideration the complex needs placed on practitioners by environmental and professional settings. This in turn will have relevance to the wider on-going debate about whether and where mentoring and coaching are the same, similar or different. I have argued for the need to better understand issues associated

with specific disciplines before the definition can be applied and this would help enable mentors and coaches to work with confidence, appreciating how the focus of their work might differ from other practitioners. This will also help the recipient to understand the process they are embarking on or indeed choose something else. Consideration will also be given to the potential transferability of disciplines as practitioners either look to work in a specialist area within mentoring or coaching, or are skilful enough to adapt their approach to work in a range of disciplines.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter will start by analysing existing literature which compares mentoring and coaching. Consideration will be given to the nature of the debate and why it remains unresolved including references to neighbouring disciplines where similar confusion over terminology has reigned. The broader mentoring and coaching literature will also be explored, where the focus has been on practitioner philosophies and practice. This will be followed by a focused review of existing research relevant to the six disciplines, honing in on references made to mentor and coach approaches to practice. As explained in the introduction, six mentor and coach disciplines have been selected. Exploration of the literature relating to these areas should identify some emerging themes which suggest how the approaches of the mentor or coach might be discipline-specific or shared, as well as relevant ideas of a more general nature.

In order to map out the literature, a synthesis approach was adopted (Cooper, 1998). Athens was used to access a range of journal databases, including: Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Education Research Complete and Sport Discuss. The following key search terms were used: mentor, mentoring, coach, coaching, disciplines, role, approach, tools and models. Mentor and mentoring were also searched alongside young people, teenagers, leaders, executives, education, teachers and teaching. Coach and coaching were searched alongside executive, managers, sports and psychology. A select number of journals emerged as particularly relevant to this study, including: *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring; The Coaching Psychologist; Education and Training; Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Mentoring and Tutoring* and *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*. Mentoring and coaching commentaries and texts often refer to research that has already been carried out and some articles were found from these sources.

To a certain extent, clear boundaries can be set when looking to identify literature pertaining to the six disciplines featured in this study. But equally, the boundaries can become very blurred due to shared understandings and approaches. The exploration of related literature will comment on this terrain and the implications for practice. The review indicates issues linked to definitions and debates surrounding mentoring and coaching. Figure 2.1 gives an overview of the areas that will be explored within this chapter:
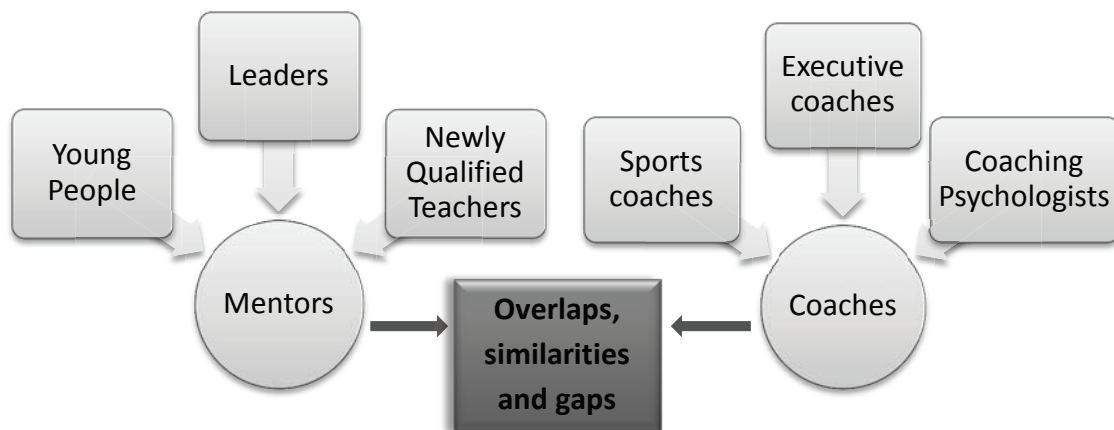
Figure 2.1: Overview of literature chapter

Figure 2.1 shows how the disciplines by title offer some distinction; however further analysis of each area may well offer aspects of blurring between disciplines or elements where there are clear overlaps.

On-going definition debate

The debates surrounding definitions of mentoring and coaching are contradictory, overlapping and frequently emphasise different things (Clutterbuck, 2008; Gallie, 1956; Garvey, 2004). Mentoring is often defined as the passing on of skills to the mentee or protégé (Delaney, 2012; Roberts, 2000) while realising potential; some authors emphasise supporting the mentee through a significant transitional period (Garvey, 2004). Conversely, coaching is often associated with performance, skill enhancement or unlocking potential (Whitmore, 2005), goal-setting and giving feedback (Delaney, 2012). There is often less importance placed on the coach sharing the same or similar background to the coachee compared with mentoring where background assumes more importance (Passmore, 2007). Others believe that mentoring and coaching are so similar, that meanings or labels are far less important than the effectiveness of the intervention (Whitmore, 2005). An alternative perspective sees coaching as one part of the mentoring armoury, thus reducing and diminishing coaching within an otherwise broader and far-reaching mentoring remit (Melanson, 2009: Zeus & Skiffington, 2005; Sweeny, 2003).

Similar controversy has surrounded debates amongst counsellors and psychotherapists, as the terms have often been used interchangeably (Hugh, 2000). Both have been

categorised as part of the helping professions alongside other interventions including mentoring and coaching (Garvey, 2004). Like mentoring and coaching, counselling and psychotherapy are equally diverse and can be found in a range of settings (Garvey, 2004). Pointon (2004) has written about the potential differences between counsellors and psychotherapists. She discusses the views of John Rowan (1998), who is a psychotherapist and counsellor and sees very little difference between the two. However, Rowan suggests there might be some structural differences which touch on themes that are echoed in some of the debates about mentoring and coaching:

- Psychotherapists are remunerated more than counsellors which indicates that their clientele is different –counsellors have poorer clients compared with psychotherapists who tend to have wealthier clients;
- Counsellors tend to be more accessible whereas the waiting time to see a psychotherapist is usually longer;
- Psychotherapists tend to have a broader range of tools whereas counsellors will have more specialist knowledge such as legal expertise (Rowan, 1998 cited in Pointon, 2004).

Pointon (2004:8) suggests that some of these issues may be problematic for counsellors: 'They may work in ways that are different, but they shouldn't be seen as the junior profession'. From my own experience, this assertion could also be true of mentors working alongside coaches.

Walker (2004) also comments on the counselling-therapy debate and suggests that at times, distinctions between the two have been far too rigid. He suggests that their focus is different because therapists tend to want to explore the problem whereas counsellors are more interested in the person. Otherwise much of what counsellors and therapists actually do is very similar. Walker (2004) believes the reason practitioners associated with the helping professions such as counsellors, coaches, therapists, mentors, supervisors and consultants actively seek to find out what sets them apart from each another, is down to the fast pace that each discipline has evolved; which has led to a perceived need for practitioners to want to clearly define each area.

Mentoring and Coaching Compared

Key texts have sought to articulate problems associated with defining mentoring and coaching, or have attempted to list both common and separate attributes (Cavanagh & Grant, 2005; Clark *et al*, 2006; Clutterbuck, 2008; Cox, 2003; Davis, 2011; Ferrar, 2004;

Garvey, 2004; www.cipd.co.uk). Ferrar (2004) suggests that even if mentoring and coaching were clearly defined, this would not preclude the variable personality traits to be found in mentors and coaches, as they work with learners with equally diverse personalities. Personality is further connected to other variables such as learning styles and gender difference (Ferrar, 2004). However, the pursuit for clarity seems inevitable given the apparent need for stakeholders and customers wanting to ensure that they are getting value for money (Ferrar, 2004; Jackson, 2005) and seeking the best form of support.

One of the difficulties in clearly defining mentoring and coaching links to the way in which both traditions have evolved over time, having roots that stem from a range of professional settings (Cavanagh & Grant, 2005). On the one hand, this allows for richness, diversity and creativity; but on the other, there are no singular pathways that can help clearly explain where mentoring and coaching have originated from. Clutterbuck (2008) paints a geographical picture that shows how types of mentoring and coaching traditions can be found in certain parts of the world. He uses the example of life coaching and how, in Australia, humanistic psychology is evident in the coach's approach whereas in the UK the influence tends to be more linked to alternative medicine. Cox (2003) suggests that common ground exists and is evident in both disciplines as 'mentors are often more effective if a coaching style is adopted where appropriate [… and] effective coaching relies on wisdom and prior knowledge at least as much as mentoring' (Cox, 2003:9). Garvey concurs with this: 'The mentor can deal with holistic development, may be a role model, a critical friend, but equally in other contexts, so may a coach!' (Garvey, 2004:7).

Clutterbuck offers a broad description of how mentors and coaches might approach their work with different emphases:

> *Coaching in most applications addresses performance in some aspect of an individual's work or life; while mentoring is more often associated with much broader, holistic development and with career progress (Clutterbuck, 2008:9).*

These sentiments are echoed by others who link the coach's work to developing skills, knowledge and performance and the mentor's role to cultivating the relationship itself and enabling the mentee to make transitions either professionally, personally or both (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Clark *et al*, 2006; Garvey, 2004). Mentors will often see their role as nurturing in order to enable the mentee to develop whereas coaches tend to focus on helping improve skills and behaviours (Davis, 2011). In

most cases, the mentor is viewed as more experienced, knowledgeable or senior to the mentee (Clark *et al*, 2006) which resonates with more traditional associations of the term 'protégé'.

However, there are many ways in which the mentor and coach work in similar ways. These include the possibility of both being directive and non-directive, engaging in long or short-term relationships, starting with the experiences of the mentor or coachee, giving advice, using goal-setting, working with transitions and looking for growth (Clutterbuck, 2008). Both are also viewed as confidential relationships, so that the coachee and mentee are assured that information discussed within sessions will not be passed on (Clark *et al* 2006). Skills used by a mentor, such as 'questioning, listening and clarifying' can also be found in coaching (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010).Garvey *et al* (2009:223) suggest that in broad terms, mentoring and coaching are essentially 'a learning and development activity'.

One way of considering how mentoring and coaching might be complementary is explored by Gordon and Brobeck (2010). The aim of this research was to coach the mentor by facilitating reflection in order to change behaviour. The findings demonstrated how the coach was able to help the mentor identify where there was discord between her beliefs about mentoring and her own behaviour as a mentor. The outcome was that the coach facilitated a learning process and helped the mentor to change her beliefs so that they became reconciled to her behaviour (Gordon & Brobeck, 2010). This research used just one case study, so it is difficult to generalise; however, it does demonstrate how the two practices can work well side by side, but with the use of different approaches or emphases.

Mentor philosophies and practice

The perceived purpose of mentoring may be a driving factor that also influences the way in which a mentor works. Mentoring tends to separate out into two broad camps: career or psychosocial (Eby, 1997; Noe, 1988). Garvey describes how some mentors working in organisational settings are "associated with induction, career and personal development, personal and career support and change" (Garvey, 2004:8). However, other forms of mentoring tend to focus on key transitional points in the mentee's life. This could still be true for those working professionally, such as at the beginning of a new job or career; however it might also be relevant for socialization: those going through a life-stage transition such as entering into adulthood (Gibb, 1994).

The relationship is often seen as the most essential part of mentoring, as it helps facilitate open dialogue in order for change to occur (Garvey, 2004). On the one hand, the relationship is considered to be unequal (Bozionelos, 2004) as the mentor is usually more senior, experienced and knowledgeable (McManus & Russell, 1997; Noe, 1988; Ragins, 1997b; Ragins *et al*, 2000; Singh *et al*, 2002; Smith *et al*, 2005). At the same time, there is an understanding that mentoring can provide learning for both the mentor and mentee (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Garvey, 2004; Jones, 2013). Bozeman and Feeney (2007) offer a helpful explanation of this as they suggest that the mentor might start out being the giver of knowledge, but at some point they may become the recipient. Therefore, mentoring can be seen as multidimensional as either participant can take on the mentor role as and when the need arises, as learning can take place for both.

Understanding whether mentors are working formally or informally may provide some clues about what is motivating them to mentor in the first place. Scandura, Tejeda, Werther and Lankau's (1996) study found that informal mentors could be highly altruistic in nature and enjoy helping others either new to a profession or with less experience. So the motivation here is to be supportive as well as informative. However, one of the dangers with informal mentors highlighted by Gay (1994) is that the mentoring can be used as a vehicle for further helping the advantaged – in other words a desire to clone protégés by mentors with influence and power.

Whilst some mentors participate because they are told they have to, Garvey and Alred (2000) advocate voluntary participation as this can send a very powerful message of commitment to the mentee. This can happen either formally or informally. Formal relationships are normally established through a referral system whereas informal mentoring pairs happen organically. Formal mentoring programmes which offer a more structured framework enable host organisations to see it as a strategic contribution to developing employee's careers (Young & Perrewe, 2000). However, Bozeman and Feeney (2007:732) challenge the view that formal mentoring is superior to informal, or vice versa by proposing that all mentoring should focus on "informal social exchange" regardless of the avenues it is accessed. Therefore it is suggested that the process of mentoring should be informal, whether the relationship is organic or imposed.

Understanding the philosophical assumptions made by mentors is important, because this is perceived as capturing the "holistic structure of the attitudes, values and beliefs,

which constitute mentoring" (Cox 2003:13). Roberts (2000) carried out a phenomenological study of mentoring literature and argues that the actions that the mentor takes are linked to a belief that they are fulfilling a helping role. Garvey (2004) describes how the more experienced mentor is able to adapt their approach according to the mentee's needs, and at times uses counselling and coaching skills – both associated with other helping professions.

Ganser (1999) describes mentoring as an interpersonal relationship, a teacher, someone who helps prevent problems, gives direction and facilitates growth and creativity. This encompasses a broad range of functions that could probably be applied to most disciplines. However, from my experience, I would suggest that some practice areas focus more on certain functions than others. For example, the teaching function is emphasised in a working context where the mentor adopts an approach that passes on their expertise whereas a mentor supporting a young person who is struggling to make sense of their life might look to offer direction. The context highlights the needs of the mentee, which provides the catalyst for the mentor in defining their discipline and approach.

Some authors suggest that any psychosocial support is a by-product of mentoring rather than the focus. Zey (1984) identifies psychological support and protection as potential roles that the mentor can fulfil which are linked to psychosocial functions. However, Bozeman and Feeney (2007) take a more critical view of existing literature, arguing that if a mentee only receives emotional support without the transmission of knowledge, they are engaging in a friendship rather than a mentoring relationship. Roberts (2000:154) observes a consensus that "an essential attribute of mentoring is this teaching-learning process" and that the transfer of knowledge comes from the relationship. Bozeman and Feeney (2007) concur with this by describing the transmission of knowledge as mentoring "at its most elemental" (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007:724). However, they go on to warn that the mentor's knowledge may or may not be accurate, and question whether the information passed on by the mentor is any different or better than that gained from professional training programmes. The proposed clarification here is to recognise that the knowledge gained through mentoring is of an informal nature. This means that in circumstances where the mentor is also a line manager of the mentee, any formal instructions should be given clearly as part of the supervisory relationship yet additional informal knowledge can be shared within the bounds of mentoring (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007).

Controversially, another perspective is that coaching is part of mentoring (Melanson, 2009; Zeus & Skiffington, 2005; Sweeny, 2003). This might be explained by the fact that mentoring has older roots than coaching. Coaching has been identified as an intervention that the mentor uses when focusing on performance and skill enhancement (Parsloe, 1995). The mentor therefore needs to be attuned to applying this function when required. Melanson (2009) suggested a mentoring spectrum model that shows phases that the mentor and mentee can move through once trust is established (assuming the mentor is able to work at all levels). These phases also help the mentor and mentee know the limitations of a particular mentor's input so that the right mentor can be matched to the needs of the mentee.

Melanson (2009) describes how mentors can adapt their approach according to the progress they have made through increased trust and that this impacts the amount of influence the mentor has. A mentor who is solely a role model engenders some professional trust, whereas a mentor who is more of a confidante or counsellor may garner much more. It should be noted that Melanson (2009) works within a military context in the United States, and it is unclear whether or not this framework is seen to be transferable across into other settings.

Historically, mentoring practice has taken place between two people. However, in more recent times, references have been made to group mentoring (Dansky, 1996; Eby, 1997). Clearly the approach here is different, as group work processes would come into play alongside some of the functions associated with mentoring. The different guises that mentoring can take, such as one-to-one versus group or the length of time the mentoring should last for (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007) demonstrate the requirement of different skillsets amongst practitioners. This, in turn, re-emphasises the confusion over what or who a mentor should do or be.

Coach philosophies and practice

Bachkirova and Kauffman (2009) highlight the need for coaches to be able to understand their personal and professional values, linking these to their aims as a coach, which will reflect their philosophy and background. This shows the importance of being able to articulate individual philosophies, how they connect with practice and where the common ground might be found amongst other professionals.

In a study carried out by Hamlin *et al* (2009) a literature search was undertaken which analysed 36 coaching definitions to try and assess both the purposes and processes of coaching. Table 2.1 summarises the results:

Categories/Variants of Coaching	Derived Unified Perspectives/Composite Conceptualizations of Coaching
'Coaching'	...is a *helping* and *facilitative process* that enables individuals, groups/teams and organizations to **acquire new skills**, to **improve existing skills, competence** and **performance**, and to **enhance their personal effectiveness** or **personal development** or **personal growth**
'Executive Coaching'	...is a *process* that primarily (but not exclusively) takes places within a *one-to-one helping* and *facilitative relationship* between a coach and an executive (or a manager) that enables the executive (or a manager) to **achieve personal-, job- or organizational-related goals** with an intention to **improve organizational performance**
'Business Coaching'	...is a *collaborative process* that *helps businesses*, owners/managers and employees **achieve their personal and business related goals** to ensure **long-term success**
'Life Coaching'	...is a *helping* and *facilitative process* – usually within a *one-to-one relationship* between a coach and a coachee – which brings about an **enhancement in the quality of life** and **personal growth** of the coachee, and possibly a **life-changing experience**

Table 2.1: Synthesized/composite conceptualizations of the variants of coaching [Bold = intended purpose; *Italics* = processes] (Hamlin et al, 2004:18)

Table 2.1 shows how the types of coaching listed can be similar in purpose and process; therefore the expectations of the coach are consistent. The main difference is how the work-based contexts demonstrate an impact of the coaching on the organisation whereas life coaching is only really interested in the impact of the individual coachee. This suggests that the coach needs to be mindful of other members of the organisation when working with a client. However, less consideration needs to be given to this when operating as a life coach.

Connections to educational learning theories are seen as fundamental principles of coaching. Knight (2011), in his study of coaching for educational leaders, refers to Paulo Freire as a theorist who placed an importance upon dialogue as a way of engaging people with learning processes. This collaborative process takes place within a two-way conversation where both parties explore the most effective course of action to take as a way of facilitating change.

Walker's (2004) conceptual analysis rejects the ways in which some have analysed coaching approaches using inductive or historical analyses, as these do not satisfy the full complexity of how and why coaches work. Rather, he proposes something different:

> *A conceptual approach outlined here of Personal Ecology, offers a more integrated model which can represent the distinctions between practices whilst reflecting the mobility practitioners, will often, in reality, exhibit (Walker, 2004:27).*

Walker's (2004) perspective of how coaching definitions never fully describe the whole picture provides an explanation of how varied approaches can offer flexibility in order to meet a range of needs. This view is supported by Jackson (2005) who argues that any labels applied to coaching are not definitions but differentiations from other forms of coaching; therein lays a subtle but important difference.

Knight (2011:18) believes that for coaches, 'identifying our principles is important because the way we act grows naturally out of what we believe'. The actions that coaches take can be described as a 'coaching signature' (Walker, 2004:26): the methods adopted by coaches with enough self-awareness to know when to apply the best intervention to each situation. One potential feature is the use of open-ended questions (Ives, 2008; Knight, 2011). This is important because any potential goals that are going to be identified and explored in-depth by the coach and coachee need to be done in a non-directive way. Otherwise, the approach would look more like instructional types of mentoring. Ives argues that 'all coaching models would regard a totally directive approach as incompatible with coaching' (Ives, 2008:104). Knight (2011) links this to equality and freedom of choice, which are both important because where a coachee senses that the partnership is unequal or they are being told what to do they might start to resist. Knight (2011) goes on to explain how coaches can provide explanations when asked specific questions – but this should be framed in such a way so that the coachee decides if and how they might adopt this into their own practice.

Knight (2011) suggests that one way in which practice is viewed differently by coachees is the way in which it is offered. When individuals are:

> *forced to work with a coach, they often see coaching as a punishment. However, when [...they] are offered coaching as one of many ways in which they can conduct professional learning, they often see it as valuable (Knight, 2011:21).*

Voluntary and compulsory participation have been explored within the context of mentoring. However, where coaching becomes a service that can be bought in,

economic and commercial gain become significant factors (Garvey, 2011) as the return on investment will become an added element.

The way in which the coaching is set up will bear some relevance on the approaches used with the client, and in particular how the coachee engages with the coach. Where individuals describe themselves as a 'professional coach', some assumptions can be made about this:

- They work as a coach full-time or at least see this as their main occupation;
- They have undergone some kind of formalised training;
- They belong to a professional membership organisation; and adhere to associated codes of practice (Hamlin *et al*, 2009).

Mentor and coach approaches found within six disciplines

Whilst the debate about defining mentoring and coaching will no doubt continue for many years to come, it is becoming clear from existing research that many factors need to be considered, including the specific discipline adopted by the practitioner. An exploration of existing research relating to the six disciplines was undertaken with a view to identifying any specific philosophical or practical findings that might reflect on styles or approaches. Tables were used to summarise this information (see appendices 1-6) and these were designed to help draw out from research papers any references to mentor or coach approaches that could be attributed to practitioner philosophies; and separately, any evidence of practice-based approaches. The results of these tables form the basis of the discussions which are presented as discipline-specific.

The Mentor Approach

The literature was explored for references to existing research within three specific discipline areas: youth work, leaders and newly qualified teachers. In order to examine what is meant by mentor approach, tables were produced which help ascertain any underlying philosophies which might influence mentoring practice. Appendices 1, 2 and 3 summarise the key findings from research papers associated with mentoring within these three disciplines.

Mentors of young people

The literature suggests that mentoring for young people has a number of distinct elements. These include: working with a deficit model, being flexible, taking into

account the circumstances and needs of each mentee and keeping these central to the work that they are doing; placing an emphasis on the relationship itself, which in turn can help steer the direction and focus of the mentoring; knowing when it is appropriate to be directive and non-directive and offering support at a transitional time of their life (see appendix 1). These themes are explored below.

Projects and mentoring schemes associated with young people are often based on some form of deficit (Philip, 2008). This is because mentoring is offered to young people with needs such as 'emotional and behavioural difficulties' (EBD) (Evans, 2005; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010; Meyer & Bouchey, 2010), or those who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) (Berkeley, 1994; Philip, 2008). These negative labels placed on young people who are perceived not to fit into societal norms can often be used to attract funding to help set up projects and interventions such as mentoring. This deficit cycle is then reinforced as it creates further demands for mentoring. Philip (2008) claims that success is limited where mentoring is used to engage hard-to-reach young people, because they are not always in a position to be ready for change.

Beattie and Holden (1994) carried out a case study and Berkeley (1994) used a documentary review (see appendix 1) – both of which highlight the complex nature of this type of mentoring. They concluded that one of the key starting points is for mentors to understand the need for flexibility. This is important because often the young people themselves not only experience significant personal difficulties but they are also going through a key life-stage transition to adulthood with all the struggles that this entails. However, the potential reward for the mentor is also significant, as a by-product of learning and development is often two-way (Evans, 2005; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010; Philip, 2008). Michael's (2008) quantitative study also found that mentors should be open to learning about themselves as part of the mentoring process. As Berkeley (2004) identifies, this does not negate the need for the mentor to possess good self-knowledge and awareness of their own values and prejudices prior to embarking on a mentoring journey. Meyer and Bouchey (2010) carried out a quantitative study and suggested that gender issues are also something that mentors should be mindful of.

Mentors working with young people also place a strong emphasis on the relationship itself (Philip, 2008) and the ability to build trust and rapport (King, 2012). Philip (2008)

suggests that one of the outcomes of a positive mentoring relationship is equipping the mentee with the tools to replicate good relationships elsewhere (see appendix 1).The relational boundaries can sometimes become blurred; therefore mentors need to ensure that they make the parameters of the relationship clear (Jamieson, 2008). In one study carried out by Dolan, Canavan and Brady (2008), the impact of mentoring on parental relationships was examined comparing two previous studies. Dolan *et al* (2008) concluded that whilst mentoring can have a positive impact on the mentee's relationship with their parents, there may be occasions where the parent feels undermined and the mentor therefore needs to be aware of this.

Whilst there is some evidence that suggests the preferred approach of the mentor is to be non-directive (Beattie & Holden, 1994), others allow for advice and instruction to be given when needed (Berkeley, 2004; King, 2012). Stead's (1997) qualitative study also suggests that the mentor might impart specific first-hand experience or knowledge, but not without an understanding of the mentoring role and processes (see appendix 1). Some peer mentoring schemes have specifically matched young people with similar backgrounds or life experiences so that knowledge can be shared (Philip, 2008). Coaching is suggested as an intervention that mentors might use when looking to develop a skill or work on a particular task (Beattie & Holden, 1994; Berkeley, 1994; Stead, 1997).

Given the specific challenges that young people with emotional and behaviour difficulties have, or for those who are perceived to be underachievers within the formalised education system, the emphasis here is to help build up the mentee's self-esteem and confidence (Gray & Seddon, 2005;   Jamieson, 2008; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010; Philip, 2008). Therefore the assumption is that mentors know how to do this and are able to effectively apply their role without stepping into territories that warrant specialist support, such as counselling and psychotherapy. One of the ways that the mentor ensures their input offers consistent support is through a commitment to meet with the mentee regularly and over a significant period of time (Gray & Seddon, 2005; King, 2012; Meyer & Bouchey, 2010; Philip, 2008; Stead, 1997).

Mentors of leaders

For leaders, a range of views and opinions were identified within the mentoring literature, which are summarised in appendix 2. It was notable how much focus was placed on career development or the psychosocial needs presented by senior managers.

The range of mentoring can also vary hugely from internal or external arrangements which can in turn be put in place informally or through formal programmes. These themes are expanded upon below.

Much of the literature on mentoring leaders separates out career and psychosocial functions of the mentor (Allen, Eby, Peteet, Lentz & Lima, 2004; Ehrich, 2008; Fowler, Gudmundsson & O'Gorman, 2007) along with informal and formal approaches (Ehrich, 1994). Allen *et al* (2004) found in their quantitative study that for career needs, the mentor's approach drew on sponsorship, exposure, coaching, protection and tasks as part of their approach; whereas for psychosocial needs, the mentor's approach adapted to incorporate role-modelling, acceptance, confirmation, counselling and friendship-associated behaviours (see appendix 2). Siegel *et al's* (2001) survey concluded that mentees who are either new to a profession or transitioning to a new level of responsibility will more than likely need both career and psychosocial support as they will want to learn new skills as well as adapt to and cope with the demands that these changes bring. Whereas those with more self-confidence and knowledge about their job might prefer a mentor who is able to help them understand and shape their career and require less emotional support (see appendix 2). Ehrich (2008), Fowler *et al* (2007) and Whitney Gibson *et al* (2000) agree that mentors should be able to offer both, but understand and appreciate how to intervene when necessary. Therefore the difference between career versus psychosocial is largely to do with the needs of the mentee. Mentors will need to be aware of the mentees' current circumstances and the kind of support they are looking for (Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang & Avolio, 2011).

Mentors employ various techniques depending on their own position in relation to the mentee and the organisation as a whole. Allen *et al* (2004) describes how internal mentors can sponsor, coach, expose and protect mentees when looking to provide career mentoring (see appendix 2). To elaborate further on what it means to coach a mentee, Booth (1996) took a qualitative case study approach which highlighted the use of consultation and feedback, although Lester *et al* (2011) warn that trust needs to be established first if any negative feedback is going to be offered effectively. They add that the integrity and credibility of the mentor in terms of their own leadership skills will also be crucial (see appendix 2). Hoigaard and Mathisen (2009) conducted a questionnaire and findings suggested that coaching is used in mentoring for leaders specifically when tasks or career progression requires the enhancement of skills (see appendix 2).

Ehrich (1994 & 2008) highlights the need for mentoring that looks to support women into senior positions particularly in industries that still have male-dominated management and senior executive positions (see appendix 2). This is particularly useful when internal male managers and executives act as mentors so that women are provided with access to people who have both influence and authority which can help bring about change. Therefore, mentoring is used as a way of enabling this to happen.

When looking to operate in a psychosocial role, mentors will use role-modelling, acceptance, confirmation, counselling and friendship associated skills (Allen *et al*, 2004). Whitney Gibson *et al* (2000) describe how mentors need to possess high self-esteem, vision, trust, responsiveness, commitment, wisdom, expertise, power and counselling skills (see appendix 2). These attributes are highlighted from the perspective that mentors and leaders should both possess the same skills as mentoring is a natural part of leadership (McCloughen, O'Brien & Jackson, 2011). Shenkman (2010) suggests that mentors need to help the leader understand why they have on occasions felt fulfilled or isolated, and what it is about them that encourages others to follow (see appendix 2). By breaking these components down, leaders are then able to build on their strengths and establish areas where they need to develop.

Mentoring can take place internally and externally to an organisation and both have advantages and disadvantages. Conway's (1995) qualitative study found that an internal mentor will have a good understanding of the organisation's culture and workings and Lester *et al* (2011) who carried out a longitudinal study, established that internal mentoring is a cost-effective approach to leadership development (see appendix 2). However, an external mentor, either informal or formal, will be able to offer much more objective advice, but is likely to have little power and authority to act on the mentee's behalf.

Informal mentors can help facilitate a much more organic relationship and Whitney Gibson *et al* (2000) go so far as to suggest that they are much more effective because of the altruism involved; whereas Ehrich's (2008) documentary review found that formal processes are much more structured and prescriptive, but they do provide a fairer way of ensuring that mentoring is offered to a broader range of potential participants (Scandura *et al*, 1996; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000) (see appendix 2). From an organisational point of view, mentoring can be used as part of a broader strategy that looks at succession planning and the broader growth and development of leaders

(McCloughen *et al*, 2011) and it can also help in guiding the future direction of the organisation (Shenkman, 2010).

Mentors of newly qualified teachers

Within an educational context, mentoring in the UK is a standard intervention for those entering the teaching profession (Aladejana, Aladejana & Ehindero, 2006; Hudson & Hudson, 2010; St George & Robinson, 2011). However, a number of different aspects were discussed in the literature reflecting a range of understandings and emphases, and appendix 3 summarises key themes. These included:

- How important the mentor's teaching experience is compared to their ability to relate well to the mentee
- How much attention is given to the mentee's broader career aspirations or more immediate support needs
- The importance of relevance of the mentor's teaching background
- How they see their observations and feedback of the mentee's teaching practice contributing to the assessment process.

