The SAGE Handbook of Mentoring and Coaching in Education



Sarah J. Fletcher and Carol A. Mullen



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About the Editors



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Combining her passion for web-based technology use to enable teachers to elicit, represent and to disseminate their learning, Sarah has presented and published her

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Enabling research between colleagues in universities and teachers in schools, in Japan and in the UK, represents enactment of her belief in integrating mentoring, coaching and action research. Now running her own consultancy company, Sarah was previously a senior lecturer for mentoring and coaching and prior to that she was trained as one of the first school-based mentors for initial teacher training.



Carol A. Mullen (PhD, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, 1994) is Professor and Chair, Educational Leadership and Cultural Foundations Department, at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, North Carolina, USA. Since 2007, she has been serving in this administrative scholarly leadership capacity. She specializes in mentoring, diversity, and innovations in learning and professional development within the leadership field across higher education and K-12 settings, and she mentors new professionals and collaborates with

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Michael Gasper was a teacher for 27 years, 17 as a Head, in a range of schools covering children aged 4–13 before moving into Early Years and Multi-Agency research. Joining the Centre for Research in Early Childhood (CREC) in 1998, he co-ordinating the team led by Prof Chris Pascal and Prof Tony Bertram

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Susan Groundwater-Smith is an Honorary Professor in the Faculty of Education and Social Work at the University of Sydney where she convenes the Practitioner Research Special Interest Group. A significant part of the group's work is the establishment and ongoing maintenance of the Coalition of Knowledge Building Schools <ckbschools.org/Coalition_Home.html> a hybrid network of schools including both privileged independent schools and those facing the most challenging circumstances. The Coalition has been operational for over a decade, with practitioners making an important contribution to both the professional and academic literature. Over a number of years she has been involved in similar communities with a commitment to teacher agency, professional learning and engagement with action research. She is also Adjunct Professor of Education at the Utrecht University of Applied Sciences where she works with likeminded academics with a particular emphasis upon investigating student learning outside the classroom; specifically in Museums.

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Cathy has researched and published in the fields of languages and language awareness as well as teacher education and has presented papers at national and international conferences in these areas. She now works as an education consultant specialising in teacher education and languages education.

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Christopher Rhodes, PhD, worked in schools and colleges for 14 years prior to taking up a post in higher education. He was previously the Director of Postgraduate Studies in the School of Education at the University of Wolverhampton and currently holds the post of Senior Lecturer in Educational Leadership in the School of Education at the University of Birmingham, UK. He has a long standing interest in the professional learning of staff and in the development of leaders in particular. His research and writing have included a strong focus on mentoring and coaching as mechanisms to promote this learning. His recent work has been associated with exploring staff succession management in schools.

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Editors' Introduction

The SAGE Handbook of Mentoring and Coaching in Education is a leading source of theories and practical applications about mentoring and coaching. We offer readers an authoritative, engaging and useful text that maps state-of-the-art learning for discussion, critical engagement and application. As co-editors, we express our gratitude to our distinguished contributors who have described innovative research and promising practices they have personally initiated as well as experienced, reflected on and assessed. We would also thank SAGE for their support in managing this project for publication of our Handbook.

The terms 'mentoring' and 'coaching' are frequently used interchangeably in education contexts. Just as distinctions among different kinds of mentoring have emerged, so distinctions among different kinds of coaching are beginning to evolve. We have sought to represent convergences between mentoring and coaching practice as well as divergences in meaning where their use leads to agreement and overlap.

The knowledge base of mentoring in education has grown considerably in the last two decades on both sides of the Atlantic. The knowledge base of coaching in education is less well developed, largely because coaching has only come to the fore in education in the past decade, although it has a far longer history, like mentoring. Coaching has tended to focus upon the skills end of the learning continuum and its true potential as an open-ended learning activity is only now being realised. Gilbert Ryle (1949) has reminded us that 'good practice precedes the theory of it', and so it is with coaching, which is becoming widely practiced but

is, as yet, undertheorised and underresearched. Nevertheless, research into coaching is underway in educational contexts and we have taken on the challenge of reporting salient coaching research alongside substantial research pathways into mentoring.

These chapters respond to the rapidly growing interest, which traverses both national and international research on schools, higher education and other educational contexts and disciplines within education. We aim to widen the conversational circle about mentoring and coaching theory and practice from our diverse work locations that span the globe. This *Handbook* offers the essential reference point for educators and those involved in educational provision. Chapters aim to provide readers with a unifying, cohesive picture of the past, the current and the perceived future era of mentoring and coaching.

Academics, internationally, are realising the potential of mentoring and coaching and developing research capacity among institutions' own teaching staff as well as in partnership with teachers working in schools. This interest is reflected by ongoing support for the British Educational Research Association's (BERA) Special Interest Group (SIG) for Mentoring and Coaching and the American Educational Research Association's (AERA) Mentorship and Mentoring Practices SIG. These SIGs, founded and coordinated by the co-editors of this *Handbook*, have grown robust and 'gone global' with sessions and e-seminars focused on mentoring and coaching across professions and national borders.

We are committed as contributors, editors and editorial advisers to present the evidence base and alternative worldviews in which concepts of both are untangled and substantiated. Importantly, educational capacity for learning institutions and relationships is facilitated through those we know to be 'scholar practitioners' who experience breakthrough ideas that are both theorised and enacted. We recognise that mentoring and coaching theory are not simple or uniform concepts but complex educational ideas that inevitably change because of their contextual dependency, philosophical rootedness and political idiosyncrasies. We also recognise that mentoring and coaching call for human agency activism that transforms institutions, relationships and individuals and that necessitate the collaborative work of change agents, educational professionals like our readers and ourselves.

Chapters in our *Handbook* focus on mentoring and coaching outline perspectives that have an international appeal, a provocative meaning and an immediate utility. As contributors, we all focus on mentoring and coaching for *learning*. We are aiming to move debate towards a worldview of interventionist education aimed at such crucial initiatives as professional support for all educators and students and social inclusion of all students and adults. All contributors were invited to respond to these editor-generated guidelines for shaping their content and writer's perspectives:

1 Provide contextual definitions of educational mentoring and coaching for education and give an explanation of why the form of professional learning that the contributor is writing about matters.

- 2 Explain the framework or theory the contributor is using to study, explain, or enact, mentoring or coaching for education.
- 3 Describe the role of policy or legislation on the mentoring or coaching context being explained.
- 4 Set out the effect on learning of the mentoring or coaching process/program/situation being described and identify the sources consulted for any claims made about the effects.
- 5 Describe practical application(s) that best demonstrate the topic, as in the processes or programs, which support the contributor's ideas and the broader frameworks of professional development, accountability, or other that serve or impede efforts.
- 6 Possibly use a metaphor or image to illustrate the author's concept, message, or topic of mentoring or coaching in educational terms.

We hope our readers will use this *Handbook* to add substance and clarity to their own mentoring and coaching work and to any new initiatives, including furthering construct developments and assessment practices. We have presented democratising challenges in these pages, with the goal of inspiring all of us to work towards promoting the success of all students, schools and professionals as part of our vision of an enriched global learning community. At the reader's fingertips are educational ideas, practices and tips that they can use to make a difference in educational terms. The contributions to this *Handbook* show how mentoring and coaching can be effective as a series of organisational and interpersonal relationships which connect with the values and attitudes, understandings and skills that characterise educational practice as *learning*.

