

# ROUTLEDGE HANDBOOK OF SPORTS COACHING

*Edited by Paul Potrac, Wade Gilbert and Jim Denison*

 **Routledge**  
Taylor & Francis Group  
LONDON AND NEW YORK

First published 2013  
by Routledge  
2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN

Simultaneously published in the USA and Canada  
by Routledge

711 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017

*Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business*

© 2013 Paul Potrac, Wade Gilbert and Jim Denison

The right of the editors to be identified as the authors of the editorial material, and of the authors for their individual chapters, has been asserted in accordance with sections 77 and 78 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reprinted or reproduced or utilised in any form or by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now known or hereafter invented, including photocopying and recording, or in any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publishers.

*Trademark notice:* Product or corporate names may be trademarks or registered trademarks, and are used only for identification and explanation without intent to infringe.

*British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data*

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

*Library of Congress Cataloguing in Publication Data*

Routledge handbook of sports coaching / edited by Paul Potrac, Wade Gilbert, and Jim Denison.

p. cm.

1. Coaching (Athletics)--Handbooks, manuals, etc. I. Potrac, Paul, 1974-

II. Gilbert, Wade. III. Denison, Jim, 1963-

GV711.R68 2013

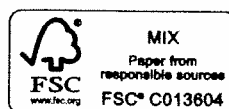
796.07'7--dc23

2012024821

ISBN: 978-0-415-78222-7 (hbk)

ISBN: 978-0-203-13262-3 (ebk)

Typeset in Bembo Std by  
Saxon Graphics Ltd, Derby



Printed and bound in Great Britain by  
CPI Antony Rowe, Chippenham, Wiltshire

# MENTORING FOR SPORT COACHES

*Gordon A. Bloom*

MCGILL UNIVERSITY, CANADA

## Introduction

There is little doubt that sport coaches spend a great deal of their effort mentoring their young athletes. For example, Walton's (1992) book on the lives and philosophies of six expert coaches found that these coaches were more than just teachers of sport skills. They taught athletes life skills that remained ingrained throughout the lives of their protégés. One coach was the legendary American swim tutor, James 'Doc' Counsilman. Walton outlined how Counsilman mentored his swimmers using an adapted version of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs. The following is an example of how he mentored them: 'He took a deep personal interest in them [his swimmers]. He knew their studies and pinned to memory their grade point averages, best swimming times, and best workouts; he knew their goals and aspirations, their girlfriends and their problems' (Walton 1992: 84). There is likely to be little debate that coaches spend a great deal of their career mentoring their athletes. However, the topic of coaches being mentored is not as clear and straightforward.

Despite the efforts of the International Council for Coach Education (ICCE) and various coach education programs in different countries, there has historically been a lack of scientific research on optimal ways of developing coaches. The majority of work that exists has focused on the impact of factors such as past athletic experiences, coach education, and informally observing and interacting with other coaches (Bloom *et al.* 1998; Jimenez *et al.* 2009; Schinke *et al.* 1995). Intuitively, one might have expected mentoring to be at the top of that list. To date, literature on mentoring in coaching is limited, although research from around the world has identified the positive elements of coach mentoring. For example, work from Canada (Bloom *et al.* 1998), the United States (Gould *et al.* 1990), Spain (Jimenez *et al.* 2009), Ireland (Bertz and Purdy 2011), Australia (Dickson 2001), and the United Kingdom (Cushion 2006; Jones *et al.* 2003) has professed the value of mentoring for sport coaches. Moreover, these studies have all called for the development of structured mentoring programs in their countries. Despite this, there does not seem to be the same level of support and urgency that appears to exist in other professions. For example, pilots, doctors, and police officers were known to spend years refining their skills under the guidance and supervision of experienced and knowledgeable colleagues who ensured they were allowed to grow and develop in an environment designed to minimize errors and build knowledge and

confidence. Due to the many positive benefits and intuitive appeal that have been attributed to mentoring both inside and outside of sport, it is important to explore this topic in the context of coach development, including best practices.