Members of the senior management team, heads of department or leads on specific areas of work usually act as mentors to newly qualified teachers (www.education.gov.uk). Mentees are therefore given access to key people within the school who have a significant amount of expertise and knowledge (Ligadu, 2012), knowing that the returns on investment will be high. However, Aladejana *et al* (2006) acknowledge that the mentor's position is not a prerequisite for possessing empathy and good interpersonal skills which are needed to complement educational knowledge and experience (Delaney, 2012) (see appendix 3). Akbar and Jackson (2010) also warn that having one mentor can be limiting as the mentee is not exposed to a range of teaching styles (see appendix 3). It is therefore important that the mentor is able to teach to a high standard as they will be acting as a role model to trainee teachers observing them in the classroom (Delaney, 2012; Rikard & Banville, 2010; Russell & Russell, 2011).

Together with an emphasis on career development, acknowledgement is also given to the psychosocial needs of newly qualified teachers (Aladejana *et al*, 2006; Delaney, 2012; Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005; Ligadu, 2012; St George & Robinson, 2011; Wynn *et al*, 2007). Therefore, the mentor needs to be mindful of this rather than focus on purely giving instructional direction. Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005) in their mixed-methods study

identified the relational aspects to be of high importance, including observing and offering feedback and acting as a counsellor – all used in a supportive rather than instructional way (see appendix 3). Ambrosetti (2008) carried out a survey and concluded that the needs of pre-service teachers vary depending on their level of training. First year students benefited from guidance and role modelling from mentors whilst final year students appreciated learning a variety of classroom techniques in addition to on-going advice and support (see appendix 3).

There are some opposing views with regard to the relevance of how much the mentor and mentee have in common. Parker (2010) Wynn *et al* (2007) and St George and Robinson (2011) propose that a certain amount of common ground can go a long way, where mentors and mentees teach the same subject area, age range or are part of the same department. This implies that their joint understanding can aid the transfer of knowledge (Hudson & Hudson, 2010). Conversely, Shapira-Lishchinksky's (2009) quantitative study argues that a mentor can evoke much more change where their style of working differs from a particular team culture (see appendix 3). This enables the mentor to have some level of objectivity and can help the mentee to think critically about the way in which they work. This in turn can enable the mentee to develop their confidence as they find their own way, rather than look to emulate someone else's teaching style. Regardless of the background, learning is considered to be two-way for both the mentor and mentee (Ambrosetti, 2010; Delaney, 2012; Hudson & Hudson, 2010; Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005; Russell & Russell, 2011; St George & Robinson, 2011).

Some mentors carry out observations of their mentees in the classroom so that they can offer feedback (Akbar & Jackson, 2012; Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005; Ligadu, 2012; Parker, 2010; Rikard & Banville, 2010; Sempowicz & Hudson, 2012), although the ability to do this will vary considerably (Delaney, 2012). Ambrosetti (2010) considered whether or not the observations carried out by a mentor should be formalised as part of the assessment process (see appendix 3). She concluded that this would have a negative impact upon the equality of the relationship because both can learn from one another. Fransson (2010) echoes this point based on difficulties that the mentee might find in discussing their weaknesses or looking for support when the mentor is also responsible for assessing their practice (see appendix 3). An evaluative function would inhibit trust and communication (Delaney, 2012; Hudson & Hudson, 2010) although this can be overcome if the assessment is formative rather than evaluative (Rikard & Banville, 2010).

Reflective skills are identified as important tools for the mentor to equip the mentee with (Akbar& Jackson, 2012; Delaney, 2012; Ligadu, 2012; Sempowicz & Hudson, 2012; Wynn *et al*, 2007) so that they can help themselves to bring about change. Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005) add that this is a mutual by-product of the mentoring relationship (see appendix 3); however Akbar and Jackson (2012) suggest that some mentors are more inclined to focus on performance rather than reflection. Delaney (2012) argues that the mentor needs to work collaboratively with the mentee in a way that encourages reflection (see appendix 3).

Overall, the benefits of mentoring NQTs seems to be that it contributes to the retention of teachers in their first school as a qualified professional (Delaney, 2012; Parker, 2010; St George & Robinson, 2011; Wynn *et al*, 2007). Akbar and Jackson (2012) also found in their mixed-methods study that mentoring played a key role in helping the student teacher feel welcomed and settled into the school (see appendix 3).

Mentor Approach: Emerging Themes

Stepping back from the discipline-specific features of each of these three mentoring areas, some common themes emerge which could tentatively be attributed to mentoring. Figure 2.2 summarises these features by separating out some aspects that may be attributed to mentor and coach approaches:
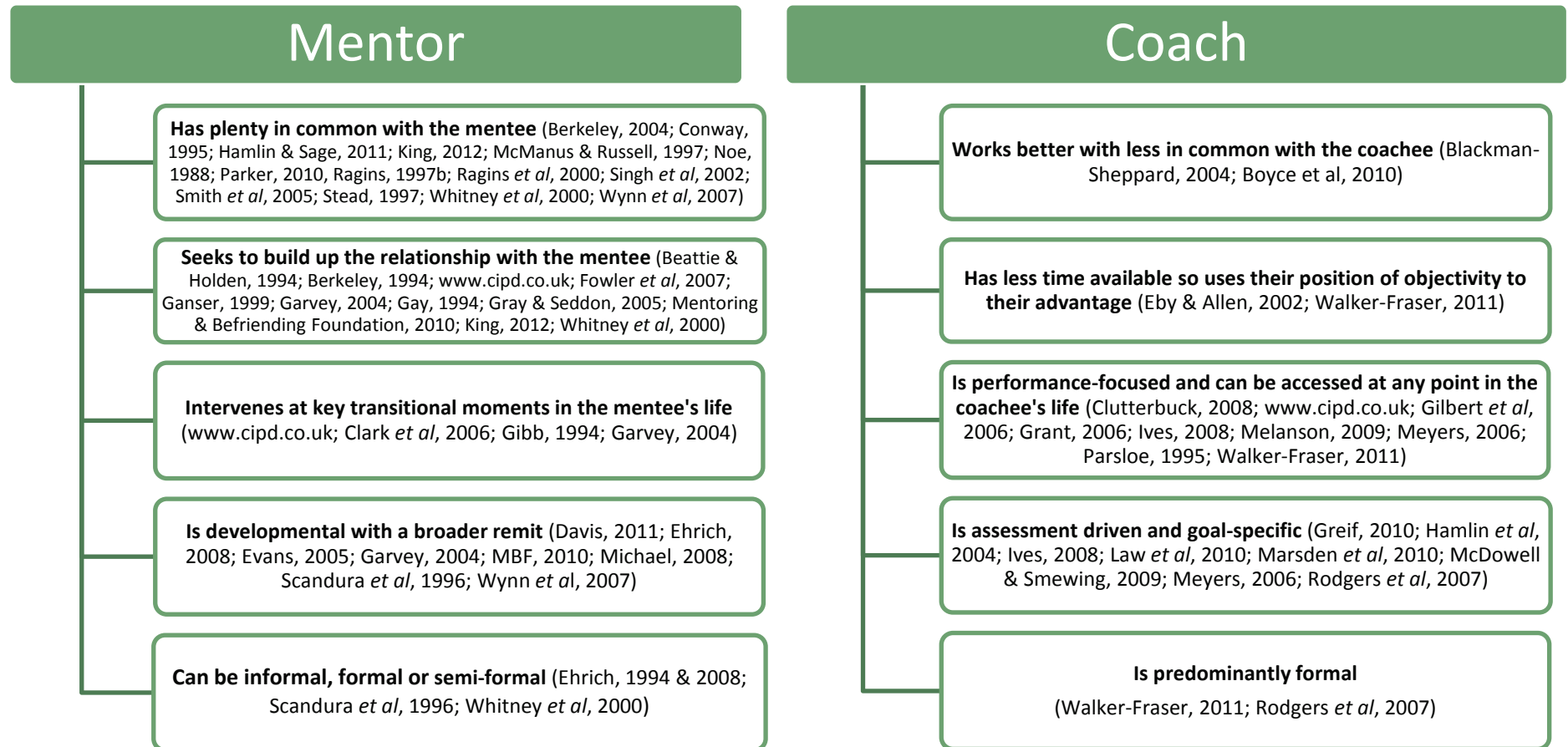
Mentor	Coach
Has plenty in common with the mentee (Berkeley, 2004; Conway, 1995; Hamlin & Sage, 2011; King, 2012; McManus & Russell, 1997; Noe, 1988; Parker, 2010, Ragins, 1997b; Ragins *et al*, 2000; Singh *et al*, 2002; Smith *et al*, 2005; Stead, 1997; Whitney *et al*, 2000; Wynn *et al*, 2007)	**Works better with less in common with the coachee** (Blackman-Sheppard, 2004; Boyce et al, 2010)
Seeks to build up the relationship with the mentee (Beattie & Holden, 1994; Berkeley, 1994; www.cipd.co.uk; Fowler *et al*, 2007; Ganser, 1999; Garvey, 2004; Gay, 1994; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010; King, 2012; Whitney *et al*, 2000)	**Has less time available so uses their position of objectivity to their advantage** (Eby & Allen, 2002; Walker-Fraser, 2011)
Intervenes at key transitional moments in the mentee's life (www.cipd.co.uk; Clark *et al*, 2006; Gibb, 1994; Garvey, 2004)	**Is performance-focused and can be accessed at any point in the coachee's life** (Clutterbuck, 2008; www.cipd.co.uk; Gilbert *et al*, 2006; Grant, 2006; Ives, 2008; Melanson, 2009; Meyers, 2006; Parsloe, 1995; Walker-Fraser, 2011)
Is developmental with a broader remit (Davis, 2011; Ehrich, 2008; Evans, 2005; Garvey, 2004; MBF, 2010; Michael, 2008; Scandura *et al*, 1996; Wynn *et a*l, 2007)	**Is assessment driven and goal-specific** (Greif, 2010; Hamlin *et al*, 2004; Ives, 2008; Law *et al*, 2010; Marsden *et al*, 2010; McDowell & Smewing, 2009; Meyers, 2006; Rodgers *et al*, 2007)
Can be informal, formal or semi-formal (Ehrich, 1994 & 2008; Scandura *et al*, 1996; Whitney *et al*, 2000)	**Is predominantly formal** (Walker-Fraser, 2011; Rodgers *et al*, 2007)

Figure 2.2: Areas highlighted in literature where the mentor and coach might differ in approach

Common understanding

Within the working environment it is clear that mentors and mentees need to have a common understanding of the job requirements, skills and expertise pertinent to that specific area of work (Berkeley, 2004; Conway, 1995; Hamlin & Sage, 2011; King, 2012; McManus & Russell, 1997; Noe, 1988; Parker, 2010, Ragins, 1997b; Ragins *et al*, 2000; Singh *et al*, 2002; Smith *et al*, 2005; Stead, 1997; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000; Wynn *et al*, 2007). Whilst mentoring for youth work does not require the same kind of shared skill-sets (Beattie & Holden, 1994), other forms of commonality contribute to the effectiveness of the relationship: gender, ethnicity and race (Meyer & Bouchey, 2010). That common starting point can then be used as a platform to enable the mentee to develop and grow.

Relational and long-term

There do not appear to be any short-cuts to successful mentoring, as the relational dynamics are a central feature of the role (Beattie & Holden, 1994; Berkeley, 1994; CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010; Fowler *et al*, 2007; Ganser, 1999; Garvey, 2004; Gay, 1994; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010; King, 2012; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000). It takes time for both parties to get to know one another (Booth, 1996; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Eby & Allen, 2002; King, 2012; Meyer & Bouchey, 2010; Stead, 1997; Walker-Fraser, 2011), in order to build trust and rapport (King, 2012; Melanson, 2009; Scandura *et al*, 2001; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000). Whilst not all mentoring relationships will last or indeed be offered on a long-term basis this is by far the more common approach compared to coaching, which is more time-bound and by comparison short-term (Eby & Allen, 2002; Walker-Fraser, 2011).

Formal and informal

It does not matter in which area of work mentoring takes place in, both informal and formal versions can be found (Ehrich, 1994 & 2008; Scandura *et al*, 1996; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000). There are clearly pros and cons for each version and some level of guidance is needed for prospective mentees in establishing which will best suit their needs. As the matching process is attributed to formal mentoring, those involved at this stage need to be aware of influencing factors and also perhaps how informal mentoring might be encouraged as an alternative.

Learning two-way

Both mentors and mentees have the potential to have their individual developmental needs met as a result of participating in the mentoring (Evans, 2005; Mentoring &

Befriending Foundation, 2010; Michael, 2008; Scandura et al, 1996). Of course not all mentoring pairs work and some do not last but for those that do there is a lot to be gained, including enhanced interpersonal skills (Siegel *et al*, 2001) and increased confidence (Gray & Seddon, 2008; Mentoring & Befriending Foundation, 2010). Developments can also be skills-based and work specific but either way, the mentor is likely to experience just as many benefits as the mentee.

Career vs. psychosocial approaches

Whilst no agreement can be found for a preference of a career-based or instructional model of mentoring over a psychosocial model, or vice versa, what is alluded to amongst all three disciplines is a need for both (Ehrich, 2008; Fowler *et al*, 2007, Siegel *et al*, 2001; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000; Wynn *et al*, 2007). The career model is clearly more aligned to mentoring for leaders and newly qualified teachers. The young people accessing mentoring programmes will more often than not be dealing with stressful and difficult life circumstances and the supportive function of the mentor is paramount (Berkeley, 1994; Gray & Seddon, 2005; King, 2012). Mentoring for newly qualified teachers and leaders may also need to offer support to mentees who may be going through a time of significant change or promotion respectively. Therefore the supportive function is also appropriate here alongside the other career-related needs (Booth, 1996; Ehrich, 1994; Garvey, 2004; Parker, 2010; Scandura *et al*, 1996; Siegel *et al*, 2001; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000; Wynn *et al*, 2007; Zey, 1984).

The Coach Approach

With the explosion of coaching in recent decades and the ever expanding specialist areas in which coaching can be found (Ives, 2008), the task of ascertaining coaches' philosophies and the methods adopted to achieve these principles is complex. Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie (2009) propose that coaching has yet to fully establish its roots. Within this broad literature area, general references to coach approaches were analysed (see appendices 4, 5 and 6)in the following ways: 1) the philosophical aspects of the role which help identify what it is the coach is looking to achieve through their intervention; and 2) descriptions of coach practice. This will be followed by an exploration of research that has been carried out in three specific coaching discipline areas: executive coaching, coaching psychology and sports coaching.

Executive Coaches

Executive coaching is defined as 'a term used broadly to cover work with executives from middle management upwards or sometimes even to those in junior roles deemed to have high potential [...and] focuses on the executive becoming more self-aware in order to carry out their leadership role more effectively' (Stokes & Jolly, 2010:245). Again we venture into challenges of definition as 'executive coaching' can be seen as quite vague but the focus on the hierarchical position of the coachee/client will bring with it a unique set of priorities for the executive coach to engage with. Appendix 4 summarises the key themes emerging from existing research associated with executive coaching. There is evidence to suggest that the coach's approach will be influenced by their own professional background, whilst they also see the need to establish a level of trust and rapport with the client in order to be effective. They tend to use goal-setting as part of their approach as well as offering feedback once a broader understanding of the client has been achieved.

Models and processes used by the coach might be linked to their background. Berg and Karlsen (2012) carried out a qualitative study and proposed that a coach who has trained in cognitive behaviour therapy is more likely to focus the coaching on thinking patterns and how these might be changed if problematic. Conversely Brooks and Wright (2007) found that their questionnaire results suggest coaches who have come from a management or consultancy background are more likely to use models such as rational managerial problem-solving techniques, the GROW model, or draw on a solution-focused brief therapy model (see appendix 4).Having business knowledge can enable the coach to have empathy and initiate helpful conversations via self-disclosure (Augustinjnen, Schnitzer & Van Esbroeck, 2011); however, the coach will also need to refrain from shifting into the expert or consultant role (Dagley, 2010). Boyce *et al* (2010) highlight the need for coaches to have an understanding of how their background informs their work as a lack of self-knowledge may prevent them from fully understanding the coachee's context. Passmore, Holloway and Rawle-Cope (2010) used a questionnaire to explore the differences of practice between therapists and coaches (see appendix 4). As a result of findings, they recommended that coaches should increase their self-knowledge by understanding how their personality affects their approach. This will then allow them to make adjustments where their preferred approach does not meet the needs of the client.

De Haan, Culpin and Curd (2011) posit that any model a coach uses is far less important and effective than the way in which they engage with the coachee (see appendix 4). They highlight understanding, encouragement, knowledge, empathy, authenticity and involvement as important attributes to possess and similar traits are identified by Dagley (2010). These can help establish trust and rapport which in turn provides a platform for change (Augustinjnen *et al*, 2011). Baron and Morin (2009) acknowledge that time is needed for the relationship to develop and results can be achieved by the coach facilitating good planning, tracking progress, creating structure, helping provide connections and identifying obstacles. Dagley (2010) proposes that all good coaching results in behavioural changes; however Baron and Morin (2009) suggest that, ultimately, the coachee is responsible for making progress (see appendix 4). Ideally, coaches should also have a range of models and interventions at their disposal in order to help them be more effective (Dagley, 2010); and also possess the ability to know when to apply the most appropriate approach such as being directive or non-directive, exploring the past or the future, offering challenge or support (De Haan *et al*, 2010).

Goal-setting or identifying areas to help the coachee realise their potential is often a priority for executive coaches (Baron & Morin, 2009; Dagley, 2010; Grant, 2012; Passmore *et al*, 2010). Of course the way in which these are achieved will vary. However, there is some evidence to show that goals which are aligned to the executives' values or interests will provide more satisfaction, therefore the coachee will be more motivated to achieve them (Grant, 2012).

Offering the client feedback is also seen as a crucial tool used by the coach (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011; Brooks & Wright, 2007; De Haan *et al*, 2010; Grant, 2012). This either relates to the coachee's progress and therefore has an evaluative function; or as a technique used to reflect back to the executive what is either being said or has been said elsewhere that may provide a significant connection for new understanding. This links with Passmore *et al's* (2010) survey-based study which found that the personality types of coaches mean they have a greater tendency to look at the bigger picture rather than focus in on specific facts (see appendix 4).

There is some sense in the literature that executive coaches need to be experienced and in particular, undergo professional coach training (Berg & Karlsen, 2012; Brooks & Wright, 2007). Boyce *et al*, (2010) found through their quantitative study that other factors are less important, such as the way in which the coach is matched with the client

because the coach will be skilled enough to build up the professional relationship with anyone willing to be coached (see appendix 4). In order to be skilled in this area though, Augustinjnen *et al*, (2011) suggest that the coach needs to possess certain attitudinal and behavioural characteristics that lend themselves to building rapport, as this will have a direct impact on the effectiveness of the relationship (Baron & Morin, 2009) which might not be achieved through training. De Haan *et al* (2011) attribute the potential success of a coaching relationship to the learning style between the coach and coachee, as some combinations are more helpful than others; something to be considered in the matching and on-going learning processes (see appendix 4).

Little has been written about negative or 'bad' coaching techniques. However, Ellinger *et al* (2008) reviewed three studies in order to investigate a range of behavioural indicators that might identify effective approaches, as well as interventions that could potentially be damaging to the coachee (see appendix 4). The results showed that a coach is less effective when autocratic, directive, controlling, dictatorial or bureaucratic and most effective when empowering, inclusive, participatory, communicating well, behaving appropriately and offering enough time (Ellinger *et al*, 2008). Mentoring also has the potential to become toxic when mentor or mentee behave in such a way that the relationship becomes dysfunctional and destructive (Feldman, 1999).

Coaching Psychologists

Grant (2006:12) argues that 'coaching psychology can be understood as being the systematic application of behavioural science to the enhancement of life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organisations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of stress'. Again, this term serves as an umbrella for coaching psychologists who may have preferences to specific psychological theories and models. The emphasis though is to take a more holistic view of an individual that integrates personal and professional issues (Whybrow, 2008). The coach in this area of work will need to be a qualified psychologist who has usually undergone coaching training as well (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007;Whybrow, 2008).

Appendix 5 reflects some emerging themes about the nature of coaching psychology. Within the literature, there is an expectation that coaching psychologists, having undergone a significant amount of training and supervision which encourages them to increase their own self-knowledge, will be aware of the influences that they have on the coaching dynamic. Marsden, Humphrey, Stopford and Houlder's (2010) case study

describes this in terms of the coach's presence; whilst Grief (2010) uses systematic observation to discuss the impact of verbal and non-verbal communication (see appendix 5). Ultimately, the coach will hopefully have awareness of factors other than simply what is being presented verbally by the coachee although this is not to say that other types of coaches are not able to do this proficiently. The main difference though is the underpinning psychology theories that the coach has an understanding of which will be drawn upon as guiding principles. Coaches may therefore be able to help diagnose particular psychological issues (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007; Whybrow, 2008) or could have a heightened awareness of negative thought patterns and behaviours that coachees present. The coach in this instance will want to explore these tendencies as they will be perceived as a potential barrier to effective coaching (Lopez Moore, 2012).

McDowell and Smewing (2009) carried out a survey and found that many coaching psychologists believe it is appropriate and helpful to draw on assessment tools and psychometric tests (see appendix 5). These are seen as useful in opening up discussions. Often tests such as Myers Briggs require the coach to be certified or registered to use them (Bennet, 2012). McDowell and Smewing (2009) found that coaches are most likely to use personality tests, followed by multi-rater or 360° feedback assessments then learning styles questionnaires. Grant and Cavanagh (2007) suggest that assessment tools and psychometric tests are particularly useful in helping the coach diagnose the needs of the coachee as a way of leading into other coaching processes.

Executive coaches have also drawn on other therapeutic models. For example, Law, Lancaster and DiGiovanni (2010) carried out a case study and concluded that Transpersonal Psychology (TP) can be used within coaching as a way of working on the coachee's ego before transformation can take place, taking them beyond the 'I' (see appendix 5). This is seen as an essential part of leadership, as executives will need to be able to build and work effectively with teams and stakeholders. Therefore increasing the executives' self-awareness and ability to reflect and bring about change will ultimately have far reaching benefits (Passmore, 2010); in other words, enabling the coachee to self-coach (Lopez Moore, 2012). Other therapeutic models that practitioners draw upon include cognitive behavioural coaching (Lopez Moore, 2012), person-centred and solution-focused approaches (Whybrow, 2008).

Coaches who have a background in psychology tend to adopt approaches that help establish and clarify goals, identifying resources and support the process of realised

learning into practice (Grant, 2012; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007; Grief, 2010; Lopez Moore, 2012). Within this framework are a range of methods and theories which lead to different approaches. Goals are seen to be more achievable when the approach draws on a person-centred style (Grant, 2012).

Bono, Purvanova, Towler and Peterson (2009) researched executive coaches, comparing those who have psychological and non-psychological training. They concluded that for some coaching assignments it is necessary for coaches to also undergo psychological training, so that they can be equipped to deal with issues such as behavioural changes and supporting executives to maintain change. This opens up the potential for the underpinning philosophies and practice of coaching psychology to transfer into other coaching disciplines.

Sports Coaches

Perhaps the oldest form of coaching is sports coaching which has significantly evolved over the years (Whitmore, 2005). The range of sports activities lend themselves to team and/or individual coaching which has an impact on the coach's approach (Baker, Yardley, Côtė, 2003). An analysis of sports coaching literature (see appendix 6), found that sports coaches tend to have extensive knowledge of both the sport they are coaching in as well as a grasp of coaching processes and models. They also need to recognise when to be directive and when to step back and help the athlete work through other factors influencing their performance. Coaches also need to be able to meet both individual and team needs when coaching teams.

Sports coaches need to have a good understanding of the sport in which they work, and their own athletic ability becomes more relevant when working as a professional coach (Gilbert, Côté and Mallett, 2006; Nash, Sproule & Horton, 2008; Rodgers, Reade and Hall, 2007). There is evidence to suggest that recreational coaches can work across a number of sports (see appendix 6), however those working with elite athletes need to demonstrate a history of athletic proficiency themselves along with a high number of participation hours (Gilbert *et al*, 2006; Rodgers *et al*, 2007).

Some believe coaches need to have a much more comprehensive understanding of coaching models that appreciate the complex demands of sports athletes(Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2007; Nash *et al*, 2008). These sentiments are echoed by Gilbert *et al* (2006) who carried out structured interviews as part of a quantitative study (see

appendix 6). They concluded that coaches should value knowledge about coaching just as much as knowledge about the sport itself. The development of the coach's approach comes from trial and error, experience and interaction with other coaches (Erickson, Bruner, MacDonald & Cote, 2008); although Reade, Rodgers and Spriggs (2008) warn that information passed between coaches could be at best ineffective, and at worst, harmful.

Cushion *et al* (2007) have identified coaching models that either use instructional techniques which teach and share information, or place a higher emphasis on the athlete's experience and knowledge (see appendix 6). Cushion *et al* (2007) suggest that these model types do not go far enough in appreciating other contextual and environmental factors such as the relationship that exists between the coach, athlete and club. Therefore, coaches need to work with the coachee acknowledging these additional factors, rather than simply focusing on skills and performance (Gilbert *et al*, 2006; Reade *et al*, 2008; Trzaskoma-Bicserdy, Bognar, Revesz & Geczi, 2007). This requires flexibility on the coach's part, as their approach tends to be adapted according to the age and experience of players, as well as periods of success and failure (Hoigaard *et al,* 2008).

Just as coaching psychologists draw on psychotherapeutic models, sports coaches are also able to access knowledge and approaches that address physiological and psychological needs (Trzaskoma-Bicserdy *et al*, 2007). Meyers (2006) found that instead of coaches simply relying on athletic experiences or knowledge, they can also tap into biomechanical analysis techniques which help assess performance and responses to injury and trauma (see appendix 6). This information is useful in training sessions when trying to pre-empt or change physiological and psychological behaviour patterns. Reade *et al* (2008) suggest that sports coaches could be mentored by sports scientists so that coaching practice can be improved (see appendix 6).

An alternative perspective to using models is the integration of servant leadership with coaching. Rieke, Hammermeister and Chase (2008) carried out a survey and found that a servant leadership approach to the role increased athlete satisfaction, training, motivation, development and performance (see appendix 6). It also had a positive influence on environmental factors. They suggest that an autocratic style is less effective, especially in relation to mental toughness.

Rodgers *et al* (2007) found from their survey that working with individuals gives the coach much wider scope to use a range of methods and interventions (see appendix 6). This means that when coaching a team, time is given to working with team members on an individual basis; working with the team as a whole restricts coaches from making good use of individual needs and personalised goals. Recognition of the impact that the gender of a coach has on the coaching has also been highlighted (Rodgers *et al*, 2007). Specifically, female coaches have been found to encourage self-talk within athletes whereas male coaches are better at altering the duration and intensity of training sessions according to the need of the coachee.

Coach Approach: Emerging Themes

Despite the variation of coaching disciplines, a few themes have emerged which suggest some distinctive elements that can be found across the three coaching areas that make them distinct from mentoring. Figure 2.2 encapsulates these findings although these are based on the literature referred to within this chapter. Additional mentoring and coaching commentaries and texts would undoubtedly offer some alternative perspectives on the suggested findings below. However, taking the approach of comparing literature from a few disciplines helps start the process of understanding where differences and overlaps might be found.

Having distance

Compared with mentoring where common ground is advocated and sought after, coaching appears to be more fruitful when the coach focuses on coaching processes (Blackman-Sheppard, 2004; Boyce et al, 2010). Perhaps due to time constraints and less pressure on the coach and coachee to establish a longer-term working relationship, it is important that they are able to get to the heart of the matter quite quickly. Having a coach present to provoke, question and challenge the viewpoint of the coachee will help speed up this process. De Haan *et al* (2011) suggest that where there is professional distance between the coach and coachee there is more likely to be change.

Focused

Those looking to be coached are usually interested in improving something specific, whether it is related to their working role or a sport they play professionally or recreationally (Davis, 2011; Hamlin *et al*, 2009). The purpose of the coaching usually becomes clear early on in the relationship, once the initial aims have been agreed (Cushion *et al*, 2007).However, the ways in which the focus is determined takes place in

a number of different ways: this could be through personal choice, or sometimes if the organisation a person works for requires them to improve in areas where they are underperforming. Therefore, the coach needs to be able to work effectively to improve performance (Clutterbuck, 2008; Gilbert *et al*, 2006; Grant, 2006; Ives, 2008; Melanson, 2009; Meyers, 2006; Parsloe, 1995; Walker-Fraser, 2011).

Assessment and goal-setting

Coaching psychologists and sports coaches have access to a wide range of tools and programmes which enable them to diagnose and assess where the coachee's starting point is, in order to work out where it is they want to get to (Law *et al*, 2010; Marsden *et al*, 2010; McDowell & Smewing, 2009; Meyers, 2006; Rodgers *et al*, 2007). Whilst not all executive coaches will necessarily be so dependent upon assessing their client, given that many have come from a management or consultancy background (Brooks & Wright, 2007), there will be an element of wanting to unpack and diagnose the situation before working out a way forward. Goal-setting almost always follows behind assessments, as this provides a way of measuring how the coachee has moved from the assessment outcomes to a more desirable place (Greif, 2010; Hamlin *et al*, 2009; Ives, 2008; Law *et al*, 2010; Rodgers *et al*, 2007). Sports coaching offers a more tangible focus on goals, as the targets are always about improving performance and ultimately winning.

Formal and informal

Similarly to mentoring, a spectrum exists from informal to formal. Bachkirova and Kauffman (2009:96) highlight the informal use of 'coaching as a conversation' where one person is able to be helpful towards another without interfering. This would be different to a formalised coaching contract between two parties and there is more evidence of coaching being placed towards the formal end of the spectrum, where organisations strategically implement coaching (Walker-Fraser, 2011) with regular times for sessions being set aside (Rodgers *et al*, 2007). This helps set the parameters for establishing relationship boundaries and setting out any potential time-constraints from the start. Another reason for formalising the coaching process is ensuring it becomes accessible to those who need it, and is set out in a fair and equal way. Informal mentoring can be divisive if the mentor is seen to be demonstrating favouritism (Tourigny & Pulich, 2005). Formalised approaches tend to mitigate such issues.

Summary

There are clearly multiple perspectives on boundary demarcations and this will have implications for mentors and coaches and the way in which they work. One explanation for a lack of resolution concerning where mentoring and coaching are distinctive and where they might overlap is the complex relationship between the intervention and the context or environment and how this influences the relationship. This perspective places the emphasis on appreciating contextual nuances as a way of understanding the way in which the mentor or coach operates (Clutterbuck, 2008).

When contrasting coaching with mentoring, some authors suggest how coaches might work differently to mentors; however the ways and extent to which coaches are seen to be different varies considerably. Ives (2008) says that coaches in certain situations can also act as mentors in areas such as sports coaching, education and the workplace. Here the coach will give instructions, which is something that Ives (2008) identifies as a focus of a mentor's role compared with coaches who, in broad terms, are non-directive in their approach. This suggests that the two roles can be interchangeable as and when the need arises.

Whilst it is difficult to make a case for mentoring and coaching operating as polar opposites, it is true to say that they have slightly different emphases whilst sharing many overlaps. Based on the literature referred to within this study, Figure 2.2 highlights how some aspects of the mentor and coach's approach might differ. Had additional literature been considered or other disciplines factored in, the outcome may have been different. Figure 2.2 represents ways in which mentors and coaches might orientate themselves and tentatively suggests the different approaches to their role.