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SECTION 1

Overviews of Mentoring and Coaching





Mentoring: An Overview

Carol A. Mullen

CONCEPTIONS OF MENTORING THEORY

Mentoring is typically thought of as a personal, long-term professional relationship that deepens over time, with a ripple effect (Varney, 2009). Mentors' industry on behalf of their protégés produces a 'multiplying investment' in people's lives and communities (Moerer-Urdahl and Creswell, 2004). From this perspective, mentoring is, metaphorically speaking, an investment in the younger generation. When viewed alternatively as a developmental relationship that is sustained and valued for humanistic reasons, the root metaphor of mentoring changes to a journey. Mentoring as a journey encompasses both or all parties — implied is the notion that learning is open-ended, creative, and uncertain, and as well as subject to unknowns. While ways of understanding relationships vary depending on epistemological outlook, belief systems, and more, the idea I wish to foster is that mentorships are developmental, intentional, and generative. From this perspective, mentors foster critically supportive, nurturing relationships that actively promote learning, socialization, and identity transformation within their work environments, organizations, and professions (Johnson, 2006; Mullen, 2011a).

Theorized to involve more than the transfer of skills within dyadic (one-to-one) relationships, mentoring theories emphasize these value-laden ideas:

• an educational process engaging individuals and groups in reciprocal learning, networking, and sponsoring (Tharp and Gallimore, 1995/1988);

- a systemic reform strategy that builds capacity in formal and informal ways to provide assistance and support socialization (Crow and Matthews, 1998);
- a social justice perspective on mentor—mentee identity transformation with respect to cultural differences (Tillman, 2001; Young and Brooks, 2008); and
- a discovery tool for investigating sociocultural elements of international and diverse contexts (Kochan and Pascarelli, 2004).

Theoretically, mentoring encompasses different phases (Kram, 1985/1988; see also Chapter 6) and functions (Rose, 2003), and it has traditional and alternative meanings. Mentoring theory is an educational idea that is inevitably changing, situated, and partial because of its contextual dependency, philosophical rootedness, and political idiosyncrasies. As captured by the worldviews postulated in *The* SAGE Handbook of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, mentoring incorporates particular skills, values, and understandings, culturally based concepts, school contexts, adult and higher education contexts, inclusion, and research issues (see Sections 2 through 7). However, the points of view I express herein do not speak as a kind of general truth for the contributors to this text. Our mentoring experiences and backgrounds are differently situated and, as will become clear to readers, our lenses for viewing mentoring are pluralistic in that these do not amount to a single breakthrough idea or even consensual understanding of the educational process. As contexts framing this chapter, in addition to the, primarily North American, mentoring literature and chapters in this book, I have drawn upon research and experiences across public schools and universities in the United States.

Mentoring phases

Mentoring relationship phases are addressed in Chapter 6, which describes the operationalization of initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition.

Mentoring functions

Two major functions of healthy developmental relationships are psychosocial and career. Regardless of discipline and perspective, these functions are considered pivotal to any academic mentoring relationship or program. The career function has had more prominence because of the description of 'sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging work assignments', as well as professional ethics (Johnson, 2006) that become activated when mentees network and seek employment (Young et al., 2004).

The need for mentors to contribute to the psychosocial development of their protégés has been a more gradual unfolding, with recent attention on learners who are female, culturally ethnic, and nontraditional in other ways (Mullen, 2008; Tillman, 2001; Young and Brooks, 2008). Psychosocial functions incorporate role modelling, social acceptance, and counselling; the psychosocial dimension of mentoring is enacted when mentors actively listen, provide advice, and encourage development (Nora and Crisp, 2008). Psychosocial mentoring

includes such benefits as friendship and emotional support, enhanced self-esteem, and confidence (Darwin, 2000; Hansman, 2003; Young et al., 2004). However, psychologists have proposed that the friendship element of educational relationships is a thorny issue due to the ethical dilemmas that mentoring can elicit (e.g., Johnson, 2006).

ORIGINS AND OF MENTORING THEORY AND ITS DISTINCTIVENESS

In the 1980s, Kram (1985/1988) established mentoring as a workplace model and it has since proliferated in such forms as social psychology, learning theory, adult theory, organizational development, leadership theory, and systems thinking. Mentorship historically involves training youth or adults in skills building and knowledge acquisition (Merriam, 1983), provoking the metaphor of mentoring as training. Technical mentoring involves the transfer of skills within authoritative and apprenticeship contexts whereas alternative mentoring questions hierarchical learning and favors new forms of socialization (Darwin, 2000; Hansman, 2003).

I believe that mentoring and peer coaching are often mistakenly interchanged even though some researchers have argued that they are similar because they share commonalities. Coaching, like mentoring, can be difficult to define, largely because these practices are multifaceted, ambiguous, and contextually driven (Gallucci, Van Lare, Yoon, and Boatright, 2010). Briefly, peer coaching, like mentoring, has been construed as a nonjudgmental and nonevaluative approach to professional development. While some theorists think of coaching as a type of mentoring, others see the exact reverse – that is, mentoring as a type of coaching. Coaching is informed by a unique set of principles and practices embedded within learning and instructional contexts (see Chapter 2). As another muddled entanglement, mentoring and induction concepts tend not to be distinguished, most notably at refined levels. Frequently, in fact, researchers and practitioners see mentoring (and coaching) as elements of induction theories and programs. Effective site-based induction programs are content-based initiatives in which new teachers are 'mentored' within a 'highly organized and comprehensive staff development process' (Wong, 2004: 107). However, more needs to be known on the theory and empirical levels about the role of 'instructional coaching', for example, especially given that it dovetails with a proliferation of district-wide reforms (Gallucci et al., 2010).

Mentoring is theory steeped and it is probably more developmentally based than coaching. Cornerstone tenets of mentoring are lifelong, humanistic learning, and reflection upon learning as well as social self-reflection by the engaged mentoring parties. *Humanistic mentoring*, which is integral to voluntary mentoring, focuses on 'care and nurturance' of the protégé over the duration of a long-term relationship (Varney, 2009: 128). Whether traditional or progressive, the learning relationship is sustained, although the character of it changes in

the separation and redefinition phases once the relationship has been successfully cultivated. The mentoring relationship is also intrinsically focused, with feedback geared toward deepened understandings and sensitive practices reflected within the learning process that includes uses of constructive criticism in writing and communicating. In its alternative forms, mentoring is a developmental human project that promotes identity growth, extending beyond pre-set goals, planned activity, and one-way learning. From this perspective, protégé and mentor alike are adult learners engaged in new learning, relearning, and unlearning in changing organizational contexts that demand a new view of educational and other occupational careers not as hierarchical and static but as fragmented and in flux (Allen and Eby, 2007). They benefit from reciprocal learning, activism, and agency that change how they work with others and how they interface with their organizations to model new ways of interacting, learning, leading, and policymaking (Mullen and Tuten, 2010).