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the often ill-clarified concept of mentoring in sport coaching. The key mentoring issues for sport coaches are who to receive it from and how to get it. This chapter will attempt to answer these questions by defining mentoring and explaining how it can lead to positive coach development and performance if correctly implemented. This will be achieved by looking at research both inside and outside of sport. Finally, some of the shortcomings of mentoring research in sport will be addressed, as well as areas for future inquiry into mentoring in sports coaching.

### **What is mentoring?**

Although mentoring is a phenomenon that is centuries old, there is currently a lack of clarity in its definition. Examples of famous mentoring relationships include Socrates and Plato, Freud and Jung, Lorenze de Medici and Michelangelo, and Haydn and Beethoven. The term originated from Greek mythology, where Mentor was a wise and trusted advisor to the young Telemachus (Merriam 1983). The term mentor has been used in many domains and its definition is slightly varied in each case, often depending upon the scope of the research. Most experts would agree that mentoring involves a non-familial and non-romantic relationship between an experienced person and a less experienced person in their field, where the former has more influence and is conscious of it. It involves a relationship between a mentor and his/her protégé where the former has a direct influence in the development of the latter and personally commits his/her time for the other's personal growth and development. The pillars of the relationship are trust and respect.

The outcomes of mentoring could broadly be categorized into two areas: career support and psychosocial (Gibson 2004; Kram 1985, 1988). Career support involves increased job satisfaction, enhanced career mobility, higher promotion rate, exposure and visibility, higher income levels, increased commitment, and decreased work alienation. Psychosocial aspects include the protégé's sense of professional competence, confidence, and identity. According to Kram (1983), there are four traditional phases of the mentoring relationship: initiation; cultivation; separation; and redefinition. In the initiation phase the mentor and protégé admire, respect, and trust each other. During the second phase, cultivation, the mentee develops competence as well as confidence from the career and psychosocial support the mentor has provided. Separation refers to the time when the relationship between the mentor and mentee changes, the mentee may become more independent and empowered potentially leading to a non-positive affective experience. Lastly, redefinition is the time where the mentor-mentee relationship is restructured to meet more collegial needs.

### **Interdisciplinary mentoring research**

#### ***Business***

The process of mentoring has been well documented in business, where mentorships have played a major role in the professional progression and development of individuals (Borman and Colson 1984; Hunt and Michael 1983; Kram 1983). A review of literature by Hunt and Michael (1983) found that a mentoring system was used by businesses to develop the organization's managerial talent. These relationships assisted young professionals in 'learning

the organizational ropes, developing a sense of competence and effectiveness, and learning how to behave at successive management levels' (Hunt and Michael 1983: 478). Mentors benefited from these relationships as well by redirecting their energies into the career development of a young professional. Mentors felt rejuvenated by passing on the knowledge and experience that they had gained throughout their careers.

As in sport, mentoring in organizations occurs through formal or informal relationships (Friday *et al.* 2004). Informal relationships are more prevalent in business and occur when the mentor and protégé realize they have common interests, admiration, and commitment allowing a more personal relationship to develop (Friday *et al.* 2004). Formal mentoring programs began to surface in the 1980s and typically have a set duration with specific objectives (Parise and Forret 2008). Although organizations are beginning to use formal mentoring programs, there appear to be few companies integrating the programs into a long-term plan or the strategic positioning of their organization (Jones *et al.* 2009).

Recently, there has been a shift from the traditional dyadic model involving a mentor and a mentee to a triadic model incorporating a third element; an organization. Dyadic relationships allow mentees to obtain information from one source which may limit the number of dyadic relationships that may form due to a limited number of senior members in an organization. Incorporating the organization can contribute to the success of the mentoring relationship by providing networking possibilities for the mentee, as well as other forms of mutual support from a variety and number of sources (Walker *et al.* 2009). Some have suggested that this triadic relationship yields benefits for the mentor, the mentee, and the organization (Marks and Goldstein 2005).