One observation that separates out coaching from mentoring is the terminology used to describe those on the receiving end. Mentees are synonymous with mentors in any discipline. However, sports coaches call their coachees 'athletes' whilst executive coaches and coaching psychologists use the term 'client'. In an organisational and sporting context, the coachee and athlete are paying customers. Although this is a subtle difference, it does reflect the limited economic value placed on mentors who usually carry out this role as part of their day-to-day work, or in a voluntary capacity; whereas coaches will be paid directly for the coaching sessions delivered (Garvey, 2011). Mentors operating without financial remuneration may be rewarded in other ways, such as investing in their own development and increasing helping skills. However, this

difference must surely have an impact on the approaches adopted by mentors and coaches.

A review of the literature has demonstrated how professional settings or expectations of a certain type of mentoring or coaching can place specific emphases associated with the role. A conceptual map below (figure 2.3) highlights some of the features within each discipline, and how these might compare to other settings:

Figure 2.3: Conceptual map showing gaps in the current literature:

DISCIPLINES   FEATURES

Mentors of young people → Deficit model → Relational → help increase self-esteem

Mentors of leaders → Role model → Sponsor and protector → offer consultation and feedback

Mentors of NQTs → Supportive model → Pass on expertise and knowledge → Use observation & Feedback

All mentors focus on transition and use coaching as part of their approach

Executive coaches → Flexibility in terms of context → Shows empathy & knowledge → Participatory and inclusive

Coaching psychologists → Underpinned by therapeutic models → Clarify goals, identity and resources → Help increase self-awareness

All coaches value training, use models and assessments

Sports coaches → Understand coaching and sport → Help set goals → Meet physical & pscyhological needs

Coach-mentor overlaps → Both can be directive and/or non-directive → Both are confidential → Draw on wisdom and prior knowledge → Use tangible or intangible goals → Use questioning, listening and clarifying skills → Work at transitional points

Gaps: Which aspect of a mentor or coach role is discipline-specific, which aspect is transferable to other mentor disciplines and/or coaching?

This analysis of the existing literature provides insights into the way in which certain mentors and coaches approach their work and has helped identify some differences.

Shared mentoring and coaching approaches

The literature review has also shed some light in terms of where overlaps in approach might lie. Some personal attributes were evident in all disciplines regardless of the intervention: Firstly, there needs to be a degree of warmth and friendliness in both mentoring and coaching so that the mentee or coachee feels able to open up and disclose personal information about themselves. Secondly, mentors and coaches also need to be committed to their role, and have the time, availability and accessibility to allow the relationships to build effectively. Thirdly, the potential for formal or informal interventions are also evident in both mentoring and coaching disciplines.

Gaps within the literature

No research could be found which specifically asked mentors and coaches to identify any unique aspects of their role that might set them apart from other types of mentors or coaches. This has helped identify a gap that this study proposes to address by collecting data from mentors and coaches across the six professional disciplines. Practitioners will have the opportunity to talk about the ways in which they approach their work and how this relates to their particular area of expertise. The literature review has also highlighted the need for practitioners to share their knowledge and experiences across different sectors and this aspect will also be investigated through the empirical research. The following conclusions drawn from the literature search will be incorporated into the research design:

1. Whilst tentative thoughts about the differences and similarities between mentor and coach approaches have been considered within this chapter, it still remains that the literature does not clearly define mentoring and coaching which makes it difficult to know exactly how mentors and coaches might be distinct from one another;

2. Several writers and researchers attribute the professional setting as the key determining factor (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Clutterbuck, 2008; Cox, 2003; Ferrar, 2004; Garvey, 2004), but no research has been conducted which looks at the mentor's or coach's approach within the parameters of specific disciplines;

3. Further clarity will enable practitioners and participants alike to have a greater understanding of what they can expect when entering into a mentoring or

coaching relationship depending on the genre or type of intervention being offered;

4. Furthermore, the transferability of skills between disciplines will also be considered: is it possible for a mentor to work as a coach and vice versa if indeed the two roles are practically one and the same thing?

In many ways, the literature offers views and opinions which look to prescribe how mentors and coaches should approach their role. The chapter which follows reflects how the empirical research for this study has been carried out in a way which gives practitioners the opportunity to be descriptive rather than prescriptive about their work, taking into account their beliefs and experiences of the work they do.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The aim of this study is to explore the differences and similarities between mentors and coaches by comparing practitioner approaches found within six mentoring and coaching disciplines. This chapter articulates how the research was designed and implemented for this study. The theoretical perspective, paradigm and methodological approach are discussed in relation to the research question. This is followed by a rationale for the data collection and analysis methods that were chosen. Consideration will be given to the decisions made when analysing the data, before reflecting on associated ethical issues and the role of the researcher throughout each stage.

Underpinning Philosophy and Methodological Approach

At the start of this research journey, I believe it is important first and foremost to acknowledge my own set of beliefs and values and how they guide the way in which new information is sought. Guba and Lincoln (1994) describe a paradigm as beliefs and principles which are representative of how an individual might define his or her worldview. There is a general consensus that there are four paradigms: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:112). A more recent addition, building on Dewey (2004) has been the pragmatic approach to research which makes the case for flexibility and combining approaches, led predominantly by the needs of the research question (Saunders *et al*, 2009).

I was drawn to the social constructivist approach as this focuses on the way in which 'people make sense of the world especially through sharing their experiences with others via the medium of language' (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2008:58). Constructivism comes in different forms, including cognitive, personal, radical, realist and social (Liu & Matthews, 2005). However, social constructivism resonates strongly with the values of informal education which, as explained in the introduction, are integral to my work. This paradigm also acknowledges the researcher's own background and experience, rather than separating these out (Creswell, 2013; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The field of informal and community education starts from the premise that working collaboratively and learning with others through dialogue and conversation (Jeffs and Smith, 1999) is essential when trying to understand and appreciate other people's worldview. These values appear similar to those of mentoring and coaching and therefore seem a natural approach to take as St George and Robinson suggest:

> *Mentoring is grounded in social constructivism – the idea that individuals make meaning of knowledge within a social context and as a result of interactions with others (St George & Robinson, 2011:28).*

This also reflects my position as both a practitioner of mentoring and a researcher within the mentoring and coaching domain. Social constructivism allows for the researcher to be a part of the phenomena being examined (Creswell, 2013; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Liu and Matthews, 2005), making it impossible to take an objective position.

I am particularly interested in finding out how mentors and coaches describe their experiences and approaches to their work, to analyse whether or not any similarities can be found amongst other practitioners working in similar disciplines and social constructivism lends itself to learning from situational settings (Liu & Matthews, 2005). Burr suggests that our identity originates:

> *Not from inside the person, but from the social realm, where people swim in a sea of language and other signs, a sea that is invisible to us because it is the very medium of our existence as social beings (Burr, 1995:53).*

Social constructivism allows for the observation of what is occurring in practice before any analysis is made. As behaviours are often idiosyncratic and difficult to predict, wider cultural and environmental factors such as 'social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender history and structure' (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) also need to be taken into consideration. One of the key elements of this is seeing human interaction as social actors (Saunders *et al*, 2009). This might go some way to describing how mentors and coaches enact their role, through interpretation and adaptation according to the meaning they place on it. By applying this approach I have sought to find ways of deconstructing and understanding these acted out roles.

Walker (2004) conducted a study using questionnaires with coaches to ascertain constructs which inform their practice, and this piece of research illustrates how social constructivism might help unpack roles. Findings from the study suggest that coaches have a 'home' (Walker, 2004:25) which represents the approaches they are most comfortable using. However, they will either develop these over time or venture into other approaches as and when the need arises. This paints a picture of mentors and coaches aligning themselves to a main discipline but that does not fully define or depict their practice as a whole. This study seeks to build on Walker's (2004) concept about practitioner constructs and further understand the range of approaches that mentors

and coaches adopt, whether they are traditionally connected to a particular discipline or not.

Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) point out strengths of deconstructing and understanding acted roles: the ability to look at processes, flexibility which can help generate theory which implies that the data collected has authenticity. Other disadvantages are the time needed to collect the data and the complexity of analysing and interpreting that data. These factors were considered within the methodological design.

Research Design

The design of the study was intentionally social constructivist in nature placing an emphasis on the views and experiences of practitioners working as mentors and coaches. This epistemological stance enabled me to try and ascertain if there are any emerging themes arising from particular disciplines where mentors and coaches can be found. This would enable me to analyse any overlaps that might be apparent between the roles of coach and mentor, given that both are described as helping others (Roberts, 2000). In addition, a better appreciation of how they might differ from one another will also be considered. Adopting a qualitative approach was also an important feature, as it allows the examination of the subject matter across a range of practice-based disciplines. This enabled the research to be exploratory when analysing the findings found within a range of mentoring and coaching disciplines, as well as looking at how the two roles are distinct from one another in broader terms.

It was also important to consider what methodological approaches have already been used within the field of mentoring and coaching, and whether or not a different research design was justified. Looking at the studies incorporated into the literature review, the following research approaches were adopted: 12 were formed on the basis of comparing other pieces of existing research; 24 papers adopted quantitative approaches, of which 19 used questionnaires. A further seven studies used a mixed methods approach. Whilst the split between quantitative and qualitative studies was fairly even, questionnaires were found to have been used most frequently. Garvey *et al* (2009:227) state that within mentoring literature, 'positivistic studies currently dominate'. Therefore there is a case for more qualitative work to be undertaken. No social constructivist studies were found and none combined interviews within a case-study framework. Given the originality of the research design, it was felt that a valuable

data set could emerge, offering a practitioner perspective of experiences and stories from people who occupy these roles.

Comparative case studies

A comparative case study approach was adopted using a range of practitioners representing different disciplines of mentoring and coaching. Each participant was interviewed giving them the opportunity to articulate their own approach, so that this could be compared alongside others. Case studies allow for the 'generation of multiple perspectives' (Gray, 2009:169) and this was deemed necessary in order to gain some insight into the approaches of mentors and coaches in different disciplines. Whilst other methods such as surveys or focus groups allow for a larger number of participants covering a wider range of data, there is the potential to omit the depth, detail and insight that can be achieved through a smaller-scale level of participation (Denscombe, 2007).

Consideration was given to using mentees and coachees alongside practitioners as additional case studies. However, this was rejected for a number of reasons: firstly, through initial enquiries with potential participants, some mentees and coachees were reluctant to get involved because they felt uncomfortable disclosing confidential information. Secondly, because research has not been carried out in this area before, it seemed more logical to start with seeking to understand the link between practitioners' beliefs and experiences of their role and the approaches and methods adopted, in order to achieve the aim.

Some authors suggest that 'single case studies generally come from a constructionist epistemology; those who advocate multiple cases usually fit with either a relativist or positivist epistemology' (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2008:97). Instead, this study will use comparative case studies; however each 'case' is independent in the sense that they do not come from the same organisation. So the comparison of cases will be performed on an individual basis. One particular benefit of using case studies is the opportunity this provides the researcher to make connections between the discipline and processes (Saunders *et al*, 2009). The insights gleaned from one discipline can then be compared with others. Liu and Matthews (2004) discuss how the social constructivist approach looks for connections between the individual and social and this study has been designed to explore both through case studies.

A range of methods were considered in order to find out how the role of the mentor and coach is manifested within certain professional disciplines. Other qualitative methods were considered such as focus groups. However, the main problem with bringing practitioners together who represent the same discipline would be that they could influence one another's answers and not fully represent their own experiences, beliefs and opinions. A key aim of using interviews was to allow the individual to reflect on their own practice and then at the analysis stage, compare these reflections and insights. Focus groups would prohibit this from taking place authentically as this method can make it difficult to make comparisons across groups (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). Table 3.1 maps out how the overall design was constructed:

Paradigm and Perspective	Strategy of Enquiry	Data Collection Method
Social Constructivist paradigm • Mentoring and coaching realities are socially constructed • The researcher's mentoring and coaching experiences are included within the research setting • The researcher therefore engages in reflexive and self-critical dialogue • The purpose of the research is to reveal hidden realities	*Comparative case studies* • The enquiry will be bound by the individual participants representing a genre of mentoring or coaching	*Interviews* • Semi-structured interviews of an exploratory nature, to understand the reality of mentors and coaches in how they approach their role

Table 3.1 Research design overview (adapted from Gray, 2009:168)

The research question has undergone some investigation already, through analysis of existing research as outlined in the literature review. With the aim of building on this, it was felt that using a relatively small sample from each sector would provide a useful opportunity to explore the mentor and coach approach in more detail. The use of a small sample means that any learning or observations gleaned from the empirical research cannot be generalised, but will help identify some initial findings of where similarities and differences might occur. Potential difficulties arising from using a small number of participants (Ruane, 2005) were reduced by recruiting participants with a significant amount of experience within their own area of mentoring and coaching.

Recruiting participants

A decision was made to interview three participants from each discipline of coaching and mentoring. Given that this is a qualitative study, it was felt more important to

involve experienced practitioners through in-depth interviews rather than adopt approaches which access greater numbers of participants without the depth of discussion and reflection. Participants were approached using purposive sampling as this study benefits from drawing on experienced mentor and coach practitioners (Tongco, 2007). Existing networks were used to see if known mentors or coaches had other contacts that they would be willing to pass on. For example, through existing youth work networks, a recommendation was provided for a professional sports coach who agreed to participate in the research. In other instances, LinkedIn was used to contact executive coaches and one interviewee was found via this route. At first, it was envisaged that practitioners would all be based in the UK, as this would help set a boundary-demarcation on contextual influences. However, when identifying potential participants a recommendation came from a DCM colleague who knew an Australian practitioner who has had her own mentoring business for nearly two decades, specifically working with leaders and senior management teams; this level of experience would be hard to match within the UK, so this person was contacted and she agreed to be interviewed.

Once prospective participants were identified, they were each sent an introductory letter (see appendix 7) and Participant Information Sheet (see appendix 8) which gave them a clear overview of the research project (Keats, 2000) and outlined the commitment and time expected of them should they agree to take part. Overall, the design was kept fairly simple which helped me communicate more effectively to participants the nature and purpose of this study. Table 3.2 below demonstrates the matrix of disciplines alongside varying professional perspectives:

Case Study Discipline	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
Mentors of young people	A female mentor and mentoring project co-ordinator of a scheme for young people (11-19 year olds) with learning difficulties or disabilities Code: MYP1	A male mentor and project co-ordinator of a mentoring scheme for young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties Code: MYP2	A female inclusion coordinator at a school, mentoring young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties MYP3
Mentor of leaders or executives	An experienced male mentor of leaders with additional executive coaching experience Code: ML1	A female mentor of leaders based in Australia who now sets up mentoring programmes within organisations Code: ML2	A female mentor of leaders who helps set up reciprocal mentoring relationships in organisations Code: ML3
Mentor of newly qualified teachers	A male deputy head teacher with responsibility for inducting NQTs. An experienced mentor of NQTs Code: MNQT1	A male head of department with mentoring experience of NQTs with responsibility for inducting NQTs Code: MNQT2	A female deputy head teacher with significant mentoring experience of NQTs Code: MNQT3
Executive coaches	A male executive coach working in the private sector. Also a volunteer mentor working with people looking to set up a small business Code: EC1	A female executive coach working primarily with financial institutions Code: EC2	A female executive coach working in the private sector and education. Also delivered mentoring courses for graduates Code: EC3
Coaching psychologists	A male coaching psychologist working with organisations Code: CP1	A female coaching psychologist working with organisations specialising in maternity coaching for executives Code: CP2	A male business and coaching psychologist working with organisations Code: CP3
Sports coaches	A male ex-professional elite sports coach now working as a business coach Code: SC1	A male professional tennis coach Code: SC2	A male professional football coach Code: SC3

Table 3.2 Participants and their disciplines

Interviews

Some deliberation took place in relation to the appropriate research methods to use, in order to obtain data that would best help explore the research question. The use of observation in practice was initially considered as this could have helped mentors reflect on the approach of coaches in situ and vice versa. However, this presented access problems and also raised ethical concerns regarding breach of confidentiality, especially in the case of mentors working with young people (Wilfond, 2007). Subsequently, the decision was taken to use interviews to explore with practitioners their thoughts and feelings about the nature of their own work (Cremona, 2010). This provided a range of data representing different areas where mentoring and coaching take place, enabling comparisons to be made first within the specific discipline before comparing with others.

Interviewing as a method was selected for several reasons, not least because of its complementary associations with the social constructivist approach where interviews allow access to narrative accounts of the participants' realities (Miller & Glassner, 2011). It provides participants with the opportunity to reflect on aspects of their experiences which they may do subconsciously and take for granted; but having a researcher present to probe and try and appreciate how they define their approach can be illuminating for both parties. They may, however, feel under pressure at times to appear knowledgeable about the subject area, particularly when being asked to offer this information within an academic setting. Therefore it was imperative that I established trust and rapport early on (Keats, 2000; Ruane, 2005) so that participants were made to feel at ease. This was also facilitated by my self-knowledge and ability to apply interpersonal skills effectively, particularly as the relationship being formed will have a relatively short lifespan (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2008).

Qualitative interviewing is a particularly useful research method when 'accessing individuals' attitudes and values – things that cannot necessarily be observed or accommodated in a formal questionnaire' (Byrne 2004:182, cited in Silverman, 2011). Atkinson, Coffey and Delamore (2003) support this view by suggesting that 'narratives and interview accounts – are themselves examples of social action' (Atkinson *et al*, 2003:117). The use of interviews in this instance was therefore justified.

The interviews took place between January 2012 and February 2013; they were all recorded and lasted for approximately 45 minutes. Initially, a pilot interview was carried

out, so that the wording of each question could be reviewed following feedback from the participant. One change that was made as a result of the pilot was to not assume that because a mentor or coach had been recruited on the basis that they had extensive experience in one particular discipline they had no experience in other areas. Therefore, the first question was changed so that each participant had the opportunity to explain exactly what mentoring and coaching roles they had experienced. This also provided an opportunity to separate out in the analysis section mentors and coaches perceptions of other disciplines, compared with practitioners who had first experience of two or more disciplines.

A semi-structured approach with the interviews was adopted. This meant that the questions could help guide the interview; however this also helped create some flexibility, providing both parties with the opportunity to venture into tangential themes should they want to. This resulted in the paraphrasing of some questions, depending on the discipline and background of the interviewee. Each interview was transcribed, ensuring that meaning was represented clearly through appropriate grammar and defining intonation (Oliver, 2005). The transcripts were then sent to each participant for checking, to ensure that their views were not being misrepresented. Interviewees were then asked to complete a consent form following this process.

The following questions were therefore used as a guideline and template for the interviews, which helped ensure consistency and that the design was reliable (Keats, 2000). The questions have also been chosen by way of meeting the research objectives:

Interview questions		Objective *
1.	What are you currently involved in, mentoring or coaching?	2*
2.	Describe your mentoring or coaching experiences.	2*
3.	What is your professional background?	2*
4.	What would you say makes your discipline of work different from others?	3*
5.	What aspects of a mentor's and coach's role are similar? Why do you say that?	3*
6.	How does this impact on the role of the mentor or coach?	3*
7.	Do you think a mentor/coach within your discipline could work effectively in any other discipline?	4*
8.	Do you think a mentor could work effectively as a coach or vice versa?	4*
9.	Tell me what you think your mentoring/coaching has to offer other disciplines? How might other disciplines enhance the practice within your own specialist area?	4*
10	Is there anything else you would like to add?	

* Summary of Research Objectives:

1.	*Critically review literature on approaches of mentors and coaches within six disciplines of practice*
*2.	*Explore how mentors and coaches from six disciplines define their approaches through primary research*
*3.	*Compare and analyse the findings, giving consideration to shared and distinctive mentor and coach approaches*
*4.	*Critically evaluate and synthesise how mentors and coaches are the same and/or different, and suggest how inter-disciplinary practice may be shared across disciplines*

Table 3.3 Interview questions and research objectives

The interviews were nearly all carried out over the telephone with the exception of two: one was carried out face-to-face as requested by the interviewee and the other over Skype as she was based in Australia. Whilst telephone interviews remove the ability to read body language and engage more tangibly through eye contact (Ruane, 2005; Silverman, 2011), many of the participants were busy people and may not have agreed to being interviewed if it demanded a less flexible appointment. Several respondents booked their interview at a time when they were in-between appointments and on the move, so I spoke with them on their mobile phone. This clearly was an advantage for them and one which gave me greater accessibility. In all cases, a Dictaphone was used to record the interviews which enabled me to concentrate fully on the conversation, demonstrating active listening skills (Ruane, 2005) through the use of offering feedback for clarification and asking supplementary questions to probe further. Transcriptions were produced for each interview and returned to participants for checking before any

analysis was attempted. Further discussions relating to the transcriptions will be explored later when reflecting on the analysis stage.

Limitations of data

Several limitations need to be noted in relation to the participants used as representatives of each discipline. The small sample size from each area means that any views, opinions or experiences of participating mentors and coaches cannot be generalised, due to the diversity of practice present within each of the six disciplines. This was particularly apparent where interviewees coordinated mentoring or coaching programmes and therefore had an overview of a range of practice approaches alongside their own experiences. For example, two mentors of leaders helped set up and support internal mentoring programmes within organisations. This meant that references to sponsorship came up because the programmes were focused on helping employees develop their careers. Had the interviewees been external mentors of leaders, the results may have been very different. This reflects the diversity and complexities present in the field of mentoring and coaching, further supporting the view that the roles of mentors and coaches are not easily divided.

Data Analysis Approach

In order to analyse the interview data effectively a thematic approach was used as a way of identifying shared and distinctive mentoring and coaching practices. Qualitative analysis can often seem vague in terms of how to approach the task, as there appear to be fewer rules (Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2006). After much deliberation, thematic analysis was deployed in order to explore the experiences and views of participants within the transcripts.

Thematic analysis is defined by Braun and Clarke (2006:6) as 'a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data'. It can be applied within any theoretical framework; however the social constructivist perspective places an emphasis on the way in which the data is viewed. Judgement is required of the researcher in determining what counts as a theme, as this might be determined by the number of times this is reported; but equally a less prominent finding might warrant some time and attention because it 'captures something important in relation to the overall research question' (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82). In this instance, themes were selected that helped identify how mentors and coaches approach their role, and the reasons for these.

Data Analysis Processes

In order to identify the distinctive and shared aspects of each mentoring or coaching domain, each transcript was examined individually and tables were created which helped list relevant discourses (using direct quotations to help retain meaning). These were then grouped together in related themes. This approach was repeated by analysing and comparing interviewees from the same discipline of mentoring or coaching before analysing findings again comparing responses from mentors alongside coaches.

Consideration was given to the use of various software packages that might support the analysis process. Whilst a package such as NVivo provides coding functions and allows for the easy retrieval of participant identification, it was decided that a simple table overview of emerging themes alongside supporting quotations allowed the researcher to view the data as a whole. Bazeley (2007) discusses some weaknesses associated with data analysis computer programmes and one in particular was pertinent to this study: the potential for the researcher to become distanced from the data. Being able to view the transcripts as a whole before identifying constructs and themes was a sympathetic way of analysing the data within a social constructivist framework.

The data tables proved to be a valuable way of finding meaning and capturing important features. A similar writing process was adopted with the literature review, as information was captured in tables which helped draw out references pertaining to mentor and coach philosophies and practice. Braun and Clarke (2006) note that scrutinizing existing research and documents can have an influence on the way in which the data is analysed. As I used similar approaches when analysing the literature and data, it was important to consciously separate out any initial references from the literature when coding the data. The advantage of analysing the literature and data in a similar way was the benefits of being able to go back through the tables produced for the literature review and compare these with the data analysis findings. Figure 3.1 below shows the processes involved in analysing the data, and in which order:
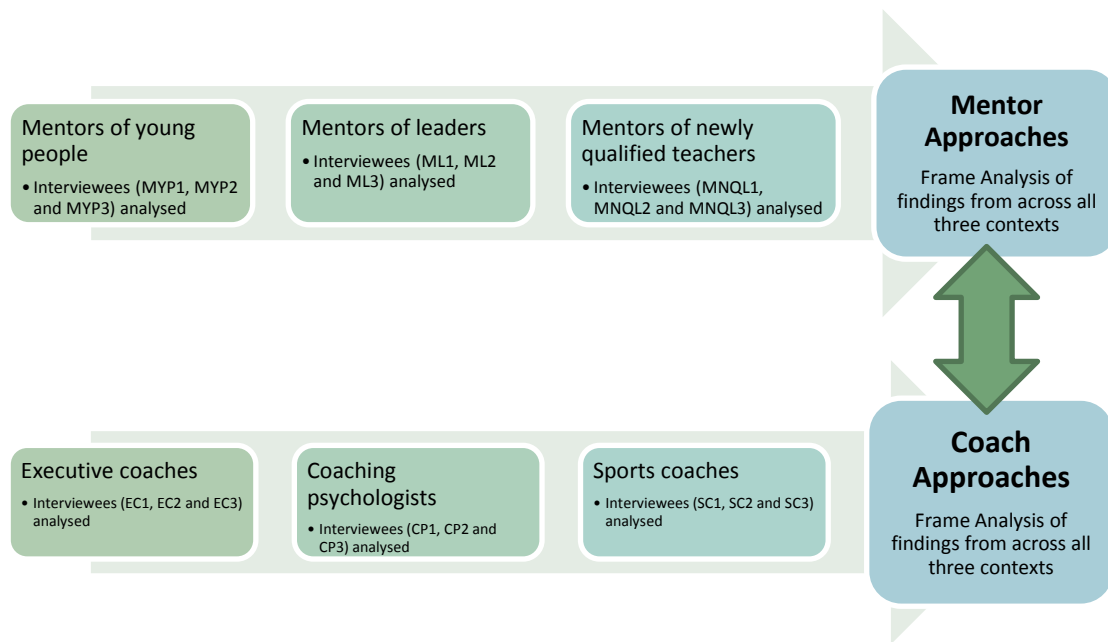
Figure 3.1: Data analysis process

The analysis process starts from the premise that the field of mentoring and coaching can be viewed as a combination of disciplines where many shared and distinct practitioner approaches can be found. The design of this study has sought to try and better understand some of the complexities surrounding the varying titles given to each mentor and coach discipline which suggests the need for a specialist role. Previous references to the term discipline have viewed mentoring or coaching as sub-disciplines of older parenting fields. For example, Renton (2009) suggests that coaching psychology could be perceived as a sub-discipline of psychology and leadership mentoring as a sub-discipline of the business sector. However, given the significant growth and expansion of the mentoring and coaching field (Clutterbuck, 2008; Hamlin *et al*, 2009; Ives, 2009), the data from this study is presented slightly differently. The six areas are listed as disciplines of mentoring and coaching and it is hoped that by viewing the data from this angle, a new contribution can be made to the definition debate.

Criteria of quality

It could be argued that it is harder to demonstrate the rigour of qualitative research because quantitative studies are much easier to replicate and repeat (Silverman, 2011).It has been common practice to replicate quantitative criteria used for assessing the quality of research designs in alternative paradigms, without appreciating how

unsuitable this might be (Cassell, Symon, Buehring & Johnson, 2006). Therefore, it is important that attention is given to the reliability of the research design from a qualitative perspective, so that the process and findings are valid.

Several frameworks have been put forward that outline sets of criteria for ensuring validity and reliability. Guba and Lincoln (1981) led the way with their concept of trustworthiness which incorporated four categories: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. In line with Cassell *et al*'s (2006) argument, Guba and Lincoln's framework connected strategies to a constructivist's epistemology:

> *Guba and Lincoln developed authenticity criteria that were unique to the constructivist assumptions and that could be used to evaluate the quality of the research beyond the methodological dimensions (Morse et al,2002:2).*

Below is a mapping of Guba and Lincoln's framework, with evidence from this study as to how these elements were intrinsically built into the research design, as Table 3.4 illustrates:

Guba & Lincoln's Criteria	Criteria of quality evident within this study
Credibility	In order to ascertain that the results collected from the data were credible, the transcripts were sent to the participant for checking before being analysed. When using thematic analysis, excerpts and quotations were not used in a way that changed the intended meaning.
Transferability	All participants were recruited on the basis of the type of mentoring or coaching they work in. Whilst the premise of this study is to compare disciplines through case studies, specific areas of work were acknowledged throughout the analysis, making explicit, at all times, the discipline which the participant belongs to.
Dependability	The design of this study was to interview three participants who represented three mentoring disciplines and three coaching disciplines. All interviews followed the same semi-structured format. Most interviews took place over the telephone with two exceptions.
Confirmability	I acknowledged my own biases relating to mentoring young people, with no personal experience of mentoring or coaching in other disciplines. To ensure this did not have a detrimental effect on the data analysis, a consistent approach was adopted with all transcriptions. This included identifying any themes relevant to the research question, and evidencing these clearly through the use of quotations.

Table 3.4 Validity and reliability framework for this study using Guba and Lincoln's (1981) criteria

In addition to the above, a number of steps were taken to ensure that the research methods and processes used were carried out in a consistent manner:

1. All participants received the same background information about the study and were asked at the start of the interview if they were clear about the purpose of the research;

2. A pilot interview provided the opportunity to check the questions for clarity and make changes where appropriate;

3. All interview transcripts were recorded verbatim and returned to the participant for checking before starting the analysis process;

4. The transcripts were coded using a thematic approach which was applied consistently throughout

Ethical Considerations

Appreciating the importance of researching in an ethical manner meant that certain procedures were put in place in order to protect everyone involved. The responsibility therefore clearly lies with me and the governing institution to take steps to ensure that the participants' rights and well-being were protected. As part of this process, I applied to the University's Ethics Committee for full approval before any empirical research commenced. This also allowed the research design to be scrutinised for rigour and ensured that it was professional and met the University's standards.

It is important that participants of qualitative and interpretivist studies are represented accurately and not coerced or compromised into saying things that the researcher wants them to say. To prevent this from happening, time and attention were given to ensuring that the choice of words used in the interview questions were open-ended (Bell & Opie, 2002), giving the participant the freedom to answer in any way they chose. Given the ethical need to be equitable at all times, the use of semi-structured interviews ensured that the same areas were covered in all interviews rather than the interviewer focus on particular questions or themes in some interviews based on personal interest.

Anonymity was guaranteed to each participant, providing reassurance that they could share their opinions and experiences in confidence (Keats, 2000). This still left me with the responsibility of taking into consideration the discipline and intended meaning of those views so that opinions were not misrepresented. All data was stored on files and computers that were password protected and hard copies of transcripts were locked in

an office (Keats, 2000). This was done to protect the identity of participants and the information shared as part of the research, honouring the promise of confidentiality.

Given my own background as a mentor of young people, it was important the interviews were not carried out in any biased way, particularly as youth work was the only discipline I had first-hand experience in. However, this was seen as an advantage when researching the other disciplines, as these were approached with an open mind. Where my experiences were useful was in building rapport quickly with the interviewees. I was able to demonstrate some level of professional understanding of the experiences being described in the interviews. However, it was also important to keep a balance between being respectful of each participant whilst consciously seeking to build and establish rapport (Guillemin & Heggen, 2009).