TRADITIONAL MENTORING THEORY

Traditional mentoring theory encompasses skills-based, goals-oriented learning passed down through generations. Professionals tend to carry out this work one-to-one in exclusive learning arrangements. Veteran teachers and school principals, for example, mentor by nurturing, advising, befriending, and instructing, and they serve as advocates, advisors, and promoters. Accordingly, seasoned practitioners shape how novice personnel (e.g., newly qualified teachers) learn through professional development as part of a larger structure informed by school improvement and student achievement goals (Portner, 2008).

Traditional and alternative theories alike describe, to varying degrees, the principles governing the mentoring gestalt of places and people. Synergistic leadership (defined later) can be adapted to this broader framework of mentoring (see Mullen, 2011b, for a fuller discussion). Each theory is itself a philosophical framework for explaining human interaction, organizational structure, and cultural change. The alternative models identified (e.g., collaborative co-mentoring) share fundamental principles and core values that promote a view of mentoring as greater than the sum of its parts. The spectrum of traditional and alternative theories of mentoring is influential in the interpersonal arenas of learning, socialization, and professional development, as well as the organizational functions of leadership, management, and preparation. Adult learning (e.g., lifelong learning) and feminist principles underscore some of these models (Hansman, 2003; see also Chapter 24), as do systems and instrumental thinking (Lick, 1999).

Mandated mentoring theory and US government policy

Mandated mentoring is at the extreme end of the prescribed spectrum of teaching and learning where the metaphor of mentoring as mandated prevails (Mullen, 2011c). Mentoring newly qualified teachers is a reform strategy that US state agencies are prescribing. On the one hand, newly qualified teacher mentoring is a technical, evaluative activity rather than a high-quality professional development experience. On the other hand, policy expectations for mentoring help ensure that new teachers, most importantly, receive the support and assistance they often badly need. In fact, for many teacher mentors, policy demands frame professional development and set in place top-down expectations for school relations, including the work of experienced teachers with their new colleagues (Britton, Paine, Pimm, and Raizen, 2003). When policy is prescriptive about expectations for promoting teacher retention, for example, mentors tend to focus on classroom management strategies that address emotional barriers and curriculum knowledge deficits; when concern is about achievement, mentoring is typically utilized as a means for cultivating instruction and student learning (Portner, 2008).

Given the current policy climate, mandated mentoring has been given credence (Mullen, 2011c). This oxymoronic concept is associated with possibilities because it necessitates staff development for and by public school teachers, giving professional collegial learning importance and visibility. Mentoring along these lines can help schools to satisfy requirements related to induction and certification, teacher retention and performance standards, all while assisting novice teachers in their adjustment to a school's culture. While such mentoring seemingly reflects a higher commitment to new teachers, it introduces inescapable pitfalls. One such problem is the expectation of assigned mentors and protégés to heavily document their learning activity using prescribed templates that shape the direction of the mentoring work and interfere with progress. Importantly, mandated mentoring can complement voluntary mentoring but they should not be confused. Contrasting with voluntary mentoring, then, mandated mentoring is an educational reform initiative that compartmentalizes in mechanistic ways the goals and outcomes of mentoring, as well as the relational work of veteran teachers and novice teachers (see Chapter 20).

Voluntary as well as mandated mentoring build the productive capacity of people and organizations, but voluntary mentoring, transpired through informal, spontaneous, as well as creative communication, can enhance the development of the whole person (Varney, 2009). Required mentoring, formalized through program initiatives, is geared toward the systemic reform goals of school improvement and student achievement. It *requires* teachers to mentor and be mentored, and protégés are expected to make documented gains that may feel impersonal and evaluative. This kind of mentoring occurs when teachers are forced to commit to a relationship that is otherwise presumed voluntary, nonevaluative, and humanistic. In constrast, *humanistic mentoring* focuses on nurturing the mentee as a whole person within voluntary relationships (Varney, 2009: 128).

While the heightened expectations that accompany mandated mentoring could enhance veteran teachers' performance and improve organizational efforts, the voluntary spirit and integrity of mentoring can be jeopardized. To what extent voluntary mentoring relationships can be successfully formalized (in reality, regulated) depends on many variables. The personal connection between mentors and mentees is not replicable, and, moreover, organizations typically treat mentoring as an 'add-on' responsibility. This approach contradicts the sustainability goals of a mandated mentoring agenda.

The purposes and uses of mentoring have greatly shifted in the current policy context. Mandated mentoring and voluntary mentoring each have merits and valuable goals and, where thoughtfully facilitated, can even be implemented simultaneously. Conceptions of mentoring as a voluntary professional service have changed since American legislators launched accountability requirements for the supervision of new public school teachers. Policy initiatives focus on teacher induction as a primary solution to teacher attrition and quality deficits, citing the responsibility of veteran teachers in assisting newly qualified teachers to adapt to student diversity and other school climate issues (Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Portner, 2008). Since the 1980s, policies have spearheaded mentoring goals aimed at closing the achievement gaps of ethnic and socioeconomic *student groups* and making equitable resource distribution for low-performing schools (Luebchow, 2009).

Because intentional mentoring can positively affect retention and satisfaction with the profession, it is being harnessed as a resource to help meet state accountability goals. Governmental reform policies require mentoring programs for satisfying such goals through pay for performance and other compensatory incentives. However, the master teacher is not envisioned as someone who understands complexities of learning and who inspires growth in novice teachers (Wong, 2004); rather, some state governments cast the role of mentor as an instructional technician with specific credentials for fulfilling coaching and evaluative functions. *Mentor* is, to the states, a public school expert who has 'demonstrated mastery of the critical competencies for a job role' and the protégé is someone who possesses the required certifications and who is assisted by the expert to develop 'mastery of specific educational competencies' (North Carolina State Board of Education, 2009: para. 28).

State directives for public school systems require master teachers to successfully mentor new inductees, teach low-performing students, and when feasible move to high-needs schools to provide critical support. Congress has set the bar, mandating that districts redistribute teachers and increase the salaries of those teaching in disadvantaged schools. Master teachers who are National Board certified are urged to instruct in high-need schools, with carrot-like incentives ranging from salary increases to better working conditions (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards [NBPTS], 2009).

The adaptation of mentoring as a mandated policy mechanism can turn mentoring into a mere achievement measure for schools for purposes related only to school improvement, accreditation, and testing. Changes in laws have established the role of systems thinking for schools and 'outside—in' accountability for student achievement goals. Mentoring is infused with leading,

teaching, and supervising, and notably teacher evaluation (Mullen, 2005). Note the trend in this direction over time: the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) endorsed a view of classroom teachers as change agents and mentors supporting student achievement. The Carnegie Report led to the establishment of the NBPTS, which has infused mentoring expectations into the National Board process. National Board certified teachers are thus required to use their expertise in mentoring other teachers to become accomplished educators.

Former US President George Bush's No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 brought issues of mentoring – specifically professional development and collaboration among administrators, teachers, and parents – squarely into line with standardized testing and stronger accountability (US Department of Education, 2002). This program requires a highly qualified teacher in every classroom across America. Implying a direct correlation between student test scores and teaching quality, measures of teacher effectiveness and high-stakes testing have since flourished. The accountability context deflates opportunities for teacher growth and meaningful learning. Teacher mentors are expected to fulfill previously supervisory functions and are charged with such bureaucratic mandates as standardizing the curriculum and controlling teacher behavior within high-pressure testing environments. Rewards and sanctions are linked to student scores, school grade, and reputation.