Role of the Researcher

It is important as a researcher to be reflexive, acknowledging the potential for subjectivity and bias in the research process, as this is inevitable given my experiences as a practitioner within the field (Mantzoukas, 2005). The opportunity to engage with fellow practitioners who have offered some creative and authoritative insights into the subject matter has been hugely motivating. I have felt privileged to speak with colleagues who have passionately shared their feelings on this topic, and also daunted by the responsibility of representing those views in an honourable way. These encounters have spurred me on to commit myself further to the research journey.

One of the elements I reflected upon was the usefulness of having first-hand experience as a mentor when interviewing colleagues from the field. This did go some way into helping establish trust and rapport as my interest in the subject matter and empathy towards the experiences being shared would have been evident in the manner in which I conducted the interviews. This was perhaps less evident in areas such as sports coaching where I had no first-hand experience. However, I was able to reapply my mentoring skills and work harder at building trust and rapport with participants whose work I was less familiar with. One way of doing this is to adopt techniques such as probing (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2008; Keats, 2000) to ensure equality. Probing participants through knowledge gleaned from the literature review search about the interviewees' field helped contribute to building rapport.

The challenge then has been to recognise in myself the times when these experiences have raised questions in my own mind. The first significantly uncomfortable moment was wrestling with my own ontological perspective. At times I found this confusing, as the human search for truth and knowledge is not always as straightforward as the epistemological labels suggest. Initially, the pragmatic paradigm seemed to offer a way out of this dilemma, but it still did not sit easily with me. A helpful way of approaching this was to revisit my own personal and professional values, and recognise what is important to me especially when engaging with other people. One such value is the recognition of the way in which meaning is formed often through experiences which are subjective (Cresswell, 2013). This enabled me to recognise how my own values were closely associated with social constructivism, and this was a reassuring conclusion to come to. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) encourage researchers to develop their critical subjectivity to make sense of the temptation to be pulled in different directions: "experiencing of the self as both inquirer and respondent, as teacher and learner, as the one coming to know the self within the processes of research itself" (Dezin & Lincoln, 2005:210).

The other element that proved to be a challenge was deciding on a research design. The initial design allowed for a more in-depth examination of mentoring for young people and executive coaching using observational methods (Hartmaan & Wood, 1990) as well as interviews. However, on reflection, had different methods for the additional four disciplines been used, inconsistencies would have arisen when it came to analysing the data. Therefore, the design was changed to be more equitable across all six disciplines by using the same interviewing method.

Summary

This chapter has sought to justify how the research design has been created and constructed in order to effectively answer the research question. I have argued that a social constructivist approach is valuable when seeking to understand how practitioners define their own approach and compare this to other mentor and coach disciplines; and how the use of in-depth interviews is an effective way of achieving this.

In Chapters 4,and 5 that follow, the data findings will be analysed in order to throw light on the aims and objectives of this study. Key patterns that emerge will be analysed, specifically looking for similarities and differences within professional disciplines and

also across the disciplines and across the roles of coach and mentor. One particular aspect of interest will be how practitioners within the same discipline might offer different perspectives:

> *Rather than continuing to search for differences between coaching contexts, it is becoming evident that it is more important to begin to understand the similarities and differences between coaches in a similar coaching context (Werthner & Trudel, 2006:208).*

These aspects will be examined across the mentoring genres as well, before comparisons are made between the different disciplines. Consideration will also be given to any anomalies or unusual perspectives that might stray away from any identified emerging patterns of opinion. Mentoring will be considered first, by examining the views of mentors of young people, followed by leaders and then newly qualified teachers. Similarly coaching will be analysed from the results of the executive coaches, then the coaching psychologists and finally the sports coaches. Further analysis will compare the three types of mentors and coaches and consider where practitioner philosophies and practices are shared and distinct.

Chapter 4: Discipline-associated approaches

In this chapter, in order to appreciate the mentors' and coaches' approaches to their work, the findings from the six domains are presented. Interview transcripts were analysed individually to ascertain key patterns. This chapter begins with a brief discussion which reflects the participant views regarding the on-going debate about defining mentoring and coaching and whether or not there is merit in pursuing these discussions. The chapter is then broken down into two sections: in section 1, the data is first analysed to uncover the ways in which mentors and coaches define approaches to their role, initially from within each discipline, paying attention to any unique elements which can be attributed to a mentor or coach area. Quotations are used from participants to help illustrate emerging themes. Then, in section 2, attention is given to any patterns of approaches used across the three mentoring disciplines followed by the three coaching disciplines.

Participant perspectives on the definition debate

The interviews revealed a range of perspectives about the on-going debate surrounding the definition of mentoring and coaching and participants were keen to share their views on whether or not this debate should be pursued. The overwhelming majority believed there is a case to continue the debate the issue and help define mentor and coach roles. However, some were concerned about the motivation for certain practitioners to separate the roles out and recognition of the difficulties in achieving any universal definitions.

Fourteen of the 18 participants felt there is a need to work towards a clearer understanding of the ways in which mentors and coaches are distinctive from one another. However the rationale for clarity varied amongst participants. Some felt that increased knowledge and awareness would be good for both practitioners and purchasers alike, as CP1 highlights:

> *It is important that we who are operating in that space can get some universal clarity and reassurance, and we know our boundaries and our limitations. Then we can help educate the buyers so that the buyer knows what they are getting (CP1).*

In addition, consideration was also given to mentees and coachees, as an understanding of their specific needs can help point towards mentoring or coaching, as ML2 describes:

> *Once you identify the need, then you can start to define mentoring or coaching (ML2).*

Some participants were much more cynical about the perceived need to distinguish mentors from coaches. One coach suggested that the drive behind the definition debate is more likely to come from coaching quarters as some coaches are keen to carve a professional role for themselves, as EC1 explains:

> *Part of this is about saying who we are and who we are not. And trying to define coaching as a profession by implication, defining other professions as well around that (EC1).*

Another explanation offered as a rationale for practitioners having a greater sense of differentiation is, as CP3 suggests, linked to remuneration:

> *How does one become a mentor commercially in the same way as I am a coach (CP3)?*

Garvey (2011) discusses how many coaches have been able to charge significant amounts for their coaching services and this can impact upon the motivation and drive to do the work. This contrasts with mentors who in the main, carry out their role as part of their wider job description or on a voluntary basis. This, to some degree, already separates the two roles.

Four of the 18 participants felt strongly that there is no good reason to attempt to separate out mentors from coaches. ML2 does not see any point:

> *It is difficult to say well this is mentoring and this is coaching, because I don't see any real agreement on that. And you know what, I don't really care (ML2).*

SC1 felt it would be too simplistic to completely separate coaches from mentors and therefore not fully reflect the nature of the field:

> *I am not sure how important it is to be absolutely cut and dried that they are different (SC1).*

ML1 attributed reasons for mentors and coaches appearing to be similar, down to the need for coaches to develop their skills and approaches:

> *The skills are pretty much the same. I think the big problem is that most of the coaches that we see are still operating at a pretty immature level of coaching (ML1)*

EC2 also thought more energy should be placed into working towards change in the client, rather than try and distinguish mentors from coaches:

> *By trying to categorise we are actually losing sight of the overall endeavour of you know, transformational change in organisations (EC2).*

These show strength of feeling against differentiating between mentors and coaches, from across the disciplines. The majority, however, are of the opinion that there needs to be greater understanding about what makes each distinctive.

Section 1 – Discipline-specific approaches

Each of the six disciplines were analysed to ascertain any unique elements which might be pertinent for practitioners to be aware of, if operating in a specific area of mentoring or coaching. Given the diversity and complexities of each area and the small sample size, care was taken not to assume that responses fully represented each discipline. However, this section reflects the views, opinions and experiences expressed by participants in order to gain further insight into the specific demands and expectations which influence practice as well as highlighting any common approaches apparent amongst disciplines.

Mentors of young people

Key findings suggest that similar approaches can be found amongst the three mentors who work with young people, including:

1. The general consensus of opinion that in order to engage with young people, personal characteristics combined with an ability to connect with teenagers were needed, culminating in a relational approach;

2. The mentors believed that any change or outcomes in the mentee would result from establishing a good relationship. Outcomes were considered to be inevitable; but the mentor should allow these to happen rather than steer the mentee towards change;

3. The main aspect which differentiated mentors of young people from mentors working in the other two disciplines was the need to fully understand child protection procedures if a mentee were to disclose any sensitive information.

1. Relational approach

The mentors agreed that a relational approach was of paramount importance when seeking to engage young people. Several characteristics were identified as important for a mentor when working with young people. MYP2 mentioned a number of specific qualities that mentors supporting young people need to possess:

> *The qualities of the mentor are sort of warmth, spontaneity, improvisations, empathy, ability to listen, you know creativity – coming up with ideas of what you could do together, reliability, consistency in terms of values, boundaries… they are more qualities of a human being (MYP2).*

All of the qualities listed above increase the mentor's capacity to build a successful relationship with the young person, as MYP3 iterates:

> *They need to be approachable, they need to be able to have a decent conversation with the kids, they need to have some sort of rapport with the young people (MYP3).*

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Mentors of young people are not normally required to focus on skill development, although there are exceptions to this where some schemes seek to support young people on the road towards a particular career. Berkeley (1994) discusses mentoring programmes for young people which have a career focus, but suggests that mentors apply coaching techniques when working on this aspect. The participants in this study were involved in schemes aimed at young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Evans, 2005; Gray & Seddon, 2005; Meyer & Bouchey, 2010) and therefore much less directional in approach. MYP1 concurs with these sentiments:

> *I just don't think the young people we work with need another person telling them what they should be doing (MYP1).*

In some cases, due to generational differences between the mentor and mentee, knowledge about a young person's world might be limited. However, MYP2 pointed out that this is not necessarily a bad thing:

> *There is no way a retired person would be expected to know all about the latest apps or music… It's the difference that makes the relationship work. It is like two pebbles on the beach, gently smoothing each other off (MYP2).*

On the other hand, MYP1 recognised the value of having some common ground with the mentee in terms of helping the relationship to get off to a good start:

> *I look at things like location and availability, but also try and sort of pick out a hobby that they have got in common (MYP1).*

Sometimes mentoring schemes for young people have a specialist aim which requires the mentor to possess specific knowledge (Jamieson, 2008; Stead, 1997); in this instance a shared common interest is more important. As the mentor's role is often carried out by a volunteer (Philip, 2008; Sandford *et al*, 2010), this makes it less likely that the match will be based on common interests, although the mentoring coordinators I interviewed did factor this in. The overwhelming consensus from participants was that the way in which a mentor engages with a young person goes much further than any one particular skill-set. Beattie and Holden (1994), King (2012), the Mentoring and Befriending Foundation (2010) and Philip (2008) agree that the mentor's primary concern should be on building the relationship.

2.   Outcomes are a derivative of the relationship

The relationship itself was very much seen as the focal point by the mentors. Therefore, it was important to participants to make sure that trust and rapport are established, so that the young person has the confidence to open up and talk about what they might like to explore with their mentor, as MYP2 intimates:

> *The objective is the relationship and the product of the relationship is growth, maturity hopefully, greater ability to contain emotions, greater ability to empathise with people (MYP2).*

Listening was seen as a key element to building the relationship, particularly when vulnerable young people can at times feel as if their voice is rarely heard:

> *Lots of the kids we work with are just never heard by their parents, carers, teachers that they work with, or social workers (MYP2).*

> *Some of the really vulnerable young people – no one ever listens to them, so they don't bother talking (MYP3).*

All mentors in this discipline identified spontaneity and flexibility as crucial when working with young people:

> *I have got a mentor who goes for a walk with her mentee, she's really shy and doesn't like sitting there having to make eye contact and things. We've got another guy, they go and play pool together and I think that just breaks the ice and makes them feel comfortable (MYP1).*

This reflects existing research which has already highlighted the need for mentors to use their skills to develop the relationship, so that the mentoring process leads to change in the mentee. Listening has been identified as an important skill needed to help establish trust and rapport (King, 2012), which in turn increases the likelihood of the mentee opening up (Philip, 2008). This requires the mentor to be reflective – often in the moment – and respond in a flexible and spontaneous manner (Beattie & Holden, 1994; Berkeley, 1994). What is unclear from participants and the literature is whether the mentee is listened to at the point of referral. All participants described how young people are put forward for mentoring which usually involves a third party who has concerns about the young person's behaviour or well-being. Further work needs to be done to ensure listening is used in a consistent manner, as some young people might be better suited to other interventions, including coaching.

3. Understand the needs of vulnerable mentees

Establishing appropriate boundaries and understanding child protection procedures featured strongly amongst the mentors of young people:

> *At the start they agree the confidentiality and the boundaries of the role (MYP1).*

> *With child protection and safeguarding there are limits to what can be kept back (MYP2).*

For MYP1 and MYP2, who both coordinate mentoring projects, this was also considered an important part of the training they delivered for volunteer mentors, ensuring that they all were able to set the parameters of the relationship from the outset, and then

work within safeguarding guidelines consistently throughout. Alexander (2000) has also discussed the need for mentors to know child protection procedures whilst Jamieson (2008) and Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes and Garrett-Harris (2006) reiterate the need for boundaries to be made clear and maintained by the mentor so that they do not become blurred.

Often young people referred for mentoring can be particularly vulnerable which can have an impact upon the mentors' approach, particularly in areas such as offering the mentee feedback. MY2 was particularly aware of offering any thoughts or observations of a critical nature, when most mentees in his experience didn't have high levels of self-esteem or confidence:

> *Analysing a performance and saying, well if you had done x, y would have happened. Unfortunately the self-esteem of some of our kids is so low, that that sort of level of even quite mild criticism I think they would find very difficult (MYP2).*

The nature of mentoring vulnerable young people also hints at the approach being underpinned by a deficit model (Philip, 2008). Gray and Seddon (2005) and the Mentoring and Befriending Foundation (2010) have suggested that mentors of young people have a tendency to focus on issues of low self-esteem and building confidence as a way of addressing deficiencies. Jamieson (2008) has also found that mentoring can help build resilience in young people. Mentoring schemes are usually targeted at young people perceived to be in some kind of deficit, it seems a shame that mentoring is not used much in other more affirming ways or that coaching is not so readily available.

Mentors of Leaders

The mentors of leaders all had a significant amount of experience and expertise and had worked in a range of settings including the public and private sectors. However, working with both emerging and established leaders provided a common focal point to explore with participants in relation to how they approached their work. The data highlighted the following:

1. Mentors of leaders all share the same starting point: that their position and experience in their particular profession is a prerequisite for the mentee wanting to work with them. The mentee therefore has aspirations to progress within the same profession as their mentor;

2. Whilst having that expertise was important, recognition was also given to the mentor requiring a level of interpersonal skills and psychosocial support in order to help them pass on their knowledge in an effective manner;

3. The participants also identified career progression as a focal point of the mentoring.

1. Mentor and mentee share professional backgrounds

One theme that came up frequently was the importance of the mentor having more professional knowledge and experience than the mentee. The interviewees either mentored others directly, or coordinated mentoring that was set up as an internal programme within an organisation; when acting as a coordinator or programme manager, they often used mentors based on their knowledge of that particular sector and their position in the organisation. ML1 explains:

> *The mentor typically comes from within the same profession or… they have professional insight into areas that you want to go into (ML1).*

Conway (1995) highlights the fact that mentors often hold senior positions which can expose them to aspects of their organisation that they might not normally be aware of. This aspect was particularly noticeable with ML3 who helps organisations set up a reciprocal model of mentoring. This model (Boyer *et al*, 2004) allows for both parties to learn from one another; however the mentor is still selected primarily on their position rather than their expertise in mentoring processes:

> *If I had just been looking for people to choose as mentors who already had the right skills, they probably wouldn't have been in the mix. But the thing is it is so important those people are in the mix, because they are part of the leadership team (ML3).*

One participant compared their own approach to other mentors working externally with leaders who appear to take on the role of a guru; in this instance, prospective mentees are happy to be offered instructional advice from them as they look to find out the secret to their mentor's success:

> *I know some people who do professional mentoring and they are kind of gurus in their field, and people pay to be mentored by them, and they get told what to do (ML2).*

It seems that mentors of leaders rely heavily on having first-hand knowledge and experience in the area that their mentee is working in and this point is reflected in the literature (Conway, 1995; Hamlin & Sage, 2011; McCloughen *et al*, 2011).

2. Ability to understand self and others

In order to pass on their knowledge and expertise effectively, mentors recognised how the way they understand themselves and other people was an important component of the mentoring process. One participant highlighted the need for the mentor to possess self-awareness in terms of how they might be influencing the mentee, going beyond simply passing on information:

> It is much more important to be aware as a mentor of the impact that you may be having as a role model (ML1).

This recognition about the dynamics that exist between mentor and mentee, particularly when the mentor is there because of their position, is a key element required for working with leaders or those emerging into leadership positions. However, there was some recognition also of the need to relate well to the mentee. ML2 identified specific interpersonal skills that can help develop the relationship in a way that the mentee takes ownership:

> It is about development of a lot of rapport and trust, it is about asking a lot of questions, it is about listening and probing, and wherever possible, getting the person mentored to come up with their own answers (ML2).

The literature places a lot of emphasis on the psychosocial functions of mentors when working with leaders, acknowledging the level of support needed for those moving into new levels of responsibility (Siegel *et al*, 2001). However, there is also recognition of the need to balance support with careers advice (Ehrich, 2008; Fowler *et al*, 2007; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2000) as both are relevant to this role. Whilst the participants did not explicitly discuss the need to offer psychosocial support, they did recognise the need to build up the relationship in order to work effectively as a mentor.

3. Climbing up the career ladder

Mentees who participate in leadership mentoring are often at a transitional point in their career, looking to develop in areas of new responsibility (Allen *et al*, 2004). Therefore the mentor will be well placed to help them gain new and fresh insights (Lester *et al*, 2011) that will encourage them to grow in confidence as they rise to their new challenges (Shenkman, 2010). ML2 identified how a mentor might help encourage new insights:

> Conversations that create insight… Helping people have that kind of 'ah ha' moment, getting a flash of insight (ML2).

This is based on the belief that mentoring is effective in helping people map out their careers, as ML2 explains:

The purpose of the mentoring is to help them plan and manage their careers and help them find their way through a large organisation (ML2).

In the literature, career progression has been identified as a strong feature of leadership mentoring (Ehrich, 2008). Where the mentor and mentee work for the same organisation, there may even be practical help with promotion opportunities. Sponsorship was found to be one of the significant benefits for mentees and this was cited by respondents and from the literature. Sponsorship is often seen to be particularly useful when employees are given the opportunity to connect with mentors in a position of authority, especially when carried out internally within the same organisation (Ehrich, 1994). Getting to know someone senior can therefore help speed up career progression for some, as ML1 described:

Sponsorship mentoring which is very cleverly about the mentor being somebody very senior in the profession doing things on behalf of the mentee… somebody who is very protective (ML1).

ML3 coordinates a reciprocal mentoring programme which focuses on diversity and helping minorities progress with their career and this response demonstrates that sponsorship is crucial where opportunities for promotion are few and far between:

All the research says it is incredibly important if you are in a minority group, to have a sponsor (ML3).

For some mentees their career development and building up the right kind of networks that will enable them to reach their goals becomes a focal point of the mentoring. If the mentor believes that part of their role is to help sponsor the mentee (Hamlin & Sage, 2011), then as they get to know one another, it can help raise the mentee's profile within the organisation. The reciprocal mentoring model can also help provide promotion opportunities for the mentee; although this particular model also helps facilitate learning opportunities for both parties and therefore the sponsorship aspect is not the sole aim (Zachary & Fischler, 2009).

The participants did not refer to coaching as a tool available to them when mentoring. However, the literature suggests that this is something mentors might make use of when helping enhance leadership skills (Hoigaard & Mathisen, 2009). All the participants were involved in formal mentoring programmes and therefore did not provide any insights into informal approaches.

Mentors of newly qualified teachers

The participants discussed primarily how:

1. The shared desire between the mentor and mentee to work in education impacts upon the relationship and approaches used as well as the skills needed by the mentor to successfully support a trainee entering into the teaching profession;

2. They also viewed themselves as role models to the mentees, helping set an example of quality teaching based on their expertise within the profession – something which resonated with the mentors of leaders;

3. They also believed that it was important to work developmentally with the mentee, helping them reflect on their strengths and weaknesses and find strategies for improvement in areas that they were struggling in.

1. Shared interest in teaching

Like many mentors who work with leaders, mentors of NQTs are internal and usually part of the senior management team, therefore they are chosen because of their experience. MNQT1 underlines the importance of the mentor being able to offer helpful advice:

> *It will be somebody in their faculty because they can discuss very specific lesson planning or very specific syllabus type stuff (MNQT1).*

MNQT1 added that senior teachers are usually asked to take the role on as part of their responsibilities:

> *It is not necessarily the best mentor for the job; it's the best person available in that department (MNQT1).*

MNQT3 points out that the mentor's experience can be useful as it provides specialist knowledge in relation to the area of teaching the mentee is looking to go into:

> *The mentor is someone who is more experienced… and is therefore actually not only just kind of helping that person to come to recognise what the areas of weaknesses are and explore the possible solutions to development issues; but the mentor would actually be able to suggest ways of improving in a very targeted way (MNQT3).*

Whilst there is little choice in terms of the mentor and mentee being able to opt out of the arrangement, the NQTs are offered a high calibre of mentors with significant teaching and leadership experience. Mentors are well positioned to demonstrate to NQTs, through support and experience, what good teaching looks like as Delaney (2012) points out. This relates to the need for mentors to have an established track record in teaching (Hudson & Hudson, 2010; Ligadu, 2012; St George & Robinson, 2011). Parker

(2010) and Wynn *et al* (2007) go one step further and suggest the mentor and mentee should be matched based on the specific subject department or age group they specialise in. This means that observing the mentee's practice and offering feedback is a significant feature of the mentor's approach (Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005; Parker, 2010; Rikard & Banville, 2010; Wynn *et al*, 2007).

2. Being a role-model

All mentors of newly qualified teachers identified role modelling as an important part of what they do. This often requires the mentor to offer plenty of advice, as MNQT2 explains:

> *Lots of techniques for behaviour management… It's about how to differentiate between the different levels of abilities; it's about how to make the students engaged and interested (MNQT2).*

This very much echoes the teaching role itself – passing on knowledge and expertise and using real life experiences to help demonstrate effective classroom strategies. The mentors are not afraid of being directive where appropriate to help guide and steer the mentee in the right direction. MNQT3 and MNQT1 explained when they might step in, particularly as a non-directional approach can be time consuming:

> *In mentoring, if I then felt they didn't really have the knowledge or expertise or skills, I would then train them in that (MNQT3).*

> *Sometimes you just want somebody to tell you the answer so that you can move on (MNQT1).*

Given the mentor's status within the school as a senior member of staff, they will possess a certain amount of credibility and authority. MNQT1 describes how he allows his mentees to observe his own practice so that the mentee can see that he is able to model good teaching:

> *All the NQTs have seen me teach, for example, so that when I am… talking to them about good teaching and learning, they know that I am not just talking about it, I can actually do it myself as I have more credibility (MNQT1).*

Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005) Russell and Russell (2011) have also identified role-modelling as a key component of mentoring for newly qualified teachers.

3. Helping develop the mentee

A range of approaches were highlighted as important when seeking to help develop the mentee, including interpersonal skills. MNQT1 viewed the art of listening and questioning as important:

> *The root of it is good questions and good listening I think (MNQT1).*

Whilst MNQT2 phrased this as developing reflective practitioners:

> *It's to get them to reflect on their – you know it may be their lesson observations – on the progress they are making to perhaps see the bigger picture (MNQT2).*

MNQT3 showed how the mentor needs to be able to assess their mentee's progress (Akbar & Jackson, 2012) in order to help them find effective ways of moving forwards:

> *As a mentor I would probably say, I think this is what it is, this is what you need to develop (MNQT3).*

A developmental focus which is often viewed as a fundamental component of mentoring can appear to venture into territory synonymous with performance coaching, especially when the mentor is helping the mentee develop particular skill sets. Garvey (2011) explores the different emphases placed on how performance is understood in mentoring and coaching literature. He suggests that mentoring tends to view performance as a developmental process, viewed holistically and over a longer period of time whereas coaching associates performance as a faster, focused processed with managerial connotations. Mentoring for NQTs seems to encompass the holistic developmental side with at times management-led focus on performance when skill-enhancement is needed which suggests these two approaches can be interchangeable. However, given the fact that NQTs are at the start of a new profession, there is a case to be made for a greater use of the developmental approach.

The executive coach approach

Executive coaches were asked to define how they work with clients and organisations. They also all happened to have first-hand experience of mentoring and two had limited experience of sports coaching, so were well positioned to share their thoughts about how mentor and coach approaches might be similar or distinctive. The findings suggest that:

1. Executive coaches are required to balance the needs of the coachee alongside the organisational expectations, whilst maintaining confidentiality;

2. They all placed a high value on the need to build up the relationship and use this connection to help steer the coaching;

3. Possessing good interpersonal skills was therefore identified as crucial to the development of the relationship through the ability to converse at a deep level.

1. Balance individual and organisational needs

All participants recognised that alongside the needs and expectations of the coachee were the hopes and aspirations of the organisation usually paying for the coaching. This,

at times, could create tensions and make the coach's role a challenging one. EC2 described how both parties have vested interests:

> *My coaching is always within an organisational context, so you've always got an additional endeavour. So there's the personal and the profession from the client's point of view, and it's always within some kind of systemic context (EC2).*

Whilst these tensions were a very real challenge, the coaches were clear that ultimately it is the individual coachee who should be the primary focus of the coaching. EC1 explained the need for confidentiality as the coach balances individual and corporate expectations. He went on to give an example of a time when a client tested him out to see whether or not confidentiality would be maintained:

> *Occasionally, especially in organisations where there is a mistrustful atmosphere, they might give you little snippets of information to see if they come back (EC1).*

The coaches agreed therefore that maintaining confidentiality (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011) helps strike a good balance in meeting individual and organisational expectations.

2. Relational approach

The coach often has a limited amount of sessions to work with the client and therefore needs to establish rapport and trust (Boyce *et al*, 2010), in order to work towards successful outcomes. EC1 summarised why it is so important to get the relationship off to a good start:

> *What counts is how well or how quickly I can build that relationship and how that relationship can inform what I say (EC1).*

EC1 also explained how being trustworthy can lead to a more productive relationship:

> *If the person trusts you, you can start to work. And I think you develop trust first of all by displaying the behaviours that you say you will do (EC1).*

Coaches also reflected on their role within the relationship and the need to be self-aware. EC1 attributed this to his alignment with existentialism:

> *I would say that I was existentialist in my approach. And it's about thinking about how me and the client are interacting and acknowledging that I am not a blank piece of paper: I am me, I have got all these biases and attitudes and so on. It's a part of me and a lot of it is understanding how those are interacting with the client (EC1).*

EC2 explained how she regularly checks her own responses to the client throughout the session:

> *I am scanning for my thoughts, my assumptions, my patterns, my mental processes; but I am also scanning for how I am feeling, how am I responding, how are my emotions coming up. Am I feeling grounded? Is there anything going*

on within me that is telling me something about what is happening that I can't consciously be aware of (EC2)?

Establishing trust and rapport (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011; Dagley, 2010), possessing self-awareness (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011) and ensuring that the coachee is fully understood (Boyce *et al*, 2010) are all approaches that the coach can use to help build up the relationship. These attributes resonate strongly with the practitioner qualities highlighted by mentors of young people.

3. Good interpersonal skills

The executive coaches articulated the need to possess effective interpersonal skills. All the participants talked about the way in which they seek to hold back and assess the situation before offering a helpful question or constructive feedback. EC1 described how he is not afraid of silence at times, because it is so important to allow the client to take the lead on what they bring to the conversation:

> *I don't speak very much at all, especially at the early stages of the coaching programme. Um, I am really comfortable leaving very very long silences, waiting for the other person to fill them. And when I think it is right, I will ask very challenging questions (EC1).*

For EC1, any successful outcomes of the coaching relationship may hinge on just a few key questions which prove significant for the client. However, this does not negate the coaches' responsibility in taking into account a range of elements which might be affecting the coachee, either inside or outside of work. EC3 described how important it is to take a holistic approach with the client by looking at elements of their past and present in order to help them successfully negotiate their future:

> *I would set out to explore where the person is now, what their experiences are what their drivers are, what their motivation is, and by coaching, encourage them to bring about whatever change is needed (EC3).*

These interpersonal skills help contribute to the growth and development of the relationship.

The use of tools was mentioned by EC3 as something that could be used from time to time, but as a means to an end:

> *I might do that by using a diagnostic tool or I might just do it by conversation (EC3).*

EC1 explained how tools were something he used towards the beginning of his coaching career; now he no longer uses them:

> *I don't explicitly use any tools really now. I think they get in the way (EC1).*

EC3 cited conversation as much more important when it comes to working in a meaningful way:

> *The conversation is the crucible of everything, and that works a lot of the time (EC3).*

These coaches all have significant experience and it is telling that they are quite selective when using tools. De Haan *et al* (2010) cited that executive coaches will often use tools or models in their practice. However, Dagley (2010) refers to good coaches being able to facilitate deeper levels of conversation. The three coaches referred much more to the use of dialogue rather than being overly dependent upon tools.

Once the relationship has been established and dialogue has taken place that helps identify specific needs, the coaches explained that their main aim was to help bring about positive change. EC3 explained what kind of ground work needed to take place in order to prepare the client for change:

> *It always comes back to finding the underlying reasons why people are the way they are and helping them to build their confidence and building self-awareness; and then working with their desire to change (EC3).*

EC3 also highlighted the need for on-going support whilst the coachee was in the midst of change, as this for some can be frightening:

> *Change is scary and it doesn't always work first time and people need support during that time when they are practicing new behaviours and new ways of doing things (EC3).*

Change is often referred to in the literature as the crux of coaching (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011; Dagley, 2010; Grant, 2012) because the client wants to see a shift either in themselves or in a situation or team.

Whilst the necessity of the coach and coachee having a shared professional background was not discussed by all participants, EC2 suggested that having some common ground can help provide the coach with credibility:

> *When I am working with my clients today who are often running a section, or sitting on a board, I have credibility immediately because I understand and I have been there (EC2).*

Augustijnen *et al* (2011) see how having a similar background to the coachee can engender empathy. Brooks and Wright (2007) are mindful of potential drawbacks if the coach has had a managerial background as they might find it hard to resist the temptation of telling the coachee what they need to do.

The coaching psychologist's approach

Three participants were all qualified psychologists and at one time or another had decided to specialise in coaching. They all articulated how their training in particular has had an impact on their coaching approach and specifically referred to:

1. A variety of assessment tools, models, frameworks and underpinning theories associated with psychology which informed their practice;

2. Possessing a high level of self-awareness which enabled them to understand their own reactions to the coachee and draw on these whilst coaching;

3. The emphasis of the need to build up a relationship with the coachee, and in particular, explore the dynamics within the coaching relationship as a way of understanding the clients' internal and external makeup.