Because mentoring summons notions of civic virtue and goodness, it is useful as a political tool. Rhetorically exploited, mentoring concepts (e.g., 'mentor teacher') have been co-opted and aligned with national standards. As one effect, policymaking has advanced technical mentoring in a contemporary guise; goals and processes of management have been resurrected as a source of empowerment. Within education, technical mentoring systems and processes have magnetic appeal, making it easier for mentoring to be mandated, not just formalized.

Mentoring sometimes has to be formalized, even mandated, or it simply will not occur. As documented, voluntary mentoring involves greater commitment and risk because the promised assistance does not always occur (Blake-Beard, 2001) and formal mentoring has yielded numerous benefits that include support for new professionals (Mullen, 2008). Thus, school teams formalize mentoring at the building level through programs, learning communities, and other avenues, in effect collaboratively deciding upon their performance expectations of veteran and novice staff members. Because some research has established that mentors and mentees prefer that mentoring processes be as informal (hence 'natural') as possible (Noe, 1988), leaders have been encouraged to build mentoring programs alongside those who will inherit them. While pitfalls can occur with both types of mentoring – required and voluntary – each has also been effectively fostered as well as combined.

Mandatory mentoring takes formal mentoring to another level, though, in that it is required by governmental policy. Because it is in an early stage of evolution,

it remains to be seen whether mandated mentoring is a viable solution to teacher attrition, low student achievement, and negative school culture. What we do know is that mentoring in effective voluntary-required configurations can compensate for situations bereft of teacher bonding and collegiality, and replete with low morale and satisfaction (Varney, 2009).

No schoolwide mentoring process is free of concerns, regardless of the type(s) of mentoring that is adopted. Human dynamics complicate mentoring situations, rendering them unpredictable, and so any mentoring process will have blemishes. As Fullan (1999: 3) cautioned, dynamics can be 'designed and stimulated in the right direction but can never be controlled'. School teams that use mentoring theory to make educational policy potent for their context might find it particularly useful to experiment by creatively combining mandated mentoring elements and voluntary mentoring elements to tap into the benefits of each. By doing so, they may benefit from new networks that renew their learning community.

ALTERNATIVE MENTORING THEORIES AND PRACTICES

Alternative mentoring theory expands upon and even resists traditional mentoring theory, which is the underlying worldview of systems and policies that treat mentoring as a commodity to be traded and exchanged within a market economy (e.g., schools). While alternative mentoring theories in their plurality are budding in the educational literature, traditional mentoring theories remain dominant in the discourse. Mentoring change theorist Darwin (2000) argues that awareness of alternative mentoring is important for redressing this imbalance and transforming educational cultures. Alternative mentoring theories include collaborative mentoring (co-mentoring), mosaic mentoring, multiple-level co-mentoring, and synergistic leadership. To the contrary, technical (or functionalist) mentoring exemplifies traditional mentoring theory, assuming pervasive forms, such as apprenticeships, that perpetuate closed systems. Alternative and traditional mentoring concepts are ideologically disparate but overlap in theory and practice.

The historical and originating antecedents of mentoring have set the stage for the countercultural thrust of alternative conceptions. Alternative mentoring theorists critique traditional mentoring relationships and systems as developmentally limited and exclusive of diverse populations. Traditional mentoring theories are construed as having an underlying masculinist perspective that noncritically assumes the mentoring birthright of an entrenched power class (e.g., White males); normative ideologies perpetuate moral authority in areas that govern sexuality, religion, and citizenship. As a means of enabling social and intellectual capital along these lines, traditional mentoring sustains a biased class structure, facilitating only the psychosocial and career benefits of mentoring for

some groups by some groups (Darwin, 2000). Critics have exposed paternalism, dependency, privilege, and exclusion in mentoring contexts. Alternative theories present a breakaway mindset from defunct hierarchical systems, disempowering relationships, and exploitative arrangements.

Democratic theorists wrestle with new worldviews that celebrate radical humanist conceptions of relationships and systems. These epistemologies underscore (1) collaborative and cross-cultural learning partnerships that are egalitarian and less role-defined, and (2) transformed learning organizations that model interdependence, inclusiveness, and openness (Hansman, 2003; Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2004).

Unlike functionalist mentoring approaches, alternative mentoring awakens theories and practices of empowerment that are critical about and mindful of uses and abuses of power, and that are steeped in nonauthoritative dynamics, progressive learning, and open solutions. Organizing principles are used to foster holistic development, cultural engagement, and institutional change. Mentoring as an equalizing force requires a commitment to ethical agendas involving power, virtue, and circumstance (Hansman, 2003). Intentional mentoring promotes critical care and fosters satisfying but challenging learning environments (Galbraith, 2003). While an ethic of care is associated with interdependence and interpersonal nurturance in educational relationships, 'critical care' is activist oriented, and dedicated to fostering diverse social spaces of learning (Antrop-González and De Jesús, 2006). Alternative learning contexts span mentoring networks, formal mentoring programs, professional learning communities, coalitions, alliances, cross-cultural mentoring, inquiry/writing groups, peer coaching, professional and political activism, staff development, and e-mentoring and virtual learning (Mullen, 2005). Through such conduits, mentors remedy archaic notions of education, support quality in student learning, mobilize underrepresented groups, transform closed systems, and problem solve within organizations that they are aiming to change.

Ideologies of alternative mentoring are value laden, promoting the values of collaboration, co-mentorship, democratic learning, humanistic mentoring, and shared leadership. Democratic learning can be formal or informal, with the team helping all members develop the desired knowledge and/or skills. Members participate in the democratization of learning through team building, setting such goals as identifying and resolving conflict. Teams and leaders facilitate shared leadership and collaborative decision making in ways that function democratically or autocratically (Mullen, 2005).

Institutional leaders who mentor in nontraditional ways strive to make a difference and concurrently learn from others (e.g., co-mentorship). They mentor beyond the demands of their position, seeking to educate mentees outside the supervisory or advisory context. In fact, psychologists describe mentorship as a superordinate function 'above and beyond' teaching and instruction. Alternative mentors take risks, experiment with ideas, exert influence, and confront adverse

forces within workplaces and society. Mentors who are transparent provide feedback and elicit it, and seek understanding of the influence of their ideas on others while actively improving themselves. Moreover, the social justice advocates among them confront barriers that constrict access or learning for disenfranchised groups (Darwin, 2000), and they integrate a diversity of ideas and people in their mentoring and leadership (Irby, Brown, Duffy, and Trautman, 2002; Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2004).

Collaborative mentoring theory

Also known as *relationship co-mentoring*, collaborative mentoring is a proactive force that unites individuals or groups in a reciprocal, developmental relationship situated within a dynamic context for learning. This theory is founded upon feminist postmodern values that, when effectively operationalized, bring women and minorities into educational networks (Bona, Rinehart, and Volbrecht, 1995). A goal is to mobilize social equality among individuals of various statuses and ability levels, enabling productive synergy and solidarity (Kochan and Trimble, 2000; Mullen and Tuten, 2010).