1. Approach underpinned by psychology theories

The first distinction that set coaching psychologists apart from other types of coaches was their training as they consistently referred to psychology models and theories which they integrated into their practice. CP2 explains how psychology is linked to coaching in this way:

> *The coaching element is about having a relationship – a structured and contracted relationship – with an individual; and the fact that it is coaching psychology is indicating that you are trying to base that on a body of knowledge and evidence about people, and tried and tested approaches (CP2).*

CP1 discussed how he might apply his psychology training, but not without express permission:

> *I am equipped therefore to go into domains that other coaches might not be because I have that psychology and psychotherapy training. But only if the individual wants to do that. It is very client-led (CP1).*

A variety of reasons were offered which explained why some coaching psychologists might want to draw on psychology. CP1 saw the ability to understand human beings as intrinsic to his coaching:

> *We have a capacity to enter a deeper sense of the person; which comes back to a central view that I want to understand the person's worldview (CP1).*

CP3 was concerned with the ability to help clients work through psychological blocks that might be affecting them in the workplace:

> *When people are trying to realise their potential in organisations, in whatever role they are doing, it is those psychological aspects that might be holding them back (CP3).*

Whilst CP3 did make use of different psychometric tests, he placed a higher value on the ability to understand the theoretical framework behind them:

> *I would like to think that the way that I use [psychometrics] as a coaching psychologist is sort of integrating them into the background of the theory behind the instruments, and I could use them at a slightly deeper level (CP3).*

CP3 also recognised how many other types of coaches make use of psychometric tests, but recommended this should not be done without training:

> *I don't have a problem with somebody who is not officially a psychologist picking up techniques, as long as they... ideally go through some kind of training programme (CP3).*

CP1 and CP3 were able to specifically name the psychotherapeutic models that they incorporated into their coaching:

> *Philosophically, from a practice point of view, I am existential (CP1).*

> *If they ask about what theories I use, I say it's a combination of Gestalt, cognitive behaviour and psychodynamic, and it's a kind of blending of those models (CP3).*

Participants considered that having a background in psychology can help give the coach credibility and from a marketing point of view, this also sends a message to purchasers that the coach will be effective in their approach. Some coaches felt that having additional knowledge about the coachee's sector provided further credibility, as CP2 describes:

> *Have the credibility that's needed to at least be knowledgeable about their culture and their role (CP2)*

The three participants all acknowledged a clear relationship between their background and training in psychology and the way in which they coach. However, these were at times used in different ways or with varying emphases.

2. Self-awareness

There was also a sense for some participants that their previous training had meant they had experienced counselling themselves and had worked through issues with increased self-awareness. CP3 explains:

> *A coaching psychologist should have had the depth of training, exposure and application of those theories to themselves as well, rather than just picking up a paperback book on a few coaching techniques and saying, well I can do that (CP3).*

The psychological background of the coaches has clearly had an impact upon their approach, particularly in terms of their own self-development which in turns helps them to support others going through similar processes.

Marsden *et al* (2010) explain how the coaching psychologist also needs to be aware of how their own presence influences the coaching; they are not disconnected from the coaching process. This view was supported by CP1 who agreed that a high awareness of self is of paramount importance when coaching:

> *You need to have a high level of self-awareness. You need to understand yourself because the only tool you are using when you are coaching is yourself (CP1).*

Whilst self-awareness is not automatically a by-product of undergoing training in psychology, it was nonetheless highlighted by the coaches as a crucial component of their understanding and approach to coaching.

3. Relational approach

In addition to training, the ability to forge and build strong working relationships is highlighted by CP2:

> *I am putting quite a bit of emphasis on the need for people skills. So there is a lot of attention to rapport building and the kind of warmth of the relationship (CP2).*

CP3 placed an importance on listening and reflecting:

> *All coaches have their unique qualities – but it is predominantly a listening and reflective style (CP3).*

Whilst CP2 sought to be flexible so that the individual needs of the client are factored in:

> *The conversation is very much tailored to their needs. But very often in response to that we will be sketching out another model, or you know, making two columns around the pros and cons (CP2).*

These sentiments are echoed by Marsden *et al* (2010) who suggest that an empathic approach can help cultivate an open relationship. The constructs within this discipline seem to touch on themes found elsewhere, but at a deeper level. For the participant coaching psychologists, a grasp of theoretical knowledge linked to any approaches used seemed to be important.

The sports coach approach

The three sports coaches interviewed work in different sports: athletics, tennis and football. They each reflected on the approaches they use when working with athletes, and how this compared with other types of coaching as well as mentoring. These coaches placed an emphasis on:

1. Goal-setting, particularly in relation to helping the athlete develop their skills in order to improve their performance;

2. They also recognised the need to relate well to the athletes, in order to effectively support them in their development;

3. The coaches also referred to technological developments which can be useful in helping them correct the athlete's technique, or help them understand ways in which they can prevent injury. This aspect seemed to be much more directive in approach than the other coaching disciplines.

1. Setting, establishing and monitoring goals

One of the defining aspects of sports coaches was the focus and drive in setting and achieving goals using instructions. The goals within sports are much more tangible than other contexts as it is predominantly about winning rather than losing, as SC1 explains:

> *You can set a goal for 8 years hence and in that moment you know that is when you will be judged as to whether or not your coaching, the process, the activity of the athlete, the decisions – you will know at that moment what has all worked (SC1).*

In order to set the right goals, SC2 described how a clear assessment needs to be made by the coach so that a plan can be put into place which encourages the athlete to improve their performance:

> *First of all there is observation – I see what people do naturally. Then there is teaching – as you show them how to do it better using what skills they have already got. Then it is developing those over a period of time (SC2).*

SC2 described how the coach's influence in directing the training does not diminish the athlete's need for a lot of motivation to better themselves in order to improve their performance:

> *All the people I have coached want to be coached and want to improve (SC2).*

SC3's own motivation for coaching others was to help equip athletes to develop their own athletic style:

> *Helping to inspire someone to be able to not replicate what you do… just give them the tools to go out and find their own way (SC3).*

And ultimately SC3's aims were to equip the athlete to learn how to coach themselves:

> *It helps them to start to almost self-coach, rather than me telling them all the time. It is kind of that guided discovery approach and it works for me (SC3).*

The emphasis placed on goals and motivation reflect how sports coaches primarily focus on helping athletes improve their performance, which is a recurring theme within the literature (Meyers, 2006; Nash *et al*, 2008; Reade *et al*, 2008; Rieke *et al*, 2008; Whitmore, 2005), as this ultimately will enable to them win (Reade et al, 2008; Rieke *et al*, 2008).

2. Relational approach also key

Whilst there are many practical elements to the coach's approach, it was noted how a coach might learn more about the athlete's personal life, particularly when working with them over a longer period of time. Where the coach has built up a good relationship with the athlete, they may also be able to support them in other areas of their life, as SC1 explains:

> *You have two functions… One is that you develop them for sport. But two, you develop them through sport for a better life (SC1).*

SC1 also felt that good coaching involves taking some risks in order to push the athlete outside of their comfort zone and this is more likely to be achieved when trust has been established:

> *You have got to take responsible risks in your decision-making to turn opportunities to your advantage (SC1).*

SC3 described how the relational aspect can also be reciprocal for the coach:

> *I do like the personal relationship and I think it works for me, because you know, I don't believe in it just being about the player: it has to be about the coach as well… The more I am enjoying it, the better the success is and the better the relationship is (SC3).*

Trzaskoma-Bicserdy *et al* (2007) also recognise the importance of sports coaches investing in their relationship with athletes, as this inevitably will help increase the success of the coaching process. The participants supported this view and advocated for a holistic approach that appreciates the athlete as a whole person and seeks to get to know them well; rather than focusing solely on their athletic skills and performance.

3. The coach understands and draws on technical knowledge

The sports coaches unanimously acknowledged that as part of their responsibility, they have to ensure that a variety of needs in the athlete are addressed. At times the focus might be increasing the athlete's knowledge about the sport and SC2 explained how this needs to be passed on so that athletes and additional team and coach members benefit:

> *The more you know, the more you can impart. And you have got to be open and willing to share it: with your players and your coaches (SC2).*

SC1 and SC3 recognised the advancement of modern technologies, requiring the coach to keep abreast of the latest developments that could enhance an athlete's performance:

> *You have got to know the technical components of what it is you are trying to teach or coach a person to do (SC1).*

> *I do look at coaching technically. I very much look at the efficiency of everything – everything you do. Why are you doing this? Is it necessary? (SC3).*

SC1 and SC2 both saw their role as an overseer, making sure that all the right things were in place that would help the athlete develop in their area of sport:

> *In the interest of developing an individual, in understanding the complexity of who they are and the range of competencies and the range of things that have to be developed to make that person the best that they can become, then you end up being like a conductor of an orchestra (SC1).*

> *I coach players who want to play. I also do some of their fitness; I also look after their wellbeing as far as the sports massage is concerned, their rehab and also their sports injury prevention. So it is quite a lot of things that I do (SC2).*

SC3 also hinted at having many different roles requiring him to take a holistic approach:

> *With my goal-keeping coaching you have to understand the role of the player in that position. And for me, to look at the technical, tactical, psychological, biomechanical and social side of the development of the individual and within a team (SC3).*

The sports coaches recognised the need to recruit other experts where additional specialist help was needed as SC1 described:

> *Any responsible person would be understanding that they can't know everything therefore they have to bring in other people (SC1).*

Rodgers *et al* (2007) reflect this aspect of sports coaching where a wide range of techniques and expertise is used with athletes. This requires sports coaches, as the data indicates, to ensure that they have up-to-date knowledge, especially when coaching professional sportsmen and women. Meyers (2006) explains how expert knowledge of biomechanical analysis programmes and tools means that the coach is able to pass on precise performance-related information to the athlete. This enables them to support the athlete identify new ways of refining their technique, or understand how to prevent or manage injuries.

Summary of discipline-specific approaches

Findings already suggest that the boundary demarcations between disciplines are blurred, as some themes are emerging which are apparent in several disciplines. In addition, some aspects of the participants' approach are tailor-made to the needs of the client, therefore requiring either specialist knowledge or particular approaches. Table 4.1 summarises the key themes found within each discipline, providing an overview of how participants approach their work:

Mentors of Young People	• Understand the needs of young people • Normally adopt a non-directive approach • Do not usually need to have any specialist knowledge • Understand safeguarding, child protection and boundary-setting • Normally work with the mentee long-term
Mentors of Leaders	• Understand the needs of leaders and senior managers • Normally adopt a directive approach when focusing on skills • Require specialist sector and leadership knowledge • Understand organisational culture • Normally work with the mentee long-term
Mentors of Newly Qualified Teachers	• Understand the needs of teachers • Normally adopt a directive approach • Require specialist teaching knowledge • Understand school culture • Normally work with the mentee long-term
Executive Coaches	• Understand the needs of executives • Normally adopt a non-directive approach • Do not normally require specialist knowledge about coachees' skill-set • Understand aspects of organisational culture • Normally work with coachee short-term
Coaching Psychologists	• Understand the internal needs of humans • Normally adopt a non-directive approach • Require training in psychology • Normally understand aspects of organisational culture • Normally work with coachee short-term
Sports Coaches	• Understand the physical needs of humans • Normally adopt an instructional approach • Require training in sports coaching • Understand technicalities of sport • Normally work with coachee long-term

Table 4.1: Summary of emerging themes from six disciplines

Table 4.1 highlights aspects of a mentor and coach role that is specifically geared towards the setting in which the intervention is taking place, including some elements which appear to overlap. As only three participants were interviewed from each discipline, factors will be missing or there may be elements which would not apply in certain contexts. However, it does highlight where specialist knowledge is needed and aspects of the role that are common in other disciplines. Areas of overlap will be explored further by comparing the data from all three mentoring disciplines, followed by a discussion about findings from the three coaching disciplines.

Section 2 – Interdisciplinary Approaches

Having considered emerging themes of mentor and coach approaches within individual disciplines, this section will compare approaches across disciplines to see where a common group might exist. First, consideration will be given to the three mentoring disciplines. This is followed by an exploration of how coach approaches are similar or different when comparing the coaching disciplines.

Mentoring: Interdisciplinary approaches

Table 4.2 illustrates the main themes that were found when the data was analysed. The table highlights aspects where interdisciplinary approaches or philosophies were found as well as elements that seemed to be discipline-specific. The themes identified are by no means exhaustive, and not a full representation of the disciplines given the limitations of the data collected. However, it does suggest that a detailed mapping of the mentor-coach landscape can be better understood when practitioners are given the opportunity to reflect on approaches used given the area they are working in.

The elements common to all disciplines represent a pastoral approach, where mentors demonstrate active listening skills (CIPD Coaching and Mentoring factsheet, 2010), take a holistic view of the mentee (Cox 2003; Garvey, 2004) and provide them with psychosocial support. This shows that despite the different outcomes that each setting is working towards, the nature of mentoring requires mentees to identify aspects of their life that are impacting on their day-to-day activities, whether that be in school or at work. Therefore, the mentor is in a privileged position to be able to listen carefully to anything that the mentee might want to discuss. It would be difficult to predict what influences or challenges might be getting in the way of an individual's development; therefore the mentor has to be willing and able to relate well to the mentee in order to identify areas that they would like to work on.

Many values or beliefs shared by mentors of leaders and NQTs can be attributed to the similarities in context as they are both adult- and work-focused, compared with mentors of young people whose scope would be potentially broader. These included concentrating their approaches on developing skills in the mentee that will lead to their career development (Aladejana *et al*, 2006; Ehrich, 2008); helping address issues such as organisational culture or politics (Metros & Yang, 2006), as well as helping identify the mentees own strengths and weaknesses (Akbar & Jackson, 2012). Some mentors were also well-positioned to offer observations and feedback to the mentee (Booth, 1996;

Delaney, 2012), in order to help them identify elements that they might need to work on.

Different philosophical beliefs about the needs of the mentees were discussed by the mentors, which within the disciplines of mentoring for young people and NQTs, suggested a deficit model was being applied; whereas mentoring for leaders seemed to suggest a developmental approach was more apparent. Some of the mentors of young people referred to mentees needing help with life skills, based on a belief that something was missing. Therefore, these mentors paid a lot of attention to particular life events that the mentees were facing that had affected their behaviour in school – usually aggressive or withdrawn – and tended to take an empathic approach as a result. They all agreed that being non-directive was much more productive then trying to tell the young people how they might change their life. However, the mentors often ended up focusing on the mentee's self-esteem, lack of confidence and social skills, but sought to address these by encouraging them to come up with their own solutions.

For mentors of NQTs, the deficit model (Harrison, Lawson & Wortley, 2005) was much more explicit. This is because NQTs have no choice but to be mentored as part of their training and are expected to learn about their role with their mentor using classroom experiences. This directive approach reflects how the mentor sees their role and also how the mentee engages in the mentoring process. At times, the mentors seemed to integrate performance aspects into their developmental approach. However, the overriding aim was to help the NQTs start out well on their journey into teaching; therefore developmental aspects were more prevalent.

The mentors of leaders viewed their role differently and articulated their approach as developmental, both for the individual and also for the organisation. This reflects a clear purpose that mentors had in helping leaders pursue their professional aspirations (Allen *et al*, 2004; Ehrich, 2008; Fowler *et al*, 2007; Hoigaard & Mathisen, 2009; Scandura *et al*, 1996; Siegel *et al*, 2001; Whitney Gibson *et al*, 2009). Table 4.2 illustrates the main emerging themes that were found when the data was analysed:

Table 4.2 Summary of emerging themes: mentor interdisciplinary approaches

	Mentors of young people	Mentors of leaders	Mentors of newly qualified teachers
Philosophy	**Build relationship and offer psychosocial support in order to develop mentee transitioning into adulthood or new role**		
	Relate well to young people	*Relate well to adults*	
	Underpinned by a deficit model	Underpinned by a developmental model	*Underpinned by a deficit model*
	The relationship is important	*The background of the mentor is important*	
	Usually external to the organisation	Usually internal to the organisation	Always internal to the organisation
Practice	**Interpersonal skills needed: warmth; empathy; active listening; reflective conversation; confidentiality; holistic**		
	Non-directional and flexible	*Directional, career-focused, offering advice and instruction*	
	Help build self-esteem and confidence	*Use observation and feedback to help develop the mentee*	
	Follow child protection and safeguarding policies, and set boundaries with the mentee	*Treat the mentee as autonomous, with some professional boundaries in place*	
	May act as an advocate	May act as a sponsor	May act as a role-model

Bold denotes an element of mentoring evident in all three disciplines

Italics denotes elements of mentoring evident in two disciplines

Coaching: Interdisciplinary approaches

An analysis was made of themes which emerged from the three coaching disciplines. Comparisons were made in order to identify aspects where coach approaches could be understood as interdisciplinary, where similar themes were found in two or three disciplines. Any themes found across all three disciplines might tentatively suggest how coaches approach their role regardless of the specialist area they are working in. These themes are summarised in table 4.3, which also highlights any discipline-specific aspect.

Findings suggest that coaches need to be able to show they can relate and connect with others through the use of interpersonal skills, regardless of the coaching discipline. In so doing, the joint purpose appeared to focus around helping coachees become more confident in their professional role or sporting abilities and increase their performance. Other overlaps identified from the data suggested some approaches were present in at least two disciplines. These included: the use of assessment or diagnostic tools by coaching psychologists and sports coaches; a non-directive approach by executive coaches and coaching psychologists compared with a much more instructive approach by sports coaches; a greater need for setting boundaries and maintaining confidentially was adopted by executive coaches and coaching psychologists compared with sports coaches who had a greater need to share information with other practitioners.

The use of good interpersonal skills including listening, asking intelligent questions and working holistically were consistently referred to in each discipline. Most coaches also regarded their approach to be holistic, encompassing wider needs of the coachee beyond the contracted task or focus of work. The ability to build trust and rapport was therefore important, although this seemed to be discussed more by the executive coaches and coaching psychologists. The sports coaches tended to develop the relationship when working longer-term or with recreational athletes rather than elite professionals who were more concerned with improving their performance. These sentiments are echoed by Rogers (2004) who highlights the need for coaches to demonstrate acceptance of their coachees through the use of listening skills. However, the data suggests that listening is evident in coaching, but to varying degrees. Rogers (2004) suggests that listening conveys to the coachee that they are truly valued and therefore an important element of coaching. For sports coaches, it would appear that there could be a greater amount of consistency in this area, whether they are operating in a voluntary, part-time or full-time capacity.

All coaches were involved in helping the mentee improve their performance in one form or another. For executives, the coaches were looking to enhance their management and leadership skills (Whitney Gibson, 2000). The coaching psychologists were focused on identifying blocks that were impacting upon the coachee's professional role, and helping them find ways of overcoming these (Lopez Moore, 2012). The sports coaches saw their primary purpose as helping coachees improve their athletic abilities so that they might increase their chances of winning (Reade *et al*, 2008). However, the ways in which the coaches went about helping the coachee improve aspects of their ability varied.

Coaching psychologists and sports coaches particularly overlapped where they drew on models related to psychology. Coaches from both disciplines made explicit use of assessing needs and then identifying and working towards improved performance. Coaching psychologists also discussed how they apply different psychological theories such as cognitive behavioural coaching. Coaching psychologists and sports coaches believed that in order to use tools or tests effectively, they should have a good understanding of how and why these might be useful (McDowell & Smewing, 2009; Meyers, 2006). The coaching psychologists referred more to psychometric testing whereas the sports coaches were reliant at times upon other physiological tests that can help assess the coachee's performance. In both cases, they were used to help give the coach more insight and were seen as valuable approaches to adopt.

Executive coaches and coaching psychologists preferred to be non-directive in approach whereas sports coaches offered much more direction due to their instructional role. This suggests that executive coaches and coaching psychologists try to refrain from influencing the nature of the discussions. Sports coaches however have a slightly different purpose: to equip and train athletes to perform to the best of their abilities. An entirely non-directive approach would not help achieve this aim, as highlighted by Hoigaard *et al* (2008) and Reade *et al* (2008) who identify the teaching and instructional functions that sports coaches use.

Executive coaches and coaching psychologists also referred to the need to keep the contents of their discussions confidential to ensure that the coachee felt safe and able to share information, knowing it would not be passed on. This contrasted with sports coaches who saw their remit as overseeing a range of support mechanisms for the athlete. Therefore, it is vital to share information with other professionals and discuss the specific needs of the athlete, ensuring that all involved can effectively input into the

athletes' overall performance and development. Whilst no references were found relating to confidentiality in the sports coaching literature, Augustijnen *et al* (2011) highlight the need for executive coaches to maintain confidentiality.

Table 4.3 below outlines the interdisciplinary approaches discussed, and reflects contrasting elements where more specific themes were found that can be attributed to the specific discipline:

Table 4.3 Summary of emerging themes: coach interdisciplinary approaches:

	Executive coaches	Coaching psychologists	Sports coaches
Philosophy	**Need to relate well to others**		
	Help improve the performance of the coachee		
	Balance individual and organisational needs		Athlete-focused
	Underpinned by some therapeutic frameworks	Underpinned by therapeutic frameworks	Underpinned by psychological and physiological frameworks
Practice	**Interpersonal skills needed: active listening; challenging questions; silence; reflective conversation; holistic**		
	Assess internal and external blocks to identify areas to work on	*Use assessment/diagnostic tools to identify areas to work on*	
	Use a conversational approach to bring about change	Use conversation drawing on psychotherapeutic framework to bring about change	Use observation, assessment and technological tools to set and monitor goals
	Non-directive: support the coachee to find their own solutions		Directive: set strategies to increase performance and enable athlete to win
	Maintain confidentiality		Share information with others able to help increase the athletes' performance

Bold denotes an element of coaching evident in all three disciplines

Italics denotes elements of coaching evident in two disciplines

Findings suggest that all the mentors placed an emphasis on developing the individual compared with the coaches who were more focussed on helping improve performance. This has a direct impact upon approach, as the mentors tended to be more relationally minded and used this as a starting point to help identify areas for them to explore together; whereas the coaches were more concerned with helping the coachee reach their full potential – either in a professional sense or helping an athlete to perform better in their particular sport.

ML1 suggested that the range of areas tackled through mentoring or coaching can be linked to the timescales that mentors and coaches normally work towards:

> *Coaching… tends to be quite short-term… time-bound… focused on a specific issue… Whereas a mentor would tend to be… a longer-term relationship, focusing on the broader developments, a more holistic development of the individual and particularly their career (ML1).*

This point is reiterated by SC3 who sees how time constraints sometimes prevent the kind of depth of relationship that mentors can create with their mentees:

> *You don't have that time to develop those relationships so it does become more about the coaching rather than the mentoring (SC3).*

SC3 added that the coach needs to want the relationship to develop in a way that supports the athlete beyond their sporting skills:

> *I have worked with a number of coaches who fundamentally are just sports coaches… they deliver the session, achieve an outcome and that's it. They are not interested in terms of the relationship side (SC3).*

SC1 described how the facilitation of learning is subtly different in the way mentors and coaches approach their role:

> *As the coach is to shaping experience for learning, so the mentor shapes learning from experience (SC1).*

SC3 identified how mentors and coaches get different things out of their work:

> *The mentoring is more intrinsically satisfying, whereas the sports coaching might be more extrinsic (SC3).*

This last point is helpful in summarising how the mentor often engages with the mentee over a longer timeframe (Booth, 1996; Philip, 2008), encompassing a breadth of needs which in turn can lead to more intrinsic developmental work. This contrasts with the short-term, specific focus of the coach which leads to extrinsic performance-based work. Rogers (2004) suggests that six or eight sessions is a timeframe that many coaches work towards; although this can be negotiated. Many of the mentoring programmes featured in this study usually ran for a year.

Summary

This chapter has analysed the data and identified emerging themes which help to further understand the nature of mentor and coach approaches, by focusing on six disciplines. This offers a practitioner perspective on how mentors and coaches approach their work, by finding out what it is they are trying to achieve and how they might go about doing this in practice. Given the varying needs of mentees and coachees coupled with the different specialist titles applied to roles, initial findings suggest that mentors and coaches approach aspects of their role in a discipline-specific way. For example, mentors of young people understand elements of adolescent development in order to fully appreciate the needs of their mentees. Sports coaches have significant knowledge in the particular sport they are coaching in.

In addition, significant overlaps were found across the three mentoring disciplines and three coaching disciplines, which could be described as interdisciplinary approaches. However, the combination of overlaps varied when different factors were taken into consideration. For example, when looking at organisational issues, common elements could be found amongst mentors of leaders and NQTs and between executive coaches and coaching psychologists. Other shared approaches were found when different discipline combinations were analysed. This confirms the complexity in defining mentor and coach approaches, given the multitude of specialist disciplines that can be attributed to the field of mentoring and coaching.

Whilst some common features were found amongst all six coaching and mentoring disciplines - possessing a high level of interpersonal skills with the ability to relate well to others – these would be easily identifiable in other helping professions. One differentiation identified from the data suggested a slightly different purpose between mentors and coaches: mentors focused on developing the mentees as they transition into adulthood or embark on new roles (see table 4.2); whereas coaches tended to focus on increasing the coachees' performance (see table 4.3). The difficulty in tentatively identifying clear differences is that it is not known how much these elements might be challenged had other disciplines been factored in. What the data has shown is that greater understanding is needed between the relationship of discipline-associated demands or expectations, and how these have a bearing on practice. Chapter five will develop these discussions further by considering what a mentor-coach interdisciplinary approach might look like. Consideration will be given to mentor and coach approaches

which can be applied across a range of disciplines, encouraging practitioners to transfer their skills where appropriate.

Chapter 5: Mentor-coach interdisciplinary approaches

In chapter four, the data was analysed firstly within disciplines; then emerging themes were considered which highlighted overlaps between mentoring areas, followed by commonalities found amongst coaching practitioners. This chapter builds on these discussions by examining potential overlaps found between mentor and coach disciplines. It has already been suggested interdisciplinary practice can be found amongst mentors and coaches. Consideration will now be given to mentor-coach interdisciplinary approaches, where similar philosophies and practices can be found. Specifically, the following comparison points will be used based on emerging themes that have been highlighted in chapter four:

1. Mentor and coach approaches with leaders and executives
2. Deficit versus developmental philosophical framework
3. Applying directive and non-directive approaches

Participants were also asked about the possibility of mentors and coaches reapplying their approaches to other disciplines; therefore, consideration will be given to the potential for an interdisciplinary framework which allows for the transferability of skills where appropriate. This will focus on individual practitioner capacities in developing their own approaches whilst maintaining an ability to meet the needs of their clients.

Mentor-coach overlaps in approach

Whilst some distinctive elements were found (see table 4.1), participants also acknowledged areas of commonality regardless of the discipline or type of work. Some participants felt that the overall purpose was the same even where mentor and coach approaches might differ, as two coaches pointed out:

A mentor or a coach could theoretically be looking to get to the same outcomes (EC1).

Coaches and mentors are in a one-to-one professional area which is helping other people based on a philosophy of the individual can grow themselves if you can work with them correctly (CP1).

One mentor (ML2) also identified similarities in terms of approach and purpose:

Mentoring and coaching both provide… learning and growth; cater to individual needs… process real life issues and problems and decisions; they both facilitate access to information and choices of actions and they both support the achievement of positive outcomes (ML2).

Change was also regarded as something which links mentors and coaches, as SC1 highlights:

What they are trying to do is create effective change in people (SC1).

SC3 recognised how the practitioners' ability to offer the mentee or coachee a relationship which intentionally seeks to focus on the positives could also unite the way in which mentors and coaches approach their role:

You have to have a positive relationship, both in coaching and mentoring (SC3).

These views were put forward by participants who had first-hand experience of being a mentor and coach. It is interesting to see how many of the beliefs about what can be achieved are shared by some mentors and coaches. Clutterbuck (2008) discusses areas in which mentoring and coaching overlap, including how both look to work with the mentee or coachee's chosen goals in order to bring about change.

The main element which was similar, regardless of role or context, was the need for mentors and coaches to be able to relate and connect well to other human beings. CP2 described the importance in connecting well with the mentee or coachee:

A lot of it is about the relationship and the rapport, it is about the combination of having an organised, well thought through approach; so a good rational approach. And a lot of intuition and empathy and people awareness… That would be common whether you are mentoring… or you are coaching (CP2).

SC3 added effective communication skills as common attributes of mentors and coaches:

The communication skills that you use are very important, whether it is verbal or non-verbal forms, both are very important in coaching and mentoring (SC3).

EC3, CP3 and EC1 all recognised specific skill sets that might be common amongst mentors and coaches which aid communication and help establish positive working relationships:

There is a lot that is similar, because the skills are the same, aren't they? The questioning and the listening and the probing and the tools that you might use, they are all similar (EC3).

The skill sets that the mentor uses, like the questioning, the listening, the reflecting and maybe reference to some psychological models as well – may well be part of the skill-set of an effective mentor (CP3).

The best mentors would be very good at listening and hearing what the person has to say (EC1).

Questioning and listening were particularly referred to as key skills that mentors and coaches regularly use. In addition to the broader overlaps outlined above, some more specific areas of shared approaches emerged, including:

1. Approaches amongst mentors of leaders and executive coaches;
2. A deficit versus facilitative philosophical perspective;
3. Applying directive and non-directive approaches.

Each of these areas will now be considered in more detail.

1. Mentor and coach approaches with leaders and executives

Literature associated with mentoring leaders and executives coaches was examined alongside the responses given by practitioners working in both disciplines to see if any shared approaches could be detected or indeed if any specialist elements could be identified from these two roles. Analysis suggests that mentors and coaches for leaders are versed in psychosocial and career functions and make similar uses of previous experiences, albeit in different ways. Examples of mentors working internally and externally with leaders were found whereas coaches were more likely to work externally. Mentoring can be informal and formal, whereas executive coaching is mostly arranged on a formal basis.

In order to provide a supporting role, mentors and coaches need to possess certain attributes and skills which help build trust and rapport in order for the mentee or coachee to open up. Whitney Gibson *et al* (2000) describe how mentors often use counselling skills and De Haan et al (2011) and Dagley (2010) cite the importance of coaches being empathic, authentic and encouraging. These sentiments were reflected by participant responses; ML1 summed up the need for mentors and coaches to demonstrate a caring attitude towards their clients:

> *The level of pastoral care that a mentor might exhibit, or might be core to the development of the mentor; you can't really be an effective coach if you don't feel some of that pastoral instinct (ML1).*

When the mentee or coachee opens up, the practitioner can then intervene in a way that offers insight which in turn encourages change. For mentors, this involves helping mentees reflect on leadership emotions that have resulted from previous experiences, in order to better understand their strengths and weaknesses (Shenkman, 2010). Similarly, coaches might use their listening skills to feedback to coachees any perceived connections from previous discussions that might help identify obstacles (Baron& Morin, 2010). These interpersonal skills are used by mentors and coaches to inevitably work towards change, as EC3 explains:

> *Finding the underlying reasons why people are the way they are, and helping them to build their confidence and building self-awareness; and then working with their desire to change (EC3).*

The status of the mentor and coach were also comparable. For mentors operating internally within organisations, their level of authority helped provide them with credibility (Lester *et al*, 2011). ML1 described how the background of the mentor is crucial:

> *The mentor typically comes from within the same profession or has a point of connection where they have professional insight into areas that you want to go in (ML1).*

Whilst executive coaches often claim that their coaching skills mean they can work with anyone in any setting (Boyce *et al*, 2010), their background and previous skills cannot go unnoticed. Any previous business knowledge that might help build a connection between them and the client can often lead to a more open relationship, encouraging the coachee to disclose more information (Augustinjnen *et al*, 2011). EC1 reflected on his previous professional experiences and described how he tends to mostly coach in settings that are known to him:

> *It's my world, and I fit in. So you know, I am here in my suit and tie and cufflinks, I fit in that world, mostly (EC1).*

Previous professional experiences are also discussed in the literature in relation to mentors adopting coach approaches from time to time(Allen *et al*, 2004). Specifically, it might be appropriate to use a consultative approach when giving the mentee feedback and this is sometimes regarded as a coaching technique (Booth, 1996). This view is somewhat contested by Dagley (2010), who advises coaches to refrain from using expert or consultative approaches particularly when coaches come from a managerial or consultant background and might be tempted to slip into these roles.