Collaborative mentoring is key to the viability of think tanks, such as mentoring mosaics and cross-cultural mentorships in which vision, commitment, discipline, and synergy all play a role (Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2002). Co-mentoring theory is also evident within dyadic mentoring relationships, engaging adult learners through power sharing, turn taking, co-leading, dialogue, constructive feedback, collegiality, transparency, and authentic learning. When learning is reciprocal, mentors and mentees function as adult educators and learners (Galbraith, 2003). More powerfully, as partners in learning they overcome cognitive distancing, shedding the power-laden stigma of 'mentor' and 'mentee' (Mullen, 2005). Because co-mentors have deep personal and professional influence, their microcosmic actions can change their institutional cultures for the better.

Mentoring mosaic theory

A significant alternative conception of mentoring is Kram's (1985/1988) 'relationship constellation,' also known as mentoring mosaic (Tharp and Gallimore, 1995/1988). Even though network mentoring was articulated more than 25 years ago, it is only more recently affecting educational studies. The mentoring mosaic theory posits that members' shared interests and respective strengths activate peer interaction. Members who are primary mentors (e.g., recognized instructional leaders) and secondary mentors interchange roles as mentors and mentees, sponsoring the learning of all through a synergistic, flexible structure. This network is indispensable for cultivating peer mentors, compensating for the dissatisfactions of traditional mentoring and facilitating team projects

(Mullen, 2005). Indeed, if mentoring is defined more as communal learning than individualistic activity, then teams that extend to professional (and virtual) learning communities engage in nurturing, advising, befriending, and instructing. Within such energizing networks, distinctions between 'mentor' and 'mentee' blur as subject specialists, counselors, protectors, advocates, and more emerge. The camaraderie, interdependence, identity development, and ownership that this model supports underscore the value of how learning and mastery are achieved (process), not just what is learned (product) (Galbraith, 2003).

Multiple-level co-mentoring theory

Multiple-level co-mentoring theory underscores facilitating co-mentoring at various levels of an organization via school-based focus teams, study groups, and leadership (Lick, 1999). Serious research and inquiry aimed at reform initiates a mentoring process that is not limited to classrooms or certain groups. Social cultural systems must be deliberately reinvented and teacher resistance confronted through self-directed, authentic engagement.

Collaborative mentoring is essential to a climate of interdependence, commitment, and empowerment, as well as participative leadership. Principals, teachers, and staff decide what changes are necessary, and they spearhead and monitor them. Systems thinking, change management, instrumental methods, and co-mentoring techniques are all embedded functions. Entire systems are the target of change and outsiders (e.g., school boards) may sponsor or initiate the reforms. Stakeholder buy-in and planned transitions accentuate ownership of the change process. Design scripts adapted from change management theorists (e.g., Peter Senge) guide this mentoring theory's implementation.

Synergistic leadership theory

Synergistic leadership theory, while not identified as a mentoring theory typology per se, can be interpreted as such – it offers a holistic alternative to traditional mentoring. This theory is framed around feminist, postmodern interpretations of public schooling and administrator preparation. Male-based theories often do not accommodate 'feminine' values and approaches, such as collaborative relationships and diversity (Ardovini, Trautman, Brown, and Irby, 2010). The changing reality is that most individuals in university-based leadership preparation programs are female (and increasingly culturally diverse). Synergistic leadership theory promotes the integration of four factors: 'leadership behavior, organizational structure, external forces, and attitudes, beliefs, and values' (Irby et al., 2002: 312). Arguably, synergistic leadership enhances collaborative and multiple-level mentoring through an overarching but situated view of 'the feminist organization' in which leadership, decision making, and power are shared experiences for all cultures.

CRITIQUES OF MENTORING THEORIES

Alternative mentoring theories do not simply present mentoring in an entirely new form. In fact, some are predicated upon technical approaches to mentoring, such as the apprenticeship model, while mandated mentoring models influence others. Postmodernist theory gives space to co-existences and continuities in educational discourse, as well as contradictions that 'force' creativity in learning, teaching, and leading (English, 2003; Irby et al., 2002). This is not to imply that assumptions guiding administrative management and leadership theories, including mentoring theories, should fester undetected. Given that co-mentoring theory was birthed as a feminist critique of traditional mentoring, it is a catalyst for changing traditional practices, hierarchical systems, and homogeneous cultures (Bona et al., 1995). For example, while the conception of mentor as above and separate from follower is outdated, it has a foothold in modern-day notions of mentor expertise and apprenticeship.

Political ideologies inform most alternative mentoring theories. As postmodern feminists have argued, because career advancement is a protected 'investment', mentors 'represent dominant cultural values' (Hansman, 2003: 103). Hence, intentional and reflective alternative mentors seek to diversify school systems by critically analyzing the replication of organizational values and generating creative solutions that open up access, expand learning options, and generate new knowledge. In contrast, mentors guided by 'technical rationality' act in ways commensurate with knowledge founded upon untested faith and inherited norms (English, 2003). From a postmodern perspective, multiple-level mentoring reforms resemble a management makeover for schools dependent upon overloaded personnel. While envisioned democratically as change agents, practitioners can be subjected to doing even more labor without compensation. A school's transformation can occur, then, at a serious cost to an organization's wellbeing. Alternative theorists are not ideological purists but rather borrowers of different frameworks. As another example, collaborative mentors who initiate the apprenticeship of nontraditional individuals enact a double helix of shared power and systems thinking. Perhaps mentoring today is less about co-mentoring than a kind of process model for enacting collaborative (and systems) concepts (Cannon, 2003).

Technical mentoring perpetuates a 'foundational epistemology' (English, 2003) that circumvents 'why' and 'what if' questions, sociocultural and political influences, and the regulatory control inherent in it (Mullen, 2005). While ideologically restrictive, technical mentoring is useful for support within practical apprenticeships and skills-building contexts. Human interaction, positive engagement, and fair treatment can be upheld in this context. Hence, one should not assume that technical mentoring has no educational value or that it cannot coincide with robust forms of mentoring. On the other hand, critics (e.g., Darwin, 2000; Freire, 1997; Hansman, 2003) believe that the power and authority, and the efficiency and competitive values implicit in technical mentoring, undermine the

capacity for democratic mentoring at human and organizational levels, and so should not be tolerated.

POLICY AND INTERNATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF MENTORING THEORY

On the education policy front, mandatory mentoring is an oxymoron signaling a hidden curriculum where teachers are *required* to mentor and make documented gains (Mullen, 2005). While the mentoring of new practitioners is vital to their success, the US, the UK, and some other countries are increasingly mandating some version of school-based and district-wide mentoring (Mullen, 2011c; see also Chapter 20). Such trends are most likely an outgrowth of evidence-based educational policy that set expectations for teaching practice that bypass complex social roles and particular contexts with instrumental goals that turn the education profession into a metric-driven 'technological enterprise' (Biesta, 2007). Consequently, new teacher mentoring resembles more of a technical, evaluative activity than a process for fostering professional collaboration.

This is not to say that evidence-based practice cannot be successfully tailored to educational contexts - new mentoring as well as coaching interventions and applications can be designed to have a positive effect (see Chapter 26). Perhaps this is one reason why prescribed mentoring in public schools at the individual and collective teacher level has seemingly had mixed reactions, with some teachers receptive or noncritical and others citing unresolved tensions and barriers to change (Hutinger and Mullen, 2007). From a critical theory perspective, schools are objects of change-based mentoring that strips away the voluntary nature of this act. Governmental authorities want to reduce teacher attrition; this is not an issue per se. Rather, wholesale, top-down accountability expectations may be confounding the very integrity associated with mentoring. To what extent mentoring relationships, which are personal, contextual, and cultural in nature, can be formalized (in reality, regulated and codified) depends on many variables that are confounded by dynamics involving uniqueness at the individual and contextual level. Hence, mentoring practice does not always reach its ideals – moreover, organizations typically treat it as an 'add-on' responsibility rather than a professional calling for which educators should be recognized.

Arguably, then, the adaptation of mentoring as a policy mechanism has rendered this educational learning process an accountability-driven achievement measure for schools. Changes in US law have mechanized mentoring across the platforms of leading, teaching, and supervising, and especially teacher evaluation. Because mentoring summons notions of civic virtue and goodness, it is useful as a political tool. Rhetorically exploited, mentoring concepts related to professional learning and lifelong growth for teachers (e.g., 'instructional

mentorship') are part of the national leadership standards. As one effect, policies advance technical forms of mentoring in a contemporary guise as best practice. Goals of management (e.g., 'accountability safeguards') have been resurrected as a source of empowerment (e.g., 'cross-cultural mentoring'). Within education, technical mentoring processes and systems are in wide use; these need to be interrogated and modernized.

Studies of mentoring in an international context that more fully attend to diversity and cultural issues are vital. These initiate new understandings of non-American cultures, disenfranchised populations, aboriginal cultures, and feminine leadership. For example, Schlosberg, Irby, Brown, and Yang (2010) investigated a private school in an impoverished part of Mexico whose leaders were committed to serving at-risk students. Results underscored the importance of leaders developing a balanced leadership style as they facilitate change in difficult circumstances. MacCallum and Beltman's (2003) study of aboriginal youth culture in Australia produced insight into the cultural integration of mentoring partners in linguistically enriched mentoring programs. Research that has a global education orientation, albeit resembling a roughly fitted cobbled walkway at this time, makes possible knowledge discovery of cultural contexts and commonalties and differences across them (Kochan and Pascarelli, 2004). This body of research is at an early but promising stage of development, as can be seen from chapters in this book that are informed by and situated within various educational and cultural contexts across countries (e.g., Chapters 12, 20, 21, and 26). Publishing trends suggest that we will see much more study of education on an international scale whilst innovations in mentoring will keep springing up faster than research can keep pace.

PARTING WORDS

Journeying forward as an international research community with this book as one of many touchstones, we are each called upon to tap into our dreams of a better world that are implicit in our productive critiques. Mentoring as a higher calling incites imaginative and democratic civic participation in the global arena for which mentor-activists hold responsibility and stewardship to their constituents.

As educators grapple with mentoring theory, innovate using its desirable tenets, and report outcomes, they may see growth that is more desirable and dynamic. Practitioners can benefit from translating educational ideas in their daily practice through intentional, multifaceted mentoring interventions. Mentoring that is centered in shared principles and practices that are internally generated create the conditions not only for innovation to be possible but also for a desirable education. Mentoring that stimulates democratic civic participation builds capacity beyond the microcosmic, grassroots level to form bridges that bring together different peoples, places, and countries.

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Coaching: An Overview

Sarah J. Fletcher

INTRODUCTION

Where the education world's attention was transfixed on mentoring between 1995 and 2005, it has dramatically shifted towards coaching since then. As a relatively recent initiative in education practice, coaching is perceived as being nearer to the practical than the theoretical end of the mentoring continuum and remains scantly researched. Such research as there is, tends to be exploratory. A somewhat parallel situation can be observed in the research archives about mentoring. This is because, in part, mentor and coach practitioners do not tend to research their own practice. There are notable exceptions (Fletcher, 2000), but the research has largely been undertaken by non-practitioners, although in coaching Tolhurst (2006) is a noteworthy exception. A further reason why coaching remains under-researched at the present time is that few universities have, as yet, become involved in coach preparation to the same extent as they have been in mentor development. There are some signs of change (Silver, Lochmill, Copland and Tripps, 2009).

The teacher who authored the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) Report in 2003, set out the professional values, as he perceived them, which relate to leadership coaching, while citations and extracts in the report predominantly draw on coaching literature and are mainly from business. Lofthouse and colleagues' CfBT study (Lofthouse, Leat, Towler, Hall and Cummings, 2010), on the other hand, does focus on educational sources and offers us a definition of coaching, thoughtfully distinguished from mentoring:

Coaching is usually focused on professional dialogue designed to aid the coachee in developing specific skills to enhance their teaching repertoire. For teachers, it often supports

experimentation with new classroom strategies and coaches are not normally in positions of line management in relationship to their coachee. The focus of the coaching is usually selected by the coachee and the process provides opportunities for reflection and problem solving for both coach and coachee. (2010: 8)

In overt contrast to mentoring, the report points out that '[c]oaching tends to have its roots in psychotherapy and counseling'. As in mentoring, 'establishment of trust is paramount'. Tensions can arise unless 'confidentiality is assured.' (ibid. 10). This study also points out some of the potential problems implicit in embedding coaching in a school improvement culture. It warns that 'coaching in the school target-generating and monitoring procedures ... may deter participants from exploiting some of the potential to share and tackle personal concerns and queries relating to practice that coaching can offer' (ibid. 10). Drawing on interviews with coaches, this report identifies coaching's applications:

- sharing classroom practice with a colleague;
- judging the quality of practice and seeking or giving feedback;
- supporting induction or career transition;
- working toward a school or department development priority;
- supporting a professional development course or Masters level study and
- working towards a performance management target (ibid. 14).

Confusion appears to arise over the relative purposes of mentoring and coaching. 'Mentoring', according to the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching (CUREE, 2005), supports induction and career transition, while 'coaching' is said to lead to knowledge creation. CfBT research indicates that it rarely has done. In the US, Cornett and Knight (2008) observed that enquiries they reviewed into coaching did not meet 'the standards of rigorous research'. It is ironic, given how widely it is practiced as a form professional development, that its value is gauged by anecdotal data. There is no academic journal specifically for coaching in education, while the Mentoring and Coaching Special Interest Group, established in 2004 for the British Educational Research Association, provides welcome opportunities for discussion.

DEFINITIONS OF COACHING

The use of coaching to support teachers improving their practice has, according to Rhodes and Beneike (2002), been explored in Dutch schools. He refers to the research by Veenman (1995) and Veenman, De Laat and Staring (1998), who have studied the impacts of skills training in coaching 'on the efficacy of school counselors, primary schoolteachers and school principals as coaches of teachers' (Rhodes, 2002: 298). Pertinently, Veenman, Denessen, Gerrits and Kenter (2010) have recently evaluated the benefits of coaching for cooperating teachers. Rhodes further suggests that coaching and mentoring within the corporate business learning environment

might well 'be pertinent to draw upon ... to explore coaching, mentoring and peer networking relationships' (ibid. 300). One of the many difficulties of drawing upon business related practice is that the distinctions between mentoring and coaching are not necessarily the same as they are education and the aims differ. Furthermore, while Brockbank and McGill (2006), use 'mentoring' and 'coaching' (more or less) interchangeably, in the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching, for example, devised by CUREE in 2005, distinctions between mentoring and coaching in schools are emphasised. The National Framework for England is the same framework as that proposed by Carnell, MacDonald and Askew (2006) for higher education coaching schemes. While stating that mentoring and coaching are similar 'structured sustained processes', the National Framework distinguishes between them. In higher education, where coaching and mentoring also overlap, they can substantially differ and Wisker, Exley, Antoniou and Ridley (2008: 21) distinguishes between mentoring, coaching, supervising and personal tutoring activities occurring in higher education: 'Coaching is a structured one-to-one learning relationship between coach and coachee aimed at developing competence and improving performance in the coachee.'