Arrangements made about the nature of mentoring and coaching for leaders and executives vary, which in turn impacts on the emphasis of approach. In general terms, mentors seem to operate both internally (Conway, 1995) and externally to organisations (Lester *et al*, 2011) whereas executive coaches typically work externally (Stokes & Jolly, 2010). Mentoring can also take place informally or formally (Ehrich, 1994), whereas executive coaching is mostly arranged on a formal basis (Walker-Fraser, 2011). Whilst the sample size for this study was small, it did reflect the picture painted in the literature. Of the three mentors of leaders, two worked with organisations in an external capacity to mobilise and train internal employees to act as mentors to colleagues; the

other mentored leaders in a range of organisations. All mentors worked on a formal basis. The three executive coaches all operated externally using formal contracts.

When contrasting the work of mentors and coaches with leaders or executives, the key overlaps reflect the similar needs presented by clients. However, the ways in which the relationships are arranged leads to aspects of their approaches which at times have slightly different emphases. For example, an internal mentor will have greater knowledge of organisational politics and will therefore be able to help the mentee navigate through this and help them find ways of progressing up the career ladder, if the mentee wants to remain committed to that organisation. An external executive coach will have less understanding of some of the internal workings of the organisation and therefore can help offer some distance when exploring with the coachee their career options. The approaches therefore may be very similar; but the sector in which the practitioner is operating in will have a bearing on the conversations that take place.

2. Deficit versus developmental philosophical framework

Practitioners will consciously or unconsciously refer to a set of values, attitudes and beliefs which underpin their work and it is important that mentors and coaches are aware of these as they will inevitably have an impact on any approaches used. The European Mentoring and Coaching Council set out a competency framework in 2009. The first category of competencies listed relates to practitioner values and highlights the need for practitioners to:

> *Demonstrate awareness of their own values, beliefs and behaviours, recognise how these affect their practice and uses this self-awareness to manage their effectiveness in meeting the client's, and where relevant, the sponsor's objectives (www.emccaccreditation.org).*

This recognises the importance of underlying frameworks and beliefs about the purpose of the role. Some responses offered by participants provided insights into their belief-systems: some mentors and coaches believed that their role was to help the mentee or coachee gain something from the mentor or coaches' knowledge or experiences, which could be described as a deficit model (Philip, 2008). Garvey, Stokes and Megginson (2009:128) describe this as a 'compliance mind-set' where the mentee or coachee is expected to work towards a pre-determined set of goals. This contrasted with other practitioners who believed that the mentee or coachee might better respond to an approach that was much more mutual (Garvey, Stokes & Megginson, 2009); benefitting

from the practitioner being skilled in helping them find effective ways of developing themselves further.

Figure 5.1 below illustrates how some mentor and coach disciplines were based on a deficit framework, compared with others that were more developmental:

Deficit model	Developmental model
Mentors of young people	Mentors of leaders
Mentors of NQTs	Executive coaches
Sports coaches	Coaching psychologists
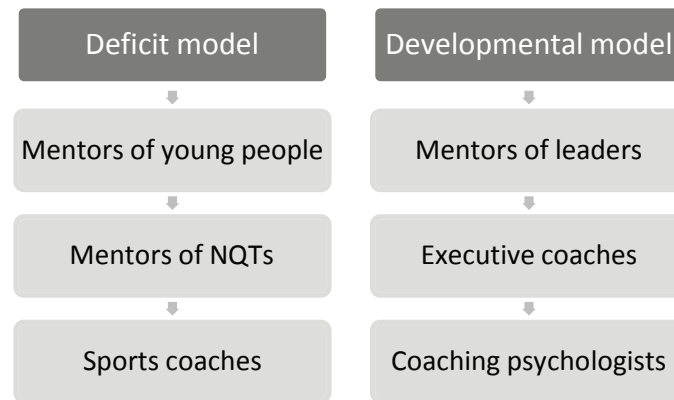
Figure 5.1: Deficit versus developmental model

The deficit model stemmed from the belief that the mentee or coachee needed direct help and guidance in areas that they wanted to improve in, whether that was life skills for young people (Philip, 2008), professional skills for NQTs (Hudson & Hudson, 2010) or sporting skills for athletes (Cushion *et al*, 2007).

One mentor of young people, MYP2, explained where the source of referrals came from:

> *They come from a variety of backgrounds, quite sort of chaotic families, sometimes quite vulnerable kids with difficulty containing emotional states and things like anger management (MYP2).*

This highlights how young people with challenging needs are often the focal point of mentoring schemes and that a mentor might offer a level of support that could combat some of these unhealthy circumstances or behaviour patterns.

Within the teaching profession, mentors are looking to help increase their mentee's capacity to teach. They will therefore focus their energies and resources into helping the NQT develop their teaching skills:

> *The mentor um is someone who is more experienced… and is therefore actually not only just kind of helping that person to come to recognise what the areas of weaknesses are and explore the possible solutions to development issues; but the mentor would actually be able to suggest ways of improving in a very targeted way (MNQT3).*

Sports coaching stood out from the other coaching disciplines with a reliance on the practitioner offering direct help to the athlete in order for them to improve their ability, as SC2 described:

> *Coaching is more to do with repetition, feedback and working with a player seeing where it is going right, where it is going wrong. How to develop fitness, how to develop the skills (SC2).*

This contrasted with mentors of leaders, executive coaches and coaching psychologists whose frame of reference tended to be more developmental; particularly in settings where the mentee or coachee already had a good deal of life and professional experiences to draw on. Mentors of leaders tend to encounter discussions relating to the mentee's career, or issues within their organisation (Booth, 1996; Conway, 1995). ML3 described how this differs to coach approaches which are more concerned with offering expert advice:

> *They are not going to be able to really coach them specifically on the performance aspect of their job because that is not their area of expertise. But they are able to… help her navigate her way through the politics, help her think about how she positions herself in her function and become more visible (ML3).*

CP3 also outlined how coaching psychologists work in a similar way:

> *I am not there as an expert in that person or what they should be doing, or the content of their job. I am there to help them realise what capabilities they have got themselves and how they can discover those, look at those differently, and find resources within themselves (CP3).*

These different frames of reference highlight how mentors and coaches can have contrasting perspectives about the nature and purpose of their role.

3. Applying directive and non-directive approaches

Another way of comparing how some mentors and coaches differ from other practitioners is by exploring the use of directive and non-directive approaches. Figure 5.2 below shows how the disciplines are reconfigured when you compare how directive or non-directive some coaches and mentors are:

Figure 5.2: Directive versus non-directive approach

The directive or non-directive approaches are partly linked to the needs of the mentees and coachees; whether or not they are looking for instruction or facilitation in order for them to increase their learning. Mentor approaches with leaders did vary and some were more directional than others. However, there was a sense that the mentor had a significant amount of leadership experience which meant they could help offer advice and insights by explicitly referring to their own expertise, as ML1 outlines:

> *The mentor typically comes from within the same profession or… they have professional insight into areas that you want to go in (ML1).*

Similarly, MNQT3 explained how a main aspect of mentoring an NQT is to impart and draw on knowledge based on professional experiences about how to teach successfully:

> *They are dependent upon you for the expertise or the knowledge of the experience (MNQT3).*

Likewise, sports coaches also need to be directive as they instruct athletes to work hard at improving their sporting abilities. MYP2 offered his thoughts about different approaches a sports coach might adopt:

> *My sort of feeling about coaches is that they have probably got a lot of detailed and practical knowledge about their subject… Coaching to me feels like teaching (MYP2).*

This contrasts with a non-directive approach more evident in mentors of young people, executive coaches and coaching psychologists. MYP3 describes what a non-directive approach might look like:

> *Mentoring to me is more like, I walk alongside the young person so that they can get themselves to where they want to go (MYP3).*

Similarly, executive coaches refrain from being directive, as EC2 illustrates:

> *When I am talking in a coaching hat, it is always about facilitating the clients inner resources I believe they have and the starting point for mentoring with me*

> *is I'm there because I've been there and done it and I've got some t-shirts and I can offer advice and it could be direct guidance (EC2),*

EC3 explains that this is because the coach is working from the premise that the client should be discovering their own solutions:

> *It is the giving advice thing you know stepping back rather than a coach working with the persons' existing knowledge and experience and helping them come to their own conclusions and find their own answers (EC3).*

Coaching psychologists take a similar approach, seeing their role as facilitative rather than advice-giving:

> *Mentoring is for me based around an expert, wiser, older model… somebody who has understanding and experience in that particular domain and they bring that more to the forefront. So they are more likely to be active in making suggestions, giving opinions, offering advice. Whereas coaches are not likely to start from that point (CP1).*

Ellinger *et al* (2008) suggest that coaches should avoid using directive approaches. The findings demonstrate that more mentoring contexts rely on a directive approach whilst the majority of coaches tend to be non-directive. However, the findings from mentors of young people and sports coaches showed that the divide on being directive or non-directive is not simply made between mentors and coaches. Mentors of young people avoided being directive and demonstrated approaches more in line with executive coaches and coaching psychologists. The sports coaches also appeared to be directive, and had more in common with mentors of leaders and NQTs when it came to passing on context-specific knowledge and expertise.

An interdisciplinary framework: transferability of mentor-coach approaches

Given that aspects of the mentor and coach approaches used can be similar, participants were asked about the potential transferability of approaches between different disciplines. Some coaches and mentors agreed that practitioners could and should use mentoring and coaching approaches interchangeably where appropriate. If the mentor or coach was skilled enough to offer both roles at different times, this would give them a greater amount of flexibility where they could potentially work across a range of disciplines. However, acknowledgement was also given to potential obstacles, difficulties or limitations that might prevent practitioners from working outside of their discipline.

A range of themes was touched upon by participants, reflecting ways in which mentors dip into coaching, and coaches make use of mentoring approaches from time to time. The place of practitioner self-disclosure was highlighted by EC3, who said that as a coach, she would in certain situations find it helpful to share her own personal experiences something she considered to be more akin to mentoring:

> *If they see that it is appropriate to use an approach which is more like mentoring, or sharing of experiences, then a good coach will do that appropriately (EC3).*

CP2 oversees a maternity coaching programme where the coaches are all mothers; so this common shared experience can provide a useful starting point in the coaching, where it is appropriate for coaches to refer to their previous experiences of going on maternity leave and then returning back to work:

> *There is a strong element of mentoring in maternity coaching, because you are supporting people through a transition. The coaches have all – they are all mothers because that is great for the credibility. So there is an element of knowing where the other person is going to; there is a certain element of having to make sure we are not making assumptions and trying to create that person in our own image, which I think is a danger in mentoring (CP2).*

As well as coaches adopting mentor approaches, there were times when mentors cited coaching techniques as helpful. ML1 explained how mentors might move into coaching when a mentee wants to change aspects of their behaviour:

> *As a mentor, if somebody has a particular behaviour or performance issue… inevitably the mentor shades a little into coaching, in terms of helping them to consider how they plan the change in their behaviour (ML1).*

One way in which practitioners can develop their skills further is to have an understanding of how mentor and coach approaches might differ, but to use them in an integrated and informed way. This then broadens the scope of the mentor-coach and allows them to operate at a level which meets a diverse range of needs. ML3 described how practitioners might flit between mentor and coach approaches within the same session, because the client's needs are driving a best-fit approach:

> *You can become too purist… in mentoring you do this and in coaching you do that. When they are in a room and they are having a one-to-one discussion with somebody, they are not thinking that, oh I am straying into coaching or am I, you know, so they will just go where the need is (ML3).*

MNQT3 saw the value in practitioners being fully trained as both mentors and coaches, and then using them interchangeably in sessions so that the most appropriate intervention could be matched to client need:

> *I guess the conclusion that I have come to is, you have the different skills in your toolkit, and you bring out different ones as and when it is appropriate (MNQT3).*

MNQT3 currently uses mentoring and coaching approaches interchangeably but she sees the coach approach as the one to aim for:

> *I would always start with coaching um, and if they are able to identify for themselves what the issues are, and if they are able to identify solutions for themselves, um then I would leave it at that (MNQT3).*

MNQT3 understands coaching to be used in a way that allows the client to formulate their own thinking without being told what they could or should do. She switched into mentoring if she felt the client did not have the knowledge or experience to make those judgements or decisions for themselves but would always have in the back of her mind the aim of working towards a coach approach as this demonstrates that the client is becoming less dependent upon others. This point is interesting, because the view taken is that coaching approaches are interventions which practitioners should aim for, because it suggests the client is taking more ownership of their own development and learning. This somewhat simplifies the range of mentoring approaches which can also aid growth; but it certainly challenges many of the deficit models that can be found amongst a range of mentors and coaches.

Walker-Fraser (2011) posits an integrated coaching and mentoring approach within mature organisations that have the systems and resources in place to effectively support individual's learning and development. This would certainly reflect the school in which MNQT3 works, as she has implemented a whole-school approach to mentoring and coaching. Whether this integrated approach is something that only the practitioner needs to grasp for themselves, or should communicate with the client, is not altogether clear. MNQT1 felt it was important to provide explanations about approaches used to the client:

> *Lots of people… are mentors to some and coaches to others and as long as people are very clear about which role they are in at which time with which person, then I think it can work (MNQT1).*

EC2 suggested that mentors and coaches need to start with where the client is and try not to worry too much about labels:

> *Maybe what we need now is to rethink the role of somebody alongside someone in an organisation and what that might be and what that might look like (EC2).*

These views reflect a general consensus of opinion from participants that mentor and coach approaches can and should be used interchangeably; therefore practitioners can

develop their skills by generating a greater understanding of matching approach to need, rather than be limited to specific types of mentoring or coaching. Participants did raise some questions about whether or not all mentors and coaches could work appropriately across disciplines, either due to a lack of understanding or not possessing the right skills.

The first issue relates to the amount of input a mentor contributes within a mentoring session and whether or not the same person could turn their hand to coaching, as ML1 point out:

> *If you are doing sponsorship mentoring, then I think apart from anything else, you need to learn to shut up! (ML1).*

These sentiments were echoed by EC3:

> *I think there are more skills in shutting up than there are in speaking (EC3).*

Similarly, EC1 felt it might be difficult for mentors to switch to coaching without resisting the temptation to offer direct advice:

> *Even if you were really good at listening and reflecting and all the other stuff, and putting the client at the centre of what you are doing – it can be very hard to step away from that and not leap in and solve problems (EC1).*

MNQT2 felt that many mentors of NQTs would find it difficult to support people outside of a teaching context, because this is something they know inside out:

> *I think mentoring an NQT – it is all about teaching pretty much. Whereas the coaching is far more to do I think with other people, and relationships with other people, and organisation, and how to take a department forward (MNQT2).*

These views represent some potential difficulties of mentors being able to hold back, where their views, experiences and advice are often sought out by others through mentoring; or moving outside of your known field might lead to a lack of confidence in helping others effectively, as EC2 described:

> *That would depend on the capability and flexibility of the coach to utilise their skills, knowledge and experience in different contexts, and whether their attachment to their own experience is a key part of how they can be confident and credible (EC2).*

This suggests that it is not appropriate for all mentors and coaches to work in any discipline at any time. In particular, a practitioner using mentor and coach approaches interchangeably requires them to have a great deal of self-awareness and self-discipline, so that they can effectively gauge when it would be most helpful to step in and offer direct advice and/or instruction and when it would be more effective to step back and allow the client to take more of a lead. These skills would allow for greater capacity and

point towards the potential of developing practitioners further by enhancing their skills so that they are more equipped to engage with people in a variety of settings.

Further diversification of the field

Another way of exploring the potential shared and transferable nature of mentor-coach skills is to look at other mentoring and coaching areas that could be further developed, increasing the richness and diversity of disciplines within the field. By briefly exploring what it might mean to coach a young person, this would help broaden the approaches used to help and support young people's learning and development. Similarly, further work could be done to expand mentoring within sports, and coaching within education. These three specialist areas will now be considered, with a view to helping the field of mentoring and coaching develop further:

1. Coaching young people

Theoretical models for coaching young people are underrepresented in the literature. This I believe is due to constructs which view young people to be disadvantaged or not complying with social norms; therefore the help offered to them needs to target and address these 'problems'. MYP3 reflected on the approaches she adopted with young people labelled as 'gifted and talented' compared with those viewed as underachievers or disaffected in some way. She wondered if coaching approaches were more evident with those deemed 'gifted and talented':

> *The gifted and talented kids already have really good social skills, and they can reflect, and they can analyse what they have done, and then learn from their mistakes… With the vulnerable kids… that's where you are trying to get them to be able to – you know, if you can give them those skills, then that will help a lot (MYP3).*

This suggests that mentors of young people identified with 'emotional and behaviour difficulties' (EBD) tend to focus on areas of self-esteem and confidence; but that young people who have already developed in these areas might need something different. MYP3 identified longer-term goals as something that young people possessing higher levels of self-esteem and confidence want to focus on:

> *That would be much more targeted to careers mentoring. So you know, focusing on the academic side of it: where do you want to go, what do you want to do, how are you going to get there? Whereas with the more vulnerable young people, it can be just down to, right, how was your day? (MYP3).*

One example was found where coaching was cited as an intervention used to help young people make behavioural changes. Spence's (2003) study suggests that young people

with particularly complex needs will benefit from multi-method approaches in order for change to be on-going. Therefore, coaching in isolation will be less effective than a combination of interventions. This also supports the view that interdisciplinary mentor-coach approaches can be useful to the mentee or coachee, where a wider range of needs can be met.

In terms of using mentor and coach approaches interchangeably with young people, it is not known how much mentors of young people integrate coach approaches. However, what seems to be apparent is that, in general terms, mentoring interventions used with young people are based on a deficit model and coaching interventions aimed at gifted and talented students seem to focus on young people deemed to be more academic or successful than their mentee counterparts. For the field of mentoring and coaching to develop further, young people and practitioners alike would benefit from the development of a greater range of mentor and coach approaches. From my own experience of working with vulnerable young people, they have often developed greater capacities of resilience than those young people who have not had to face adverse and challenging situations. Therefore, some learning opportunities which arise in the mentoring relationship may warrant a coach approach where good questioning can be used to identify areas where the young person has proven the ability to navigate their way through a past difficulty, which in turn can help them reapply their learning when faced with a new challenge. Young people may benefit more from an integrated mentor-coach approach, rather than separate out mentoring for young people who have somehow fallen short and retain coaching for those categorised as 'normal' or 'successful'.

2. Mentoring athletes

Literature which explores the differences in approach of mentors and coaches within sports has identified a number of themes. Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke and Salmela (1998) carried out one of the first pieces of research which explored the use of mentoring with athletes and coaches. Their findings proposed that athletes benefitted from the broader, more holistic support of mentors who sought to nurture all aspects of their lives, not just sport.

SC3 suggested that the opportunities to venture into other areas of an athletes' life are more likely to arise when the coaching is taking place recreationally. For some elite

sports men and women, the pressure for them to achieve results means that they are much more focused on sport:

> *The more recreational players that I deal with, I tend to mentor than the top elite end players that I work with. It is sometimes about just delivering the results (SC3).*

Whether the coaching is recreational or professional, there will be times when the coach is able to build a strong relationship with the athlete. This inevitably provides the coach with the opportunity to work on areas other than sporting techniques, as SC2 explains:

> *Coaching is more to do with repetition, feedback and working with a player seeing where it is going right, where it is going wrong. How to develop fitness, how to develop skills… And then it becomes much more mentoring… [This] revolves around how they are feeling, what developments they need, whether they are happy or sad, whether they have won or lost in recent weeks. Whether they feel they are improving, whether they are stagnating (SC2).*

This hints at mentoring fulfilling a psychosocial function which athletes might not otherwise receive when the focus and attention is on improving performance (Bloom *et al*, 1998). Equally when an athlete has the opportunity to open up, this can provide mentoring opportunities for the coach which can become a vehicle for more meaningful processes:

> *The coach is preparing people for sports. The mentoring aspect is through sport (SC1).*

There are clearly benefits to athletes being coached and mentored, as important learning opportunities can arise through the mentoring input alongside sports coaching. Again, this raises questions about the skills and capacities of coaches being able to fulfil mentoring functions, if it is believed that a combination of both roles can only bring additional benefits to the athlete. Further work needs to be done in terms of recognising mentor approaches and helping equip coaches to develop these further. There may also be scope for mentoring opportunities amongst team roles allocated to athletes, thus creating more mentor roles within sports in a formalised way.

3. Coaching teachers

Whilst coaching was introduced within schools far later than mentoring, the two interventions are now established (Cordingley & Bell, 2007). However, the way in which the two roles are utilised are quite divided, as coaching was introduced as a way of offering on-going staff development (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011) or developing senior managers and leaders (Forde, McMahon, Gronn and Martin, 2013). One mentor of NQTs reflected on the impact of the ways in which mentoring and coaching have been

separated out and described how this sends out messages about the way the two roles are perceived:

> *The ones going to be mentored were the ones that weren't very good and the ones that were going to be coached were the ones that were the better teachers. It was completely divisive (MNQT1).*

This reflection comes from a scenario where a school were trying to roll out mentoring and coaching for teaching staff, beyond the induction period. It reveals a belief that mentoring is reserved for those who are not very good at what they do, and therefore have a lot more to learn about what it means to teach; whereas coaching is set apart for those who have already demonstrated that they are good at teaching and therefore have the potential to be fast-tracked in their career. It was almost seen as an insult to be put forward for mentoring and mentors themselves to be dealing with the remedial rather than high potential.

In a qualitative study by Loeschen (2013), four mentors of NQTs were trained in cognitive coaching with the aim of helping new teachers develop their critical reflection skills. The mentors noted how the coach training helped them develop skills in paraphrasing, holding back and giving NQTs time and space to reflect and question their practice. This integrated use of mentor and coach skills supports previous discussions about the need for practitioners to adopt multidisciplinary approaches.

In addition to supporting educational leaders, coaching is also used as a way of continuing professional development amongst teachers. One study by Black (2013) explored the use of coaching as a way of helping teachers increase the quality of classroom instruction. In this instance, an on-site coach was used to work with teachers on this aspect of their teaching, and the results were positive. It seems that coaching can be used in targeted ways, with the aim of increasing specific skill sets.

There is already a great deal of knowledge regarding the use of mentoring in education, given its historical use of supporting and training teachers. Further research is needed to help increase understanding of how coaching is implemented within the field of education. This would aid the expansion of teachers developing mentoring and coaching skills in a way that helps combat any stigma associated with the use and place of mentoring.

It is apparent that within youth work, sports and education, mentoring and coaching are not viewed in equal terms. I believe that for the field of mentoring and coaching to have

greater authenticity, increased recognition of how mentors and coaches have rightful places in any given setting is needed. Whether this happens through specialist interventions which separate out mentors and coaches, or by developing practitioners who are equipped to do either, more opportunities are needed which allow for both approaches to be made available.

Summary

The focus of this chapter has been to explore how mentor-coach approaches might be viewed in interdisciplinary terms. Findings suggest that skilled mentors and coaches may operate in more than one discipline, where individual practitioners have the scope to reapply their skills in other settings. Consideration was given to participant responses where they were able to cite experiences of adopting other approaches as part of their toolkit, when the need of the mentee or coachee required them to diversify their approach. Whilst some mentors and coaches were able to articulate a rationale for the times when they felt an adaptation of approach was justified, it was not clear how necessary it might be to communicate this to clients.

A brief examination of coaching for young people and teachers, as well as mentoring for athletes was considered within a wider discussion about the potential transferability of mentor and coach approaches. Whilst these areas of practice are not discussed at length in the literature, they do reflect a need for the field of mentoring and coaching to continue to diversify. This would mean that more traditional roles such as mentoring for NQTs or coaching athletes could be further enhanced with a broader range of professional approaches made available to particular client-groups or contexts.

The final chapter will summarise the key findings of this study and highlight recommendations for further research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

In order to understand more clearly how mentors and coaches have shared and distinct approaches, this study has explored mentoring and coaching across six disciplines. Bozeman and Feeney (2007), Clutterbuck (2008), Cox (2003), Delaney (2012) Garvey (2004) and Roberts (2000) have all proposed that definitions of mentors and coaches cannot be fully understood unless the context in which the intervention is being delivered is taken into consideration. However, I have argued that there are additional problems with the term 'context' as some labels attributed to mentoring and coaching types are found in a range of contexts. I have suggested that due to the mentoring and coaching field becoming much more established, mentor and coach types should be regarded as disciplines.

Previous contributions to the debate around how mentoring and coaching might be similar or different have tended to come from writers drawing on their own experiences. This has proved problematic where some definitions cannot be reapplied in other disciplines. This has at times, led to both confusing and conflicting views for practitioners, existing and potential clients and those who refer individuals for one-to-one support. An exploration of the complex needs found within different mentor and coach disciplines has helped provide a clearer understanding of specialist elements requiring expert practitioner knowledge and where approaches overlap across disciplines.

As discussed in Chapter 2, no research was found which specifically asked mentors and coaches to identify unique aspects of their practice that might set them apart from other types of mentors or coaches, or reflect on aspects of their role which might be found in other disciplines. Therefore, the strategy of using a qualitative comparative case study approach to collect data from mentors and coaches across six mentoring and coaching disciplines was implemented to address this gap. This gave 18 participating practitioners the opportunity to be interviewed and talk about the ways in which they approach their work and how this relates to their particular area of expertise. By analysing the interview transcripts, patterns emerged which helped identify key drivers and approaches which are evident in mentoring and coaching disciplines, as well as aspects which were common in two or more settings.

Table 6.1 below summarises the main objectives of this study, and how these were met. This demonstrates how existing research and new data were used to explore the research question:

1.	Critically review literature on approaches of mentors and coaches within six disciplines.	In chapter 2 a case was made for the need to further understand how mentors and coaches have shared and distinctive approaches. An exploration of the research literature within each of the six identified disciplines showed that there are distinctive practices which relate directly to the needs of the client.
2.	Explore how mentors and coaches from six disciplines define their approaches through primary research.	Comparative case studies comprised 18 interviewees of mentors and coaches from six disciplines.
3.	Compare and analyse the findings, giving consideration to shared and distinctive mentor and coach approaches.	Each interview provided participants with the opportunity to reflect on their practice, what they are aiming to achieve and how they go about their work.
4.	Critically evaluate and synthesise how the practice of mentors and coaches coincides/differs and suggest how inter-disciplinary practice may be shared.	Chapters4 and 5 drew together findings from the data which showed where practices are shared and distinctive. The potential for transferability across contexts and roles was also considered.

Table 6.1: Research objectives and how these were met

This concluding chapter allows me the opportunity to evaluate these findings and consider what implications these have for the field of mentoring and coaching in terms of theory and practice.

Specialist mentor and coach approaches

Within each discipline featured in this study, further light was shed on the particular needs of the mentee or coachee, leading to specific distinctive approaches that help practitioners work effectively with those needs. Findings showed how each discipline requires some form of specialist knowledge or understanding such as child protection and safeguarding for young people or the particular demands and pressures facing executives and leaders. This does not mean that other mentors and coaches cannot learn and adapt in order to work in a discipline that they have not had experience of

previously. However, it does suggest that there are aspects of mentor and coach approaches which are tailor-made for specific situations or client needs (Walker,2004) and practitioners might benefit from additional training which takes specialist factors into consideration. Therefore, training providers in particular need to recognise where specialist knowledge and experience might be needed and provide additional learning opportunities and support accordingly. This also raises implications for others involved in supporting practitioners, such as professional bodies or those employed as supervisors. They also need to have an understanding of the diverse range of mentoring and coaching disciplines in order to facilitate learning and growth in practitioners so that they might successfully meet those needs. Supervisors can also help practitioners recognise their own limitations and identify aspects of the field that might not be suitable for their approach and/or skills.

An integrated understanding of interdisciplinary approaches also suggests that niche sections of the field should be discouraged, so that greater connectivity and understanding can be achieved. This would require trainers to embrace mentor and coach programmes in a synthesised way, rather than offer one or the other. Likewise, professional bodies should look to reflect the field in all its diversity, rather than seek to attract sections of the mentoring and coaching community.

Developing mentor-coach multidisciplinary approaches

The transferability of mentor and coach roles from one discipline to another was considered and participants in the main felt that this was appropriate where practitioners had the necessary skills and ability to operate in a variety of settings. One reason for this could be the shared roots of certain disciplines. For example, mentors of leaders and executive coaches will encounter similar issues given the needs represented by clients engaging in these relationships. However, approaches may vary if a mentor is operating internally compared with a coach who might be working externally with the organisation. The same practitioner could fulfil both of these roles if they were skilled and had enough understanding of the ways in which they might adapt their approach in each situation. It has already been recommended that training providers, professional bodies and supervisors can help encourage this process. This also requires self-awareness on the part of the practitioner, to increase their understanding of how and why they approach their work in the way they do and the range of disciplines they feel comfortable operating within.

The underlying beliefs and motivations of practitioners inevitably have an impact on the approaches they adopt. Two contrasting constructs were found: a deficit versus developmental framework. A deficit model was evident where mentors and coaches saw themselves as the expert or believed that the client was deficient in some way. This compared with other mentors and coaches who believed the client had the capacity and resources to develop themselves. These conflicting beliefs about mentoring and coaching add to the confusion about how they are defined where certain disciplines start from different presuppositions. In order for there to be greater congruence within the field, I believe that the deficit model needs eradicating. Models which start from a negative premise often arise from a position of justification. An outlook which views mentees or coachees as part of a problem which needs fixing must be challenged. A strong dose of humility would help redress the balance where mentoring or coaching relationships are understood as a learning opportunity where both parties can grow and develop.

Another area of overlap identified were the disciplines where non-directive approaches are used, as this suggests that specialist technical knowledge is not required of the practitioner. For example, a coaching psychologist could easily transfer their skills to working with young people if they felt comfortable engaging with that age group. For many teenagers who have been identified as having emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD), some coaching psychologists may have the expertise required to support these vulnerable young people that a volunteer mentor with very little training might struggle with. In this instance, the transfer of skills and knowledge might even be beneficial to the client group. This highlights the need for practitioner approaches to be matched according to the specific needs of the client whilst also giving opportunities for mentors and coaches to develop and expand their skills. Where mentors and coaches are aware of their own limitations, there could be scope for referring clients to more experienced practitioners rather than assume that referrals might need to be made to neighbouring professions such as counsellors, therapists or psychologists.