COACHING IN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

Because there is a dearth of coaching publications authored by writers from education, writers from *business* tending to dominate the field. Brockbank and McGill (2006) is a popular example where authors from a business background are now writing for an education context. Such research into coaching as exists tends therefore to draw upon business-oriented literature rather than on educational research, specific to education.

While it is my opinion that educators should read coaching books that are authored by business and sports coaches, they also need to gain an insight into accumulated knowledge from experts in the education field. There are informative business texts: Crane's *The Heart of Coaching* (2009) for example, which argues for a new understanding about leadership that is beyond coercion.

On the other hand, it seems hardly surprising that practitioners of coaching and mentoring continue to merge definitions of their crafts when the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) considers mentoring and coaching to be so close in meaning that there is no discernible difference between them (Hay, 2008). There might well be, however, discernible differences between mentoring and coaching in the context of schools as well as in further and in higher education.

Ask most educators to identify who has substantially changed the theory and practice of education in the past 100 years and Schön (1987) is probably on their list. Donald Schön's ideas have shaped initial teacher education and continual professional development (CPD) programmes and many educators would claim their practice embodies his ideas.

Few realise, however, the value he placed upon coaching and, in *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*, Schön stresses the importance of flexibility and context in its practice. Using recording dialogue between coach and student, the approaches he identifies (Joint Experimentation, Follow me! and Hall of Mirrors) call for different forms of improvisation, and also offer different orders of difficulty, as well as being appropriate for very different contextual conditions. Educators may also benefit from reviewing Schön's (1988) observations on coaching, which he portrays as a kind of dialogue.

In joint experimentation, the coach's skill comes first to bear in the task of helping a student formulate the qualities she wants to achieve and then, by demonstration on description, explain different ways of producing them ... the coach can show her what is necessary according to the laws of the phenomena with which she is dealing ... the coach works at creating a process of collaborative inquiry. (ibid. 296)

Here we can see a forerunner of models of coaching that are integrated with action research, such as Robertson's (2009), since Shön explains that 'coach and student, when they do their jobs well, function not only as practitioners but also as researchers.' His 'Hall of Mirrors, can be created only ... when coaching resembles the interpersonal practice to be learned, when students recreate in interaction with coach or peers the patterns of their practice world' (Schön, 1988: 297). In Schön's writing, we might also perceive a precursor to Bloom and colleagues' *Blended Coaching* (Bloom, Castagna, Moir and Warren, 2005), since he does not favour one coaching model above another: '[A] coach may shift ... adapting herself to the needs and difficulties of each student before her.'

Similarly, Knight's model of 'Instructional coaching' (2007) is similar to Schön's (1988) ideas in 'Coaching reflective teaching', but what stands out in Schön's models is that the teacher-as-coach 'helps the kid connect his spontaneous understandings or know-how to the privileged knowledge of the school' (1988: 22). The coach is not helping the student to set goals by which his or her achievement will be assessed. The goal is the creation of *new* knowledge and this is the inspiration for and the educational intent for the KNOW model which is introduced later on in this chapter. Whereas the National Framework talks about using coaching to assimilate new knowledge into practice (i.e., knowledge from research), Schön's idea is that coaching *between* the schoolteacher and the school student *creates* knowledge. If Schön is correct, then coaches *should* research their practice with a view to testing his hypothesis that knowledge is created.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF COACHING IN EDUCATION

When Showers and Joyce wrote about the evolution of peer coaching in 1996, they looked back to their seminal research in 1980 to gauge how the practice of coaching had developed. In their early work, they tested the hypothesis that

'regular (weekly) seminars would enable teachers to practice and implement the content they were learning. The seminars or coaching sessions focused on class-room implementation and the analysis of teaching, especially students' responses' (1981: 1). In 1996, they revisited their own recommendations for peer coaching among small groups of teachers in school (not pairs). Insisting that peer coaching is neither an end in itself nor by itself a school improvement initiative, it must operate in a context of training, initiative and general school improvement. Coaching is not a tacked-on extra but has to be integrated into the very fabric of any school, properly organised and enabled in a culture that can support it as just one approach among many for school improvement. Showers and Joyce detail their history of peer coaching in their 1996 paper, which reveals a different model from that Lofthouse et al. (2010) observed in schools. Joyce and Showers envisaged teachers sharing teaching, planning together and pooling their experiences, not a few minutes watching one another teach, asking 'How do you think that went?', exploring what happened, yet avoiding posing any challenges.

While coaching is being offered in many schools, globally one has yet to see research (beyond self-reported anecdotes) that substantively confirms that coaching *does* assist students' learning. According to Joyce and Showers, by sharing in teaching, planning and pooling experiences, teachers can practice their newly acquired skills and new strategies more appropriately than their counterparts who work alone to expand their teaching repertoires. What is very interesting, however, is that these expert educator-researchers 'found it necessary and important to omit verbal feedback as a coaching component'. It is not clear why, precisely, but it seems that by omitting feedback the emphasis on 'performance' diminished while the overall positive impact of peer coaching sessions remained unchanged. The authors explain that

numerous staff development practices are called 'coaching'; 'technical coaching'; 'collegial coaching'; 'challenge coaching', 'team coaching'; 'cognitive coaching' and also to the various uses of peer coaching to refer to traditional supervisory modes of pre-conference/observation/post-conference. They emphasise that 'none of the models mentioned above should be confused with or used for evaluation of teachers' and 'coaching is not the appropriate mechanism for gauging performance'.

(Showers and Joyce, 1996: 2–3)

In a similar vein, with coaching as a core enabling rather than evaluative process, the Teacher Learning Academy (TLA) in England, currently offers four Stages of Recognition for teacher learning and, reportedly, tens of thousands of teachers have successfully submitted research accounts of their work as educators for TLA verification. As core tenets of the scheme, coaching and mentoring offer opportunities for progress review and evaluation. Coaching in the TLA's process focuses on SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-based) goals. The scheme has been very successful according to an evaluation report published by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NfER) (Lord, Lamont, Harland et al. 2009), not least because of its coaching and its mentoring components. One-to-one professional development

works well as professional development. In my experience in presenting successfully for TLA Stage 4 Recognition, mentoring integrated with Appreciative Inquiry (Fletcher, 2009) was more motivational than a problem-solving approach.

EVOLVING MODELS IN SPORTS COACHING EDUCATION

Sports coaching has been practiced for some two hundred years now but similarly remains under-researched and indications of success remain largely anecdotal. Lyle (2002) recounts how coaching activities developed from the sport of boxing in the early 1800s, thence through to the early coaches for team sports in public schools. Coaching was restricted to enthusiastic (young) teachers introduced to the game while at university. Lyle's writing (2002) is intended to contribute to the academic development of coaching and to the study of sports coaching that has penetrated higher education. 'There is a three-way relationship between athlete coaching and performance but a dearth of literature and research linking the coach and performance outcomes' (2002: 23). 'There are no overarching theories that will unifying theories about sports coaching ... the field has been conceived of as too diffuse in purpose and practice to encourage this' (ibid. 29). Sports coaching has retained its (strong) similarity to sports teaching although coaching is concerned more with improving performance of a sportsperson competent in their sport rather than 'teaching' sports-related skills.

According to Jones (2006), coaching remains an ill-defined and undertheorised field (2006: 1) where 'coaching, like teaching, is an inherently non routine, problematic and complex endeavour; a great deal of untapped, tacit knowledge ... exists in athletes and coaches ... coaching is an activity primarily based on social interaction and power' (ibid. 2). Coaching apparently rests on eliciting and managing situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) as indeed does coaching within other disciplines including education. Jones argues that teaching and the pedagogical theory that informs it 'has tended to lie outside traditional conceptualisations of coaching' (1991: 6). He further suggests that 'instruction and facilitation figure in the practice of top level coaches and a pedagogic role (is) an important role in the make-up of coaches' personas' (ibid. 7).

Usefully, Cross and Lyle (2002) distinguish between *participation* coaching and *performance* coaching. 'Participation coaching' best describes contexts in which the principal goal is not competition success. The performers are thus less intensively engaged in the process and may be concerned more with improvements in order to enjoy participation and its immediate satisfactions. The emphasis is on participation (i.e., taking part) rather than preparation. The coaching process is not implemented to systematically controlled plan, and the quality of the interpersonal relationship between athlete and coach may be emphasised beyond other goals (2003: 11). A parallel may be drawn between the state of

coaching in sports and education. While coaching is widespread and its value not disputed in raising achievement, 'little research has explored the conceptual development of the coaching process and treated the coaching process as a problematic aspect of the research (ibid. 13). As in education contexts, there is restricted critical engagement. Where a core debate in sports coaching is between what constitutes teaching and what coaching, in business it focuses upon counselling, coaching and mentoring. The debate is reflected in an MA programme at Oxford Brookes Business School, which draws upon psychotherapeutic models of practice. Understanding the role of emotions is essential in coaching and 'Emotional Coaching' (Hromek, 2007) is crucial as educators set about enabling young people from troubled backgrounds to cope. Coaches certainly need to understand emotions.

THE DYNAMICS OF EDUCATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Exploring an overview of coaching, as I am attempting to do here, across education, sports and business I visualise a pattern something like that depicted in Figure 2.1. While each of the four aspects is distinct, there is a possibility of cross-fertilisation between them. Mentoring sits alongside coaching; once thought of as a subset of mentoring in education, many educators would now regard mentoring and coaching as equal in their relevance to developing educational practices. Training and counselling skills underpin good practice in mentoring and in coaching, and coaching often draws on training (instructional coaching) while mentoring draws on counselling (understanding the emotional



Figure 2.1

responses of a mentee are crucial to good practice). The arrows indicate that learning can emanate from any, but not necessarily all, combinations of mentoring and coaching, training and counselling. Context will determine the effective combination and learning will be 'situated' in its context. This perspective reflects research by Lave and Wenger (1991) on situated learning.

The longer-term learning support strategies that peer learning relationships can offer are sometimes squeezed out in the race to deliver a performance-focused agenda. This situation is likely to be aggravated where a 'performance' approach to coaching is borrowed from noneducation contexts without regard to subtle differences therein.

COACHING IN A BUSINESS CONTEXT

This chapter does not attempt to engage critically with coaching in business since Cox, Bachkirova and Clutterbuck (2010) accomplish that purpose admirably. Instead, it draws attention to a model originating in business, Whitmore's GROW model (2002), which is now in use in education contexts. While popular in schools, its outcomes-based focus might *impede* learning.

Somehow we need to find a model of coaching that can integrate mentoring as well as training and counselling. We need to re-examine the aims of education as a process of learning rather than getting hooked into an outcomes-focused agenda. Before we can move on to explore new models of coaching for education, we need to examine models that are in use in schools. Tolhurst (2006) suggests the LEAP model for coaching leaders but there is apparently no substantial research into it. GROW is a (migrated) business model and this is recommended reading for students researching coaching.

The acronym GROW stands for:

Goal setting
Reality check
Options available
Wrap up (what will the client do?)

Whitmore adds his own cautionary note about

the hunger for coaches [which] has resulted in hastily and inadequately trained so-called coaches failing to meet the expectations of those they are coaching. In too many cases they have not fully understood the performance-related, psychological principles on which coaching is based. Without this understanding they may go through the motions of coaching, or use the behaviours associated with coaching but fail to achieve the intended results. (Whitmore, 2002)

Whitmore further emphasises the value of mastering self-coaching and this is an area where research is urgently needed, since it may be useful for educators to implement.

While GROW is widely valued as a useful means for motivating teams and achieving goals, one has to ask how applicable it is to use in the current global economic crisis. It can empower a leadership elite, and it can increase organisational motivation, but as a model for enabling education, which is a process and not a series of problem-solving steps, it needs to be used judiciously. GROW as a process is not far detached from an action research cycle; set a goal for improvement, consider one's reality and options that are available and set about aiming to achieve as an act of (conscious) willpower. The main problem with GROW is how novice coaches use it as a step by step process which, like an overly managed action research cycle, leads to frustration and boredom.

A second drawback of the GROW model's use, though not necessarily of the original intention for the model, which was designed to be fluid and flexible, is that the goal identified at the start of the process is likely to shift and is often replaced by another as reflection occurs. Becoming stuck in seeking a goal at the start point of a learning process could inhibit motivation and free-thinking through which creativity emerges.

It must be stressed that the drawback in GROW often originates in how it is utilised rather than in the model. Used judiciously in education GROW can be a valuable tool.

THE ART OF QUESTIONING IN COACHING

Questioning plays a more central role in coaching than in mentoring since the coach seeks to draw learning from the coachee, rather than passing on existing knowledge. O'Connor and Lages (2007) emphasise its importance where they state:

Knowing how to ask questions is the first core skill of coaching ... Questions guide (clients') attention and test the coach's hypotheses about the situation. All models of coaching agree on this and NLP (Neuro Linguistic Programmed) coaching and ontological coaching deal with the linguistic aspect of questions in depth. (2007: 164)

De Haan (2008) goes further and recommends what, how and who types of questions for coaching. Various techniques for using questions to develop coaching conversation are also explored by Parsloe and Leedham (2009). Sections about 'Observant listening' and 'Feedback for adult learners' are applicable for educational coaching and coach education practices.

While some authors stress the usefulness of questioning, McLeod (2004) highlights the value of silence: 'The real work of coaching is done in the coachees' episodes of thinking and feeling in which the coach plays no part other than silent witness' (2004: 9).

Many authors are convinced that effective practice in coaching lies in conversation, a point developed by Cheliotes and Reilly (2010) who explain that ineffective coach—coachee conversations often result when people engage in four unproductive patterns of listening; judgement or criticism; autobiographical