Combating confusion

The initial impetus for designing this study came from a culmination of observations and experiences:

1. My own confusion as a mentor previously working with young people at risk of exclusion from school and whether I could transfer these skills across into other mentoring or coaching disciplines;

2. Observations of stakeholders and the confusion associated with professional bodies, training providers and purchasers who seem to either give preference to mentoring or coaching, or try and accommodate both but to varying degrees;

3. Confusion within the literature which lacks coherence when attempts are made at defining mentoring and coaching.

As a result of examining views and experiences found in the literature compared with the perspectives of participants who were interviewed as part of this study, several factors have been highlighted:

1. My own professional development

Reflecting on the findings from this study, I have been able to consider whether or not my own professional experiences might help me to draw on other mentor and coach approaches. Given that my starting point is youth work, I have been able to identify elements of coach approaches that I have previously used but in an uninformed or unconscious way. This is particularly true when young people want to work on aspects of behavioural change which draw on theories such as cognitive behavioural therapy (Passmore *et al*, 2010). I also now believe that there is convincing evidence that coaching should be offered to young people in ways that do not necessarily separate out vulnerable young people from their peers who appear to have more stable lives. Some of those vulnerable or challenging young people might benefit from aspects of coaching and similarly, some talented young people might thrive with a mentor. These areas need further consideration and would benefit from additional research.

In terms of trying my hand at other forms of mentoring, I can see some initial similarities in mentoring leaders who are part of the youth work sector. Where I have had management and leadership experience, I believe that this might be useful as a way of supporting other leaders with a similar professional background (Conway, 1995; Hamlin & Sage, 2011; McCloughen *et al*, 2011). Whilst I have had some coach training, I am not sure if a theoretical understanding of coaching techniques is sufficient without any experience in business or the private sector (Augustijnen *et al*, 2011). Participants described how credibility is needed as a coach (Dagley, 2010), even though it is often claimed that approaches can be applied in any context. This I believe does give rise to

potential specialist training and support which could help people like me learn how to reapply skills into other mentoring and coaching disciplines.

2. The development of stakeholders

The introductory chapter highlighted the disparity in support from the range of professional bodies and specialist training available to mentors and coaches, given their evident bias towards coaching. This needs to be addressed if mentors and coaches are to be given equal status within the same professional field. In order for this to happen, there needs to be greater visibility about the diversity of practice on offer, so that these can be better represented by professional bodies and training providers. This, in turn, can enable purchasers to be exposed to a greater range of mentoring and coaching approaches so that individuals can be matched to the right kind of intervention, according to need.

One finding suggests that certain coach and mentor approaches encourage greater mutuality between practitioner and client (Garvey *et al*, 2009;Kwan and Lopez-Real, 2005), compared with some mentoring and coaching relationships based on deficit models. This is more apparent when facilitative or non-directional approaches are adopted by coaches and mentors, rather than directive or instructional models used by others. There is a need for all mentors and coaches to recognise the range of learning opportunities that practitioners and clients can both experience, regardless of the specialism or discipline and take the view that clients can help facilitate their own learning rather than depend on their mentor or coach for continual guidance and advice. Greater consistency in these areas is needed by mentors and coaches, regardless of their discipline. This will help address any stigma associated with mentoring or coaching when offered because an individual is seen to be deficient in some way. Stakeholders can also encourage practitioners to avoid using their position inappropriately through ego-driven motives or by subconsciously seeking to produce clones representing their worldview. Sufficient training and on-going supervisory support can help mentors and coaches approach their roles in a more equitable manner that doesn't view others in deficit.

3. New perspectives on existing literature

This study has highlighted the need for mentoring and coaching authors and researchers to be much more mindful of difficulties associated with attempting to draft universal definitions (Bachkirova & Kauffman, 2009). There needs to be explicit links made

between the needs associated with specialist disciplines and how these impact on mentor and coach approaches. Therefore, assumptions cannot be made about the way in which a practitioner operates if other disciplines or contexts have not been factored in. Some authors (Boyce *et al*, 2010; King, 2012; Lemyre *et al*, 2007; Wynn *et al*, 2007) recognise where and how the background of the mentor or coach relates to their practice. This implies that certain limitations are placed on the practitioners' approach due to the discipline in which the mentor or coach is located. A clear separation can be found amongst practitioners working in organisational settings, compared with mentors and coaches working in other areas. Again, recognition of this and other factors needs to be much more explicit and not ignored or overlooked.

Perhaps a human reaction to emergent or establishing fields is the perceived need to understand difference (Walker, 2004). This was evident when carrying out the literature review, particularly when authors used prescriptive language which suggested ways in which mentors and coaches should approach their role. An alternative outlook which celebrates diversity and looks for increased opportunities to integrate approaches might help broaden the field of mentoring and coaching in a meaningful way, increasing the scope in which mentors and coaches can help individuals to grow and change themselves and the areas in which they work, study or the community in which they live.

Recommendations for future research

This study has raised as many questions as it has answers. The following summarises the main areas that warrant further research, in order to develop and build on the themes that have emerged from this study.

Additional perspectives from other disciplines

Further work needs to be done that looks at additional contexts or types of mentoring and coaching, as the six areas featured in this study do not fully represent the field. This study focused on six mentoring and coaching disciplines and has shown how there are elements of a practitioners' approach which might require specialist knowledge, whilst aspects of the role can be reapplied elsewhere. By analysing more disciplines, a fuller picture will be created which shows where other overlaps lie, or where other specialist mentors or coaches need to remain distinctive.

The mentee-coachee perspective

It felt important to start from the perspective of the practitioner to assess underlying aims of the work that influence the different approaches used by mentors and coaches. However, an important missing element was the perspective of the mentee or coachee and finding out from them what approaches best meet their needs, in relation to their own context or set of circumstances. It would be interesting to look at the six disciplines which have featured in this study and compare findings from the practitioner perspective with those on the receiving end. Findings would help ascertain how perceptive practitioners are about the relationship between discipline, approach and need of the mentee or coachee; and how accurate these might be when compared with the mentee and coachee perspective based on their first-hand experience.

Perspectives from other stakeholders

Training providers and professional bodies have been referred to within this study and research which explored these perspectives would also provide additional insights into the parameters of mentoring and coaching and how the two roles can be developed in a healthy way.

The referral process

A greater understanding is needed of the ways in which individuals are able to access mentoring or coaching and whether or not they are given the option to engage with a mentor or coach. Many contexts seem to prefer one over the other and this might prohibit the prospective mentee or coachee accessing the approaches most suitable to their needs. Within organisational settings, those responsible for recruiting mentors or coaches externally also need to have a greater understanding of how mentors and coaches can be distinct from one another, so that they are able to provide the right kinds of interventions for employees.

Reflexivity

This study has given me the opportunity to grow and develop as a researcher. Having not followed a more traditional study path of going to University at 18, my only previous experience of carrying out research was at Masters Level in 2007. I therefore embarked on the doctoral journey with a certain lack of confidence.

However, I was and still am passionate about the subject matter; and feel privileged to have had the opportunity to look closely into this area. Looking back at my initial thoughts about the research area and design, I can now see how much I over-estimated

the potential scope of this study. The thought of writing 50,000 words seemed almost impossible and therefore I felt the need to think big! One of the original designs was to film mentoring and coaching sessions and then use mentors and mentees to observe and feedback on coaching sessions and similarly coaches and coachees to watch and comment on mentoring sessions. In theory, this seemed like a great idea. However the reality was that many potential participants refused to get involved for fear of breaching confidentiality. Executives and leaders were the most resistant (my assumption had been that young people and their mentors would be reluctant to participate). This meant that I had to change the design and resort to a more traditional method of interviewing. At first this was a little disappointing. However, I realised that this would enable me to look at a broader range of settings, which in turn has taken me along a different route in examining my research aim. It is important that the scope of research is thought through so that expectations of what can be achieved are realistic. I have learned that sometimes, less is more.

It took me a long time to find ways of expressing myself confidently and succinctly. This has perhaps been the steepest learning curve: how to communicate the initial problem, proposed design, execution of research and findings in a logical manner, without compromising the views and opinions of others; and importantly, finding my own voice and opinion in this concluding chapter, having taken everything else into consideration. This has proved to be a real challenge; but something I have benefited from. This learning experience will serve me well when I look to write in the future.

The process of supervision has provided me with the arena to closely reflect on my evolving thoughts throughout. Having the space to think through aspects of uncertainty – such as my own epistemological stance – has provided me with the opportunity to reflect on ideas and concepts and find myself. My supervisors have patiently been able to challenge and spur me on at times when I have felt stuck.

With the benefit of hindsight, I have also reflected on aspects of the research process which might have been carried out differently. Firstly, given the small sample size, some additional perspectives might have been incorporated using mixed methods. For example, a questionnaire circulated to a broad range of mentors and coaches would have offered some opinions from practitioners working in other disciplines not represented in this study. This would have provided some fascinating insights into alternative ways in which practitioners approach their role.

One aspect of the data collection process which now seems at odds with a social constructivist framework was the inclusion of one Australian participant who coordinates mentoring programmes for leaders. Whilst she offered a wealth of experience which surpasses many of her UK counterparts, this did slightly influence the data analysis process when examining the responses from the participants in this discipline; compared with the other five disciplines where participants were all based in the UK.

Discourse analysis is commonly associated with social constructivism as this allows for the unpicking of what is communicated within interviews, appreciating subtle use of language and intonation. Had the participants of each discipline worked for the same organisation, discourse analysis could have been used to identify the dominant discourses. As this study recruited participants who did not work together, thematic analysis was deemed to be more appropriate. A recommendation for future research would be to design a piece of research which used discourse analysis as a way of appreciating further the relationship between context and practice.

A genuine comparison of all the six disciplines was clearly a challenge, given the lack of homogeneity between the different areas. This meant that some elements of practitioner approaches were overlooked in favour of the more obvious points of comparison, such as a shared clientele or being located in a work-focused environment. Future research in this area is required so that further appreciation of the nuances and complexities associated within each discipline can be taken into consideration.

Despite the pressures that come with studying towards a doctorate, I have relished the learning opportunities that this study has given me. I have become much more confident in understanding complex issues that inevitably arise when embarking on carrying out an investigation. Speaking with colleagues who are at the beginning of their doctoral journey has helped me see how much I have grown. I am now much more confident in seeing the gaps, pitfalls and ingenuity in other people's research designs. I am also able to read journal articles and research papers with a much more critical eye.

Summary

This study has helped further understand the approaches of mentors and coaches, which might be shared and which distinct. Many of the mentors and coaches who took part in this study had experience limited to the confines of their own discipline. Some

had worked in more than one setting or role, but, in the main, had specialised in a particular area of mentoring or coaching. The majority cited times when they ventured into different roles or approaches but provided a rationale that justified this shift in approach. This research has highlighted which aspects of the mentor and coach approach are shared and how the ability to relate well to others should not be assumed, but developed further in practitioners across the field to ensure that there is a high level of skills in these areas, regardless of the discipline.

In addition, the field of mentoring and coaching also needs to better understand the diverse range of approaches which practitioners use, requiring specialist knowledge or training. These need to be articulated more clearly to ensure that the field has greater unity in where mentors and coaches differ, whilst acknowledging the many aspects of overlap. This will then give rise to practitioners exploring whether or not they have the skills to operate in a number of disciplines and adapt their approach accordingly. For some, this means recognising their own limitations and reasons why it would not be suitable for them to operate in more than one discipline or role. For others, the skills, abilities and expertise that they possess means they should rightly work in a range of settings but be able to articulate an awareness of the relationship between their approach and need evident in the mentee or coachee. Further work needs to be done in finding ways to support practitioners develop both their mentoring and coaching skills whilst educating professional settings about the differences in order to help them offer both according to need. Where mentoring or coaching might be seen to be too expensive if bought in externally, further work needs to be done to help organisations or contexts offer these internally or in a voluntary capacity. Mentors and coaches also need to recognise underlying values and frames of reference which influence their approach and, where possible, challenge any deficit models which might stigmatise the way in which mentors and coaches are perceived by potential clients.

In considering the question 'a comparison of mentor and coach approaches across disciplines', I conclude that there are some differences which can be linked to specialist mentoring and coaching disciplines. There are also significant overlaps in approach that unite mentors regardless of the discipline, and likewise coaches; which link to the overall purpose and aim of the intervention. However, there are also a range of shared approaches that were discovered when a different combination of factors of two or more disciplines were analysed, confirming the complexities within the field which are

also identified in the literature. This further underlines the need for clarity within the field of mentoring and coaching and this study has started the journey of identifying how the approach can be understood more clearly when the mentor or coach discipline has been factored in. Mentors and coaches also need to understand how their individual repertoire of approaches fits alongside other mentoring and coaching disciplines and help the field to develop further by sharing good practice and better understanding of how their approach helps serve the need of the mentee or coachee. There is scope for practitioners to develop their approach so that they can effectively work across mentoring and coaching disciplines, helping further establish and expand the field of mentoring and coaching.

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Appendix 1: Research related to Mentoring for Young People

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of mentor	Practices of mentor
Beattie, A. & Holden, R. (1994)	Young Person Mentoring in Schools: The Doncaster Experience *Qualitative: case study*	- Background less important than ability to build relationships with young people - Organisational support of school key to success - To be reflective, have good self-awareness of personal values and prejudices	- Flexibility more important than models - Be non-directive and non-prescriptive - When mentoring groups, coaching interventions are used which are more skills-based/task-orientated
Berkeley, J. (1994)	Young People Mentoring: An employment perspective *Qualitative: documental Review*	- To be flexible, but appreciative of the needs of the young people who might want specific things from their mentor	- Give advice, support and guidance where needed - Coaching techniques applied to help increase skills of young people in job-related training
Dolan, P., Canavan, J. & Brady, B. (2008)	Youth Mentoring and the Parent-Young Person Relationship: Considerations for research and practice *Qualitative: comparison of two studies*	- Good mentoring relationship can have a positive impact on the YP-parent relationship; but some parents might feel undermined, which can be negative - Mentoring could be complemented by parenting programmes which offer support and skills	- Mentors need to be mindful of the parenting role
Evans, T. (2005)	How Does Mentoring a Disadvantaged Young Person Impact on the Mentor? *Qualitative: questionnaire and interviews*	- Open to learning about themselves through mentoring others	- Giving positive feedback to young people who might be used to receiving mostly negative comments
Gray, P. & Seddon, T. (2005)	Prevention Work with Children Disaffected from School *Qualitative: interviews, documents, observations*	- The mentor prefers to work with the mentee for at least a year	- The mentor is chosen by the mentee - Focuses on self-esteem and confidence of the mentee - Sessions need a semblance of structure and organisation

Jamieson, L. (2008)	Obligatory Friends, Surrogate Kin: Some questions for mentoring *Qualitative: documentary review*	- No common mentor definition, but generally accepted that the mentor offers support and advice - The term 'mentor' may be class-specific - A mentor demonstrates how life should be lived - Some mentors offer specialist guidance, such as career - YP view mentoring success based on building friendship; sometimes the boundaries become blurred - Formal mentoring sees the mentor as experienced or knowledgeable, passing this on to the YP - Informal mentors help increase the YP's ability to cope and be resilient - Mentoring demonstrates caring about/for the mentee	- Mentor passes on information, experience and expertise - Needs to be able to create and sustain the relationship - Where a mentor goes above and beyond the requirements of their role, the YP feels special - Some mentors will need to offer practical acts of care - Mentors need to be clear how they present the relationship to the YP
King, D. (2012)	Formal Teacher-Pupil Mentoring in Irish Second-Level Education *Mixed methods: case study*	- The ability to build rapport is important - Prioritise the time to mentor others	- Listen, offers help, support and advice - Establish together an initial agreement - Mentees should be able to choose their mentor
Mentoring and Befriending Foundation (2010)	National Peer Mentoring Anti-Bullying Pilot 2008-10 *Qualitative: case studies, questionnaire, interviews*	- Mentoring can help reduce bullying - One-to-one is more effective than group mentoring - Open to learning about themselves through mentoring others	- Focus on self-esteem and ability to relate to others - Enthusiasm, commitment, reliability, being trained, in supervision are all important
Meyer, K. & Bouchey, A. (2010)	Daring to DREAM: Results from a mentoring programme for at-risk youth *Quantitative: case study, questionnaire*	- Gender and race can have an impact on mentoring outcomes and these should be considered when matching	- Male mentors should work with male mentees; females work better in mixed pairs - Meet regularly, to help with increasing self-esteem

Michael, O. (2008)	Mentoring Mentors as a Tool for Personal and Professional Empowerment in Teacher Education *Quantitative: questionnaires*	- Learning about themselves through mentoring others - Value support and guidance from others whilst mentoring	- Mind-set of older sibling or friend - Look for relevant resources to help steer the role such as literature, peers and programme organisers
Philip, K. (2008)	Youth Mentoring – A Case for Treatment? *Qualitative: documentary review*	- Mentors of YP are usually volunteers entering into a voluntary relationship with the young person - Where government supports schemes, the mentoring usually targets vulnerable young people - Mentoring depends on YP being ready for change - Mentoring can help with employability for YP transitioning from school to work - Crime prevention schemes often target YP in care, asylum seekers and ethnic minorities - General YP schemes focus on confidence & self-esteem - A deficit model is often implied with mentoring used to compensate the absence of support or moving them from 'risky' behaviours to something alternative - The relationship is more likely to be successful when longer-term and when the YP wants to participate	- Mentors draw heavily on youth work approaches - Peer mentoring links YP to share knowledge/experience - Mentors need to understand YPs background & context - The mentor should share their own experiences so the relationship is reciprocal, open-ended& respectful - Consistency helps YP feel able to confide in and relate well to their mentor - Where one partner is not committed there can be a lack of engagement, missing appointments & unplanned endings - Building up the relationship is crucial; in some cases the mentor may act as a role model. The mentor usually helps guide, offers support and direction, and shows how to replicate positive relationships elsewhere
Stead, R. (1997)	Mentoring Young Learners: Does everyone really need a mentor? *Qualitative: case studies, survey, interviews*	- The mentor should not be the direct manager - Prioritise the time to mentor others	- Uses first-hand experience and knowledge of setting as a means of passing this on to the mentee - Specific knowledge of mentoring is also needed

Appendix 2: Research related to Mentoring for Leaders

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of mentor	Practices of mentor
Allen, T., Eby, L., Peteet, M., Lentz, E., & Lima, L (2004) *Quantitative: meta-analysis*	Career Benefits Associated with Mentoring for Protégés: A meta-analysis	- Ability to provide career or psychosocial mentoring according to need	- For career progression, mentors use sponsorship, exposure, coaching, protection, and working on specific tasks - For psychosocial needs, mentors use role-modelling, acceptance, confirmation, counselling and friendship associated behaviours
Booth, R. (1996)	Mentor or Manager: What is the Difference?: A case study in supervisory mentoring *Qualitative: case study*	- Models mentoring so that mentee learns how to mentor others - The mentor prefers to work with the mentee over a longer period of time - To be supportive and build a good caring relationship	- Explore the culture of the organisation - Makes use of coaching functions: consultative, uses feedback - Psychosocial mentoring is different to line management supervision which is closer to career mentoring
Conway, C. (1995)	Mentoring Managers in Organisations *Qualitative: documental review, case studies, interviews*	- Those in senior management should want to act as mentors, so that they can share their knowledge and expertise - Mentors should not work with those they line manage	- Explore the culture of the organisation - Mentors work with those who volunteer to be mentored
Ehrich, L. (1994)	Mentoring and Networking for Women Educators *Qualitative: documental review*	- Professional formalised programmes enables wider access, and helps prevent mentoring from being elitist - Supportive towards women who want to progress	- Mentoring can be used to provide access to mentors in positions of authority, such as potential female leaders - As well as the position, mentors should have a good understanding of how to mentor
Ehrich, L. (2008)	Mentoring and Women Managers: Another look at the field *Qualitative: documental review*	- Ability to apply career or psychosocial mentoring according to need - Mentoring can help women with career progression; psychosocial is less effective for career development - E-mentoring, peer and group mentoring can	- Formal mentoring lends itself to structured sessions with agreed specific goals - Informal relationships are more fluid and evolutionary - Mentors need to clarify expectations from the start

		- also be made available, as well as individual mentoring, to help address barriers	- The mentor needs to be aware of cross-gender/race dynamics that could inhibit the mentoring; but with training the mentor can alleviate these.
Fowler, J., Gudmundsson, A. & O'Gorman, J. (2007) *Quantitative: questionnaire*	The Relationships Between Mentor-Mentee Gender Combination	- Ability to apply psychosocial and career mentoring according to need	- Feedback from the mentee is vital for the mentor assessing how their approach is having an effect - The mentor needs to be aware of the impact of gender on the relationship and how the needs of the mentee are best met
Hamlin, R. & Sage, L. (2011) *Qualitative: critical incident technique*	Behavioural Criteria of Perceived Mentoring Effectiveness	- A belief that the mentee will take responsibility for their learning and contribution to the relationship	- Good at organising the mentoring, sharing their knowledge and expertise, and challenging the mentee where appropriate - Keep sessions focused, structured and purposeful - Allow perceptions to be explored
Hoigaard, R. & Mathisen, P. (2009) *Quantitative: questionnaire*	Benefits of Formal Mentoring for Female Leaders	- Mentoring can have a positive impact on leadership behaviours - Having things such as gender or personality in common with the mentee is not significant	- Applies good communication skills - Can use coaching functions for specific tasks or in relation to career progression - Needs to have a good understanding of mentoring skills
Lester, P., Hannah, S., Harms, P., Vogelgesang, G. & Avolio, B. (2011) *Quantitative: experimental longitudinal study*	Mentoring Impact on Leader Efficacy Development: A field experiment	- Leader efficacy can be developed through semi-formal mentoring - Mentoring is helpful at any leadership stage, including young leaders - Mentoring is more cost-effective than other leadership programmes, especially when internal mentors are recruited. It is also a good way of helping develop the mentors	- Help mentee find meaning from their experiences - Provide psychosocial support - Trust is an important factor in helping the mentee to be open and willing to discuss aspects of their leadership - Trust provides an environment to offer negative feedback in a developmental way - Mentors build trust by demonstrating their own ability and having integrity

McCloughen, A., O'Brien, L. & Jackson, D. (2011)	Nurse Leader Mentor as a Mode of Being : Findings From an Australian Hermeneutic Phenomenological Study *Qualitative: interviews*	- Mentoring and leadership are integrated - Every nurse has leadership potential, as this is a natural part of their role - Mentoring can help with succession planning and future growth and development of leadership - Having the right attitude is key as a mentor, and then looking out for people who will benefit from their knowledge and influence, so the mentor initiates the mentoring - The person (mentor) is much more important than process - Mentoring is a life attitude	- Mentors possess characteristics and traits from childhood, and have a way of being that lends itself to the role rather than a specific skillset that can be gained through training - Mentors have always looked out for others an taken them under their wing; giving time to support others beyond the call of duty - Mentors had experience of being mentored by others who had encouraged growth and development in them - Mentoring is natural and intuitive - Mentors are altruistic in nature, happy to share their time, knowledge and expertise with others - Mentors champion their mentees and celebrate in their growth and development - Help mentee identify their potential and help steer them towards that - Role so integrated with who they are, it was not seen as particularly different or special
Scandura, T., Tejeda, M., Werther, W. & Lankau, M. (1996)	Perspectives on Mentoring *Qualitative: documental review*	- The motives of the mentor will have a bearing on the relationship - Mentoring can meet the developmental needs of both the mentor, mentee and organisation	- Career mentoring needs to be collaborative - The building of rapport leads to trust and obligation - The intervention is personalised and tailor-made - Formalised programmes provide wider access and participation compared with informal mentoring
Siegel, P., Smith, J. & Mosca, J. (2001)	Mentoring Relationships and Interpersonal Orientation *Quantitative: case study, questionnaire*	- Mentors who appreciate their own interpersonal needs will also recognise this need in others	- The mentor can help meet high interpersonal needs of women, compared with men - Be inclusive - Psychosocial and career mentoring are needed, but leaders in particular value support

| Shenkman, M. (2010) | Creative Leaders Need Mentors

Published excerpt from book | - Without mentors there would be no leaders
- Mentors can help turn star performers into leaders
- The chief executive needs to have humility in order to allow external mentors to work with other staff; a mentor therefore acts on behalf of the CEO who doesn't have the time to personally mentor others
- Mentors see leaders as creative people
- Mentoring can help leaders create a community of followers
- Mentoring offers new leaders helpful attention
- Mentoring provides support for leaders so that they can overcome any difficulties or challenges | - Offer guidance for taking organisations into the future
- Encourage awareness in the leader that helps inspire others
- Helps the leader maintain commitment and have courage
- Helps mentee see whether leadership is right for them, or if they are more suited to management or an independent role
- Need to establish trust, confidentiality and commitment
- Takes interest in the leaders biographical story to gain understanding
- Help mentee clearly articulate aspirations and vision using conversation and attention
- Help leaders see their role as part of their identity: how their lives are all about leading
- Listen, reflect and help make connections that might not appear at first to be linked
- Ask probing questions
- Identify when the mentee has felt fulfilled and isolated and how this links to them as leaders
- Identify traits that attract others to follow them, and then build on these
- Mirror things back to enable leadership growth and development
- Help remove self-imposed barriers |
| Whitney Gibson, J., Tesone, D. & Buchalski, R. (2000) | The Leader as Mentor

Qualitative: document review, focus group | - Mentoring is a natural part of leadership. Helping improve leadership skills can have a positive effect on mentoring skills
- Mentors need to have good awareness of self and others
- Flexibility in offering career or psychosocial support where needed
- Models mentoring so that the mentee learns how to mentor others | - Mentors should display high self-esteem, vision, trust, responsiveness, commitment, wisdom, expertise, power and counselling skills
- Formal programmes widen participation but can be difficult to administrate
- Informal mentoring is more effective than formal, because it is altruistic in nature
- Goal setting should be used to help improve skills and retention |

| Zachary, J. & Fischler, L. (2009) | Help On The Way: Senior leaders can benefit from working with a mentor

Theoretical paper | - Mentoring is helpful for leaders at any level
- Senior leaders often view mentoring as an activity for emerging or leaders less senior, and see a lack of time and concerns about confidentiality as barriers
- Senior leaders can benefit from having a mentor, which is a reciprocal learning relationship | - Mentor needs to build trust and confidentiality
- Demonstrate commitment and set aside time for regular meetings
- Discuss potential blocks to the relationship and how these might be avoided before they occur
- Ensure that both mentor and mentee are clear from the start about their wants, needs and expectations
- Use goals to help define the work
- Help the mentee prioritise what they want to work on
- Use challenging questions
- Encourage the mentee to write up descriptive notes about interactions with problematic people, to look at in the next session
- Use good communication, monitor progress and help grow the relationship |

Appendix 3: Research related to Mentoring for Teachers/Education

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of mentor	Practices of mentor
Akbar, A. & Jackson, D. (2012)	"Mind the Gap!" Exploring the Tensions in Initial Teacher Training: School based mentor practices, student expectations and university demands *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Mentoring helps develop reflective practice - Having one mentor can limit the modelling of a range of teaching styles to the mentee - Having a mentor is an important part of making the mentee feel welcome, enabling them to settle quickly at the school	- Possessed knowledge of the mentees training programme as well as their subject area - Helped identify the mentee's strengths and weaknesses - Covered planning and teaching, offering feedback on the mentees progress - Being accessible to discuss issues or concerns and offer advice - Mentors need to go through school policies and procedures more with mentees - Some mentors focus on performance instead of reflection
Aladejana, A., Aladejana, F. & Ehindero, S. (2006)	An Analysis of Mentoring Relationships Among Teachers *Qualitative: case study, questionnaire*	- To be resourceful to the mentee in their career progression, but also in practical ways - Awareness of gender impact on mentoring; same-gender pairs can be sustained for longer	- Good interpersonal skills, empathic plus has knowledge and experience as an educator
Ambrosetti, A. (2010)	Mentoring and Learning to Teach: What do pre-service teachers expect to learn from their mentor teachers? *Quantitative: survey*	- The needs of first and final year pre-service teachers are fairly similar, with some specific cohort needs - First years focus on the process of teaching whereas final year students are anticipating having their own classroom to manage soon - The mentoring relationship consists of relational and developmental parts - Confidence is a part of growth rather than a skill that can be taught - Mentoring is reciprocal as both can gain from it - Summative assessment is more effective than formal graded assessments, because the relationship should be equal by providing a learning opportunity for both	- First years look for guidance, role modelling and feedback whereas final year students need feedback, support, guidance and demonstrating technique. - Both first and final year cohorts look to become confident, learn how to teach and learn about school life. - First year students want to learn about working with children and being organised; final year students want to be ready for the workplace by developing their teaching presence, strategies and managing routines - Both cohorts look to their mentor for support and guidance, and feedback.

Delaney, Y. (2012)	Research on Mentoring Language Teachers: Its role in language education *Qualitative: documentary review*	- Mentoring is essential to teacher retention - Mentoring has shifted from a behaviourist approach where the mentor passes on skills and knowledge to a personal and professional collaborative relationship that encourages teachers to reflect - Mentoring helps apply theory to practice - An evaluative mentor function can interfere with trust and communication - Good mentoring is similar to good teaching - Mentor skills in observing and offering feedback will vary - Mentors need to appreciate that learning is two-way, rather than assume that only the mentee can learn - Mentors can help teachers survive initial experiences and define their own style	- Mentor supports the mentee emotionally as they reflect on their teaching - Model good teaching, help with school policies and procedures, provide emotional and mental support and act as a sponsor - Provide practical support: how to assess student learning, support students with special needs, approach diversity, use technology, build relationships with parents - Mentors may at times need to coach - Good mentors are organised, good interpersonal skills, understand how theory relates to practice, pedagogical knowledge, can challenge and support - Mentors should offer clear expectations, advice before teaching, constructive criticism, recognition of individual teaching styles and feeling welcomed and accepted - Mentees appreciate an affiliative style using questions, non-judgmental comments and complementary non-verbal gestures such as eye contact, smiling and nodding. - A flexible approach, tailor-made to the mentee's needs - A variety of approaches can lead to greater growth - Observations that allow for reflection; a delay before the debrief can allow for greater reflection - Video recording teaching can be useful for looking at theory and practice, and developing practical knowledge - Good communication including listening and feedback

Fransson, G. (2010)	Mentors Assessing Mentees? An overview and analyses of the mentorship role concerning newly qualified teachers *Qualitative: content analysis of texts*	- Mentors main role is to support NQTs - There are a range of views, from no evaluative function to the mentor providing relative evaluative information - If a mentor has an evaluative role, mentees might find discussing weakness difficult for fear of appearing incompetent - Any accountability will affect the mentoring relationship - Summary: in the Swedish context the supportive and evaluative mentor functions need to be handled with care	- Mentor might find it difficult to evaluate and support simultaneously - Accountability will affect identity, relations, patterns and positions of mentor and mentee
Hudson, P. & Hudson, S. (2010)	Mentor Educators' Understandings of Mentoring Preservice Primary Teachers *Mixed methods: survey, questionnaire and focus group*	- A mentor is an experienced teacher who supports, influences, encourages and challenges the mentee to be competent - The mentors has expertise, but is also able to build two-way relationships - The mentor develops their own ability to build relationships through mentoring - The mentor can learn about new teaching practices through mentoring - Mentor as assessor and confidant can be in conflict - An initial meeting with mentor, mentee and coordinator can prevent personality clashes	- The mentor is supportive, encouraging, shares expertise, facilitates reflection, is empathic, has awareness and responds to needs of mentee - Provide feedback – both positive and constructive - Are responsible, enthusiastic about teaching, has deep curriculum knowledge, effective communicator - Can identify qualities in the mentee - Can reflect on self as well as mentee - Mind-set of learning together - Can tackle any issues as soon as they arise - Models effective teaching - Can use mentoring time effectively as this is limited

Kwan, T. & Lopez-Real, F. (2005) *Mixed Methods: questionnaire and interviews*	Mentors' Perception of their Roles in Mentoring Student Teachers	- Pragmatic approach: supporting and helping teachers to develop - Important that the mentor does not impose their style of teaching on the mentee - Start with the mentees own knowledge and skills and build on these strengths - Mutual sharing leads to both parties improving their practice	- The most important elements are to provide feedback, act as a counsellor, observer (to help offer feedback) and role model – emphasising the relationship. - Managing, assessing and checking for quality are least important and can be in conflict with supporting and helping functions – more pragmatic in approach. - The mentors focus can shift over time as they develop as reflective practitioners; often from a pragmatic approach to a broader professional role. This development comes through the mentoring experience itself. - Equally the approach of the mentor changes according to the personality of the mentee
Ligadu, C. (2012) *Qualitative: case study*	The Impact of the Professional Learning and Psychological Mentoring Support for Teacher Trainees	- Mentees appreciate psychological support from their mentor - Consideration should be given to gender balance - Mentors needs to be trained in reflective practices - Mentees also need to take the initiative in the relationship, and ensure they complete journals - Peer mentoring could be useful for mentors	- Mentors need to be dedicated, experienced and expert in teaching and mentoring, have good communication skills, warmth, flexibility, awareness of their role - Mentors needs time and resources, including planning, reflection and observations - Mentors should be democratic, flexible and collaborative - Offer guidance and support with lesson planning, teaching, class management, school policies and culture – especially towards the beginning of the mentoring
Parker, M. (2010) *Quantitative: questionnaire*	Mentoring Practices to Keep Teachers in School	- Mentoring can help retain teachers in their first school - Mentoring needs to fit with the overall school strategy of supporting new teachers	- Mentor needs to share common ground with mentee, such as same subject area, teach the same year/age group, located in the same department - Be supportive, but also willing to help with practicalities such as planning teaching. - Be accessible with regular meetings - The mentor should observe their mentees practice and offer feedback

Rikard, G. & Banville, D. (2010)	Effective Mentoring: Critical to the professional development of first year physical educators *Mixed methods: questionnaire and interviews*	- Mentees need developmental support when starting at a new school, and help with building professional relationships. Mentoring addresses this – so long as there is sufficient contact time - Mentors and mentees can become friends where contact is high - Kram's Initiation and Cultivation stages can apply where there is respect, and eagerness to learn and effective class practices are discussed. The Separation stage becomes evident if the mentee becomes autonomous - Mentors should contribute to a formative assessment of mentees, but not evaluative - Mentor and mentee should grow through the mentoring	- Mentors provide knowledge, feedback, model good practice (planning, discipline, class management) and collegiality so that new teachers can grow - Daily contact between mentor and mentee provides greater opportunity plan and sometimes teach together - The decision to stop team teaching needs to be discussed so that the mentee is not left on their own too soon - Observations with feedback is critical - Mentors need to demonstrate reliability, experience and broad knowledge - Tension can arise where communication is poor, or little/ no feedback is offered - Mentor training needs to address how mentors behave toward mentees, in order to encourage good practice
Russell, M. & Russell, J. (2011)	Mentoring Relationships: Cooperating teachers' perspectives on mentoring student interns *Qualitative: survey and observations*	- A 'guided teaching' relationship with a mentor can be a significant part of learning effectively how to teach - Mentors need to help mentees develop their own style - The mentor is primarily there to be a resource, guide, role model, friend and experienced professional - Mentor needs to be motivated and enthusiastic in order to work with a mentee - On-going training needed for mentors	- Demonstrate good teaching by role modelling this in the classroom to mentees observing them - Share knowledge, learn new trends from mentee and work collaboratively with NQTs: both learn - Offer encouragement - Receive feedback from the mentee on the mentor's performance

Sempowicz, T. & Hudson, P. (2012)	Mentoring Pre-Service Teachers' Reflective Practices Towards Producing Teaching Outcomes *Qualitative: case studies*	- Mentoring allows the mentee to learn how to reflect-in-action which can then be reapplied - The business of school can make it difficult at times to schedule the mentoring in - Regardless of the mentors' abilities, the mentee is just as responsible for the success of the mentoring - The mentee's personal circumstances and socio-economic status can impact upon their ability to meet expectations	- Mentors need to articulate expectations early on which should be aligned with priorities - Oral feedback on plans prior to teaching are effective and can help increase the mentee's confidence - Observations that are unobtrusive allow the mentee autonomy, with support if needed. This should be followed by brief oral feedback and a later date set for full debrief, allowing for deeper reflection - Written feedback also allows additional time to reflect and prepare for follow-up dialogue with mentor - Questions should be used for reflection and feedback
Shapira-Lishchinksky, O. (2009)	Israeli Teachers' Perception of Mentoring Effectiveness *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Where the style of the mentor is different to the mentee's team culture, change is more likely to occur	- Mentors should look to work with mentees who have different ways of working to their own. - The mentor should look to help the mentee find meaning in the context of where they are working, to help increase self-efficacy
St George, C. & Robinson, S. (2011)	Making Mentoring Matter: Perspectives from veteran mentor teachers *Qualitative: case studies*	- Mentors are experienced teachers who assist, coach, consult, collaborate and guide new teachers - Mentoring prevents people leaving the profession - Mentoring is a huge part of the induction process, but has its limitations - Mentoring if more effective when the mentor and mentee have things in common - Mentoring is mutually beneficial to mentor and mentee	- Can act as a parent, friend, counsellor, protector, advocate, advisor, listener, reality checker and more - Need to avoid interfering and facilitate towards self-discovery whilst helping the mentee to be decisive - Help the mentee to see how their role as a teacher can be hugely influential on children and young people - Mentors provide support and pedagogical guidance - Enable mentees to understand school culture - Exercise confidentiality and demonstrate empathy - Work to meet the needs of the mentee

Wynn, S., Wilson Carboni, L. & Patall, E. (2007) Beginning Teachers' Perceptions of Mentoring, Climate and Leadership *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Mentoring can help retain teachers in their first school - Mentoring needs to fit with the overall strategy of supporting new teachers, including other things such as observation	- Both psychosocial and instruction-led mentoring are needed for new teachers - The mentor helps develop the mentee's reflective skills so that they continually adjust their practice - Mentors should be accessible, knowledge of the mentee's subject area and supportive

Appendix 4: Research related to Executive Coaches

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of coach	Practices of coach
Augustijnen, M., Schnitzer, G. & Van Esbroeck, R. (2011)	A Model of Executive Coaching: A qualitative study *Qualitative: interviews*	- Coaching relationship is built on trust, and a willingness by the coachee to be open and trust the coach to respect confidentiality - The coach facilitates: defining objectives, self-reflection, self-awareness and change in behaviour - The coach's own background in business allows for empathy and helps facilitate dialogue - The sharing of values between coach/coachee helps develop the relationship	- The coach needs to display characteristics which help develop the relationship: attitudinal, behavioural and disclosure of own experiences – particularly from the business world - Offering help and psychological support by being client-centred, encourages trust - Act as a role model - Can use techniques such as confronting, mirroring, giving feedback, listening and encouraging the coachee to identify their own solutions - Ability to recognise dysfunctional behaviour and underlying psychological problems - Help change values to help promote functioning
Baron, L. & Morin, L. (2009)	The Coach-Coachee Relationship in Executive Coaching: A field study *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- An executives' self-efficacy is developed over time through the coach-coachee relationship - Executives coachees are usually less fragile and more resourceful than clients in therapy - Coachee development will not take place if the coachee is not able to receive support from others	- The coaching working relationship increases with the number of sessions - The quality of the relationship impacts upon the coaching effectiveness - The coach's part in this relationship facilitates learning that leads to results. This achieved through a plan, tracking progress, being structured, making connections and identifying obstacles - The coach needs to encourage the client to put learning into practice which can result in their development, despite the approach being less introspective than therapy.
Berg, M & Karlsen, J. (2012)	An Evaluation of Management Training and Coaching *Qualitative: interviews, questionnaire*	- Coach needs to be trained in Cognitive Behaviour Therapy and solutions-approach methods	- The coach focuses on thinking patterns to increase positivity, increasing self-knowledge, emotional intelligence and confidence in leadership abilities

Blackman-Sheppard, G. (2004)	Executive Coaching *theoretical paper*	- Whilst there may be some overlaps, coaching is different to mentoring, consultancy and counselling - The purpose is to liberate thinking	- The coach enables the coachee to reflect, share in confidence with someone who is detached - The focus is on helping the coachee make choices
Boyce, .L, Jackson, R. & Neal, L. (2010)	Building Successful Leadership Coaching Relationships: *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- The matching process (randomised vs. intentional) bears no relevance on coaching outcomes; instead the coaching relationship and processes are more influential	- The coach needs to have a good understanding of the coachee's context - The coach also needs to be able to build rapport and trust, in order for commitment and behavioural changes to come about
Brooks, I. & Wright, S. (2007)	A Survey of Executive Coaching Experiences in New Zealand *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Coaches need to be skilled and knowledgeable in their coaching, given that coaches come from a range of professional backgrounds - Coaches should adopt a professional bodies' code of ethics which helps inform their practice - Coaches should have indemnity insurance - Coaching is not a profession in its own right, as there are no barriers to entry, no shared common understanding, no formal qualification, no regulatory body and no licences to practice.	- Coaches who have a management/consultancy background tend to revert to problem-solving and giving advice; an understanding of psychological and therapeutic models are needed. - Models used include: rational managerial problem-solving, GROW and solution-focused brief therapy. - The focus is on leadership development and business strategy - Feedback from the coachee is used to evaluate - Coaches should be flexible in their approach, using telephone or e-coaching where distance might be a barrier

Dagley, G. (2010)	Exceptional Executive Coaches: Practices and attributes *Qualitative: interviews*	- Executive coaches set themselves apart from other coaches when the work they do is at its most difficult: handling idiosyncratic, complex and entrenched patterns - Great coaching results in behaviour change - Executive coaching can achieve personal outcomes and the realisation of potential - Belief that the coachee is responsible for change - Coaching works well when other factors are taken into account, such as the environment, the executives' own commitment to the process and task-related factors	- Coach is able to keep the coachee motivated and on track to make change - Exceptional coaching includes: engagement, deeper conversation, insight and responsibility - A strong connection with the client is helped by: credibility, empathy and respect, trust-building, rapport-building, subtlety, creating safety and listening skills - Maintaining integrity of approach, even when working with conflict - Able to diagnose and understand underlying factors - Flexibility in referring to a broad range of approaches and methods - Awareness of business and wider organisational context, but with a focus on the individuals developmental needs - Comfortable challenging things which might be difficult or uncomfortable for the client - Refrain from taking an expert or consultative role - Ask good questions; don't give advice - Executives are left with a sense of accomplishment and increased self-belief
De Haan, E., Bertie, C., Day, A. & Sills, C. (2010)	Clients' Critical Moments of Coaching: Toward a "client model" of executive coaching *Mixed methods: questionnaire and interviews*	- Within a coaching session the client focuses on themselves whereas the coach's focus is on them and being helpful - Coaches and coachees might see a 'critical moment' in different ways	- Coaches are able to facilitate critical moments through (highest to lowest): tools/experiences, pertinent questions, quality of listening, personal feedback, advice, suspension of advice, metaphor, challenge, support and space - The coach needs to be able to distinguish between different approaches, for example: between directive and non-directive; challenge and support; content and process; past and future.

De Haan, E., Culpin, V. & Curd, J. (2011)	Executive Coaching in Practice: What determines helpfulness for clients of coaching? *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- There is a link between the coach's learning style, and how helpful they are to the coachee. For example, a coachee who is a theorist values a psychosocial coaching an activist appreciates instruction-led coaching	- Understanding, encouragement, knowledge, empathy, authenticity and involvement are more helpful to coachees than models or techniques - Using a range of interventions rather than depending upon one model is much more effective
Ellinger, A., Hamlin, R. & Beattie, R. (2008)	Behavioural Indicators of Ineffective Managerial Coaching: A cross-national study *Qualitative: observations of 3 studies*	- More research is needed that looks at what a 'bad' coach is – or elements of coaching which are bad as well as good. - Greater awareness is needed around ineffective behaviours of the coach that inhibits the coaching	- A coach is less effective when autocratic, directive, controlling, dictatorial or bureaucratic style - Rather a coach should be empowering, inclusive and participatory; have good communication skills, behave appropriately and give enough time
Grant, A. (2012)	An Integrated Model of Goal-Focused Coaching: An evidence-based framework for teaching and practice *Mixed methods: documentary review and questionnaire*	- Goal-theory has a lot to offer coaching and provides a useful lens but is also a complex process - The coach can help the coaching to be seen as valuable by building a strong working alliance - Success in attaining goals through the coaching will enable clients to look to set and achieve goals beyond the coaching - Attaining goals decreases anxiety - Goal-focused coaching coupled with a person-centred style contributes to success - Coaches are employed to help make positive change in the coachee's personal and professional lives	- The coach needs to be aware of the coachee's engagement with and understanding of coaching whilst selecting goals - There are a number of phases that need to be taken into account: pre-contemplation, preparation and action. Knowing where the client is at will enable the coach to intervene appropriately - An effective coach helps set the goals, facilitate action planning whilst supporting the coachee to be self-regulating - Coach ensures that goals are realistic, workable with tasks that help the coachee to be persistent when there are setbacks, be self-regulating and build resilience - Feedback is a vital component; therefore the coach needs to be able to find ways to monitor progress, especially when goals relate to interpersonal or communication issues which can be harder to monitor - Goals aligned with interests or values are more likely to be satisfying for the coachee, which will help with them engaging with future challenges

Passmore, J., Holloway, M. & Rawle-Cope, M. (2010)	Using MBTI Type to Explore Differences and the Implications for Practice for Therapists and Coaches: Are executive coaches really like counsellors? *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- There are important similarities between personality types of coaches and counsellors, but also some significant differences - Coaches tend to look at the bigger picture to make sense of something, rather than using evidence/facts to inform opinion - Coaches should receive training that suits their personality preference - Executive coaches are usually Idealists (NF) and Rationales (NT); whereas counsellors tend to be Idealists (NF) and Guardians (SJ) - Introverts (I) are more likely to work as counsellors, whilst Extroverts (E) are more likely to work as executive coaches	- Coaches (like counsellors) look for patterns and connections beyond words - Coaches who use CBT as their main approach have stronger thinking and judging preferences - Coaches need to understand their preferences and adjust their approach to best meet the needs of the client - Executive coaches with an Idealist (NF) tendency will be helped by their ability to think strategically, logically and work cooperatively with others - A humanistic style can complement other styles such as CBT or GROW when working on goals - In relation to meaning (intuition) over facts (sensing), coaches have a higher preference for this than the UK population average - In relation to Feeling preference, coaches are similar to the general population, but different to counsellors who tend to have stronger feeling preferences
Walker-Fraser, A. (2011)	An HR Perspective on Executive Coaching for Organisational Learning *Qualitative: interviews*	- Executive coaching should be used strategically for those with senior management potential - A contract between coach, coachee and organisation should reflect this strategy of investment	- A combination of informal mentoring alongside coaching which is performance-focused helps meet organisational needs - The coach operates within a time-frame compared with mentoring which is more longer-term

Appendix 5: Research related to Coaching Psychologists

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of coach	Practices of coach
Grant, A. & Cavanagh, M. (2007) *Qualitative: documentary review*	Coaching Psychology: How did we get here and where are we going?	- Coaches draw on a wide range of frameworks, including psychodynamic, systemic, cognitive behavioural, solution-focused and positive psychology, and an understanding of group dynamics - Anyone can set themselves up as a coach or coach trainer as there are no professional regulations - All coaches should be trained in theoretical approaches to coaching, and should be able to refer clients on where there are clinical issues - Psychology is steeped in rigorous peer-reviewed research, providing a solid grounding for other coaching contexts	- Help clients reach goals, personally and/or professionally - Coaches are equipped to help with significant cognitive and emotional difficulties - Coaches need diagnostic skills, particularly when clients with psychological issues might not be aware or prepared to engage with these - Coaches are trained in the practice of behavioural science and ethical service
Greif, S. (2010) *Quantitative: systematic observation*	A New Frontier of Research and Practice: Observation of coaching behaviour	- Coaches should be aware of both their verbal and non-verbal behaviours	- The coach looks to provide esteem and emotional support, problem-reflection, self-reflection in order to bring about change. Also goal-clarification, resource activation and help with transferring learning to practice. - Non-verbal reinforcements can have both a positive and negative impact and the coach needs to be aware of these.
Law, L., Lancaster, B. & DiGiovanni, N. (2010) *Qualitative: case study*	A Wider Role for Coaching Psychology – Applying Transpersonal Coaching Psychology	- Transpersonal psychology (TP) can be used to work with the coachee's ego in a holistic and transformative way - TP can also impact on the organisation, such as its corporate and social responsibility	- The coach uses TP techniques such as mindfulness exercises, Gestalt techniques, visualisations and NLP, to help the coachee explore the experience in the moment, leading to openness and acceptance. - Coaches need to help cultivate self-insight. - TP can be applied prior to goal-setting stage, during and after to explore possible options beyond the 'I'.

Lopez Moore, K. (2012)	Building a Robustness Against Ageism: The potential role of coaching and coaching psychology *Qualitative: documentary review*	- The coach is working towards enabling the client to develop the necessary skills to coach themselves in the future - Emotional difficulties come from internalised beliefs - The coach is aiming to help the client make thoughtful choices which are aligned with their purpose and identity	- The coach looks to support the client and guide their focus, offer meaning and reflection back to the client that goes beyond their original thinking, and help the client to take action - Offer insight in mind-sets where they are unhelpful of self-limiting - Cognitive behavioural coaching (CBC) can provide a helpful model as it can offer different perspectives when there are emotional blocks or difficulties when a client faces a situation they feel they cannot change
Marsden, H., Humphrey, S., Stopford, J. & Houlder, D. (2010)	Balancing Business Empathy and Psychology in Coaching Practice *Qualitative: case study*	- Coaches need to be aware of how their presence alone impacts upon the coaching - Coaches should help to manage the expectations of coachee's when promoting themselves	- Coaching psychologists have often undergone significant training in both coaching and psychology. Few attend to business skills. - Coaches need to show business empathy and be skilled in models which open up related conversations - The background of the coach usually influences the way the conversation goes. For example, HR professionals discussing managing difficult people or teams. Awareness of this is needed.
McDowell, A. & Smewing, C. (2009)	What Assessments do Coaches use in their Practice and Why? *Quantitative: survey*	- A high percentage (88%) of coaches use psychometric tests as a way of opening up discussions - A small minority avoid psychometric tools because they do not feel that they add value	- Coaches are most likely to use personality assessments, followed by multi-rater/360° then Learning Styles. - These are all regarded highly; however the coaches need to be qualified to use them. - Assessment tools enhance the coaching process
Passmore, J. (2010)	A Grounded Theory Study of the Coachee Experience: The implications for training and practice in coaching psychology *Qualitative: interviews*	- The coach needs to be credible with a rich career history - An emphasis on being reflective can help the client see things from a different perspective - Reflective tasks are more valuable than action-orientated tasks.	- The coach's style is collaborative and discursive - Skills needed include: listening, questioning and summarising alongside coaching techniques that demonstrate competency – an d being open with the client about the techniques being used so that these can be reapplied later by the coachee - Offers a problem-solving style

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Whybrow, A. (2008)	Coaching Psychology: Coming of age? *Qualitative: documentary review*	- Coaching psychology (CP) can be viewed by others as being at the forefront of developing coaching excellence; however they need to communicate clearly what their practice entails - The philosophical underpinnings of coaching psychology places a focus on well-being, enhancement of work and personal life and - CP is usually person-centred and client focused - Those who qualify as psychologists and want to be a coach usually choose not to follow the medical path so that they can turn their attention to empowering others and facilitating self-direction in others - CP's straddle many different contexts and populations - CP's apply psychological methods that facilitate growth and development - CP has its roots in sport - Assumptions are made about the client, that they are autonomous, capable of learning and willing to engage in reflective practice - Professional bodies need to offer accreditation routes to ensure practitioners' practice meet agreed standards	- CP's are able to refer clients on who might have deeper psychological needs - Coaches should focus on the clients' strengths - Often CP's adopt Kolb's (1984) learning cycle as a way of understanding the learning process - Questions are one of the most important tools of coaching, which the coach needs to develop so that they have a good understanding of the different types of questions they might apply - Goal-setting is also important - Cognitive Behaviour Coaching can be useful in enabling long-lasting change - The most common styles of coaching used by CP's are facilitative, solution-focused or cognitive behaviour approach (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006) - Coaches need to be flexible and adapt their style according to the needs of the coachee; therefore they should work collaboratively - The quality of the relationship is crucial to outcomes - A good coach has boundary awareness and management

Appendix 6: Research related to Sports Coaches

Author(s)	Article/Methodology	Philosophy of coach	Practices of coach
Cushion, C., Armour, K. & Jones, R. (2007)	Locating the Coaching Process in Practice: Models 'for' and 'of' coaching *Theoretical paper*	- A much more comprehensive understanding of sports coaching models is needed, as existing models do not reflect the complexity that exists	- Models where coaching is delivered 'for' the coachee tend to be instructional and measured, placing a greater emphasis on teaching that shares information, knowledge and skills - Models 'of' coaching place a higher emphasis on the coaches' athletic experience and knowledge of the sport - The coach needs to be aware of contextual factors, multi-faceted, interpersonal and reciprocal between the coach, athlete and club environment
Erickson, K., Bruner, M., MacDonald, D. & Cote, J. (2008)	Gaining Insight into Actual and Preferred Sources of Coaching Knowledge *Qualitative: interviews*	- Experiential learning is important to coaches - Where coaches learn through trial and error, perhaps more guided mentoring would alleviate this	- Coaches learn more about their role by doing, followed by interaction with other coaches; however they would prefer to learn by reading materials, attending clinics, observing and interacting with other coaches
Gilbert, W., Côté, J. & Mallett, C. (2006)	Developmental Paths and Activities of Successful Sport Coaches *Quantitative: structured interviews*	- Coaches need to be proficient in the sport they are coaching in, with at least several thousand hours of participation - Coaches working at elite levels should specialise in less sports; recreational coaches can work across more sports	- The coach needs to have a good understanding of coaching processes, as well as the context in which they are coaching in
Hoigaard, R., Jones, G. & Peters, D. (2008)	Preferred Coach Leadership Behaviour in Elite Soccer in Relation to Success and Failure *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Coaches need to constantly regulate their behaviour in order to adapt their style responding to periods of success or failure - Coaches also need to adapt to the age and experience of players	- Elite athletes appreciate positive feedback, instruction and training, and democracy as their preferred coach behaviours – whether they are performing well or not - When in periods of failure, athletes prefer instruction and training, positive feedback, democracy and social support

Meyers, M. (2006)	Enhancing Sport Performance: Merging sports science with coaching *Qualitative: document review*	- Coaches need to understand biomechanics as well as relying on their own athletic experiences	- Coaches can use biomechanical analysis techniques to assess performance and response to injury prior to trauma - Coaches need to have a good understanding of physiological and psychological responses in order to deduce patterns of training responses
Nash, C., Sproule, J. & Horton, P. (2008)	Sport Coaches' Perceived Role Frames and Philosophies *Qualitative: interviews*	- Coaches need to have an appropriate style, methods of communication, level of intensity, able to handle demands of time and energy - Ability to develop performance depends on knowledge, values and attitudes to the sport and coaching - Coaches should develop an understanding of their own philosophy as this impacts upon their practice; although coach behaviour doesn't mean you can easily determine their philosophies about coaching - Coaches' views of their role can vary, but as they gain more experience, they also develop greater awareness of the holistic nature of coaching; therefore the coaches' philosophy develops with experience. - Coach training programmes for new coaches portray philosophy in simplistic terms without appreciating how this can be individual, complex and context-specific	- Practice could be enhanced by the development of a contextualised coaching philosophy that was addressed in coach education programmes

Reade, I., Rodgers, W. & Spriggs, K. (2008) New Ideas for High Performance Coaches: A case study of knowledge transfer in sport science *Mixed methods: questionnaire and interviews*	- Sport research contributes to new ideas that can be used by coaches, particularly around mental training and preparation, strength, injury prevention/recovery and fitness. - Coaches often look for new ideas and strategies to use in their coaching, but in a variety of arenas - Coaches looking for new ideas are motivated by wanting to win - Knowledge needs to be specifically applicable and user-friendly for coaches to make use of - Where knowledge is passed on from coach to coach, this could also include harmful or ineffective practice - Coaches should be mentored by sports scientists and other coaches in order to help improve their practice	- Coaches look for new strategies to work with athletes particularly in improving tactics, followed by skill development. Areas ranked the lowest were injury prevention/recovery and nutrition - Coaches are more likely to use clinics/seminars and other coaches as sources of new ideas, as these offer mediation by presenters; and least likely to use research articles (not easily available) and on-line discussions. - Coaches might stumble across a new idea in a seminar, or have a particular problem whereby they proactively seek out ideas by speaking to or observing other coaches - Coaching models need to relate clearly to the context
Rieke, M., Hammermeister, J. & Chase, M. (2008) Servant Leadership in Sport: A new paradigm for effective coach behaviour *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- Servant Leader Coaches (SLCs) are effective in enhancing sport satisfaction - Athletes feel they are getting better training and instruction than those coached by non-servant leaders - SLCs produce athletes who are more intrinsically motivated - A SLC model can positively impact upon the development and use of mental skills needed for sport performance	- SLCs offer personal treatment, even when coaching teams - Mental toughness of athletes does not result from autocratic coaches; rather it results from the coach's ability to produce an environment that emphasise trust, inclusion, humility and service. - SLCs win more than non-SLCs
Rodgers, W., Reade, I. & Hall, C. (2007) Factors that Influence Coaches' Use of Sound Coaching Practices *Quantitative: questionnaire*	- The gender of the coach will have an impact - The higher the athletic achievements of the coach, the greater the impact upon the coachee - The length and number of training sessions per week enables the coach to use more techniques	- Female coaches encourage self-talk; males better at altering the duration and intensity of training - Coaching individually (as opposed to working with a team) allows assessment of goals, breathing and applying vivid imagery

Trzaskoma-Bicserdy, G., Bognar, J., Revesz, L. & Geczi, G. (2007)	The Coach-Athlete Relationship in Successful Hungarian Individual Sports *Qualitative: interviews*	- In order to obtain cooperation from coachee, it is important to work towards respect, belief, intimacy, trust, commitment and expectation - It takes time to build the relationship - The type of sport and contextual and environmental factors will impact on the type of communication used - Coaching relationship is influenced by psychological and social backgrounds, cooperation and family support - The coach leads the sessions and therefore has responsibility for decisions, planning and respecting theirs and the athletes' role.	- Providing emotional support can help make the relationship more effective - Input should be tailor-made to individual needs rather than the sport/discipline's perceived needs - Regular feedback and support is crucial - When relational difficulties occur between coach and athlete, these need to be discussed and resolved quickly - Common and regular goal-setting leads to improvements - A good coach is aware of fluctuating intrinsic/extrinsic motivational levels of athlete and can respond appropriately

Appendix 7: Introductory letter to participants

Dear

My name is Tina Salter and I am a doctoral research student at Oxford Brookes University. As part of my research, I am looking to explore how the approach of a mentor might differ to that of a coach, bearing in mind the different areas in which mentoring and coaching take place.

Six disciplines have been selected, to look more closely at the role of the mentor and coach. These include youth work, education and leadership (for mentoring), and business, psychology and sports (for coaching). You are being approached because you are already involved in one of these areas as a practitioner.

Please find attached further information about the research project, which outlines what would be required from you as a potential participant. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me: 07838 386503 or 10043450@brookes.ac.uk.

Thank you for taking the time to consider getting involved and I very much look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely,

Tina Salter

Appendix 8: Participant Information Sheet

Researcher: Tina Salter

Study title: A comparison of mentor and coach approaches across disciplines.

Purpose of the research and background

The purpose of this research is to explore how mentoring and coaching differ by focusing on how the approach or style of the mentor compares to that of the coach. Research suggests that the area in which the mentor or coach is working will influence the way that role is carried out. Whilst some research has studied how mentoring compares with coaching, no research has explored these roles across different disciplines.

Participant Invite

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this study is to establish how the role of the mentor differs in approach from that of the coach. The participant part of the research (your part) will last over a period of two months, during this time you will be interviewed either in person at your place of work, or over the telephone, for approximately 30-45 minutes. Following the interview, a transcript will be sent to you to verify that you are happy with the recording of the interview, before the data is used for further analysis.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been chosen to take part in this study because you have extensive knowledge and experience of either mentoring or coaching within your sector or field of work. You are therefore well placed to help take part in this study as six areas of practice have been chosen so that comparisons about the mentor and coach roles and approaches can be made in relation to discipline.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving reason.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you decide to take part in this research, your involvement and time commitment would be as follows: Up to 45 minutes for an interview about your views of the practitioner approach to either mentoring or coaching and how this might be influenced by the discipline in which the intervention is taking place. The interview will be audio recorded and a transcript will be produced within one month. You will then be sent a copy of the transcript to check that you are happy for this to be used within the study. Please note that your identity will not be revealed in this study; however the discipline in which you work will be explained in broad terms.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The advantages of this are that you will be involved in the development of an understanding of where and how a mentor's role may differ or correspond to that of a coach. Where clarity can be given about the approaches that mentors and coaches

might take, practitioners can be helped to become more skilled at knowing when mentoring or coaching needs to be applied according to the needs of the client.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected about any individual who takes part in this study will be kept strictly confidential (subject to legal limitations). Confidentiality and privacy will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of research material by de-identifying the participants. The data will be stored in a secure repository. Data generated by the study will be retained in accordance with the University's policy on Academic Integrity. The data generated in the course of the research will be kept securely in paper or electronic form for a period of ten years after the completion of a research project.

What should I do if I want to take part?

If you do wish to take part in this study please email or call me using the contact details below.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the research will form part of my thesis for the Doctorate of Coaching and Mentoring. The thesis will be available from Oxford Brookes library. A summary of the research findings will be available on request.

Data Protection

Any laptops or memory sticks used in field research will be securely code encrypted so that they comply with the Data Protection Act in the UK and will be stored in a secure place. All data will be transferred to Oxford Brookes University for safe storage for 10 years after the conclusion of this research. There are likely to be 28 research participants.

Who is organising and funding the research?

I am conducting the research as a part-time student at the Business School, Wheatley Campus of Oxford Brookes University. I am self-funded.

My supervisory team consists of:

Dr Judie Gannon, Programme Lead Postgraduate Hospitality, Oxford Brookes University. Email: jmgannon@brookes.ac.uk. Telephone: 01865 483837.

Dr Elaine Cox, Programme Lead Coaching and Mentoring, Oxford Brookes University. Email: ecox@brookes.ac.uk. Telephone: 01865 488350.

Who has reviewed the study?

This research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, Oxford Brookes University.

Contact for Further Information

My email is 10043450@brookes.ac.uk. If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, you should contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee on ethics@brookes.ac.uk.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

December 2011.