### **Education**

A large body of research on mentoring can be found in the educational field. Stroble and Cooper (1988) noted that teacher mentoring programs only began to emerge in the early 1980s. Since then, researchers have been examining the different mentoring programs created for young teachers, as well as the mentors who assisted and evaluated them (Carter 1988; Stroble and Cooper 1988). Mentor teachers, teacher consultants, school-based teacher educators, or peer teachers are individuals who have been assigned roles to assist beginning educators. One of the most frequently studied areas of mentoring in education has focused on the experiences of novice teachers. Bowers and Eberhart (1988) stated that collaboration and assistance from colleagues was an essential part of a young teacher's development. In fact, these researchers also noted that mentoring made the school 'a learning place for both the novice and master teacher, thereby enhancing the school as a learning place for students' (Bowers and Eberhart 1988: 229–230).

Models of 'partnership' have been developed in a number of schools in order to train student teachers (Maynard 1997). Formalized programs in teaching have been created to eliminate some of the difficulties that beginning teachers faced in their first year (Stroble and Cooper 1988). School-based initial teacher training (ITT) courses were organized between schools and higher education institutions in order to allow beginning educators the opportunity to gain teaching experience under the supervision of a master teacher (Maynard 1997; Tomlinson 1995). Both teacher educators and master teachers saw ITT courses as an opportunity to improve teacher preparation and make it more relevant and effective (Tomlinson 1995).

Following these earlier studies, research on teacher mentoring programs began to implement qualitative research methods to interview student teachers and their mentors

(Abell *et al.* 1995; McNamara 1995). Abell *et al.* (1995) found that beginner teachers involved in these programs improved their self-confidence, classroom management, lesson planning, discipline, voice inflection, eye contact, and review techniques. They also found that the mentors involved in these programs believed it was important to work with beginning teachers as it helped them refine the young teachers' style. Other significant findings were that mentors assumed a helping role as opposed to an evaluative one, and that respect and trust between the two individuals was crucial for the program to work effectively. Of interest, many of these studies identified the need for a more standardized program for training and supervising teachers (Stroble and Cooper 1988), and the need for numerous funding changes in order for mentoring programs to be successful (Carter 1988).

Although the large majority of literature on mentoring in education has highlighted the positive aspects of it, there is also some research that identified the drawbacks involved in this process. These concerns range from the merit, skills, and knowledge of the mentors, to tensions between the master teachers and their mentees that ranged from manipulative behaviour to personality mismatches (Ballantyne *et al.* 1995; Freiberg *et al.* 1994; Graham 1997). As well, some studies mentioned the lack of time involved to properly carry out the mentoring process (Ackley and Gall 1992; Robinson 1993). Finally, it is difficult to conduct a meta-analysis on the value of mentoring programs since there are few statistical results provided in the empirical literature and there has been a growing trend toward the use of qualitative methods in the mentoring literature.

### ***Medical field***

#### ***Doctors***

In a recent survey of Canadian medical program directors, 65 percent of those who responded confirmed the presence of a mentorship program (Donovan and Donovan 2009). This survey also revealed that mentoring programs were more present in larger programs, internal-medicine-based training programs, as well as in programs where the directors themselves had been part of a mentoring program or felt a mentoring program had an important role in their professional development. In the United States, Castiglioni *et al.* (2004) surveyed internal medicine program directors and found that 60 percent favoured mentoring programs with 49 percent of residency programs fostering formal mentoring. In another American study conducted at the Medical College of Wisconsin, all faculty members who reported having a mentor (N=25) believed this arrangement aided them in career advancement (Kirsling and Kochar 1990). It seems that the mentors provided advice beyond career-centered situations including how to adapt to the work environment, organize their time, and maintain a productive network of colleagues.

In 2000, a formalized mentoring program was created in the department of medicine at Brigham and Women's Faulkner Hospital in Boston, Massachusetts (Levy *et al.* 2004). The program consisted of more than 80 faculty members who were assigned one to three mentees and who met two or three times per year. Several documents were provided to help the mentor with his/her responsibilities. Quarterly emails from the Medical Education Office reminded the mentors to meet with the mentees, they provided up-to-date information on changes in residency programs, invitations to house staff events, as well as a stipend to cover the cost of meeting with mentees. A few years after the mentoring program was initiated, a survey was conducted with the participants and revealed that over 90 percent of the respondents believed that it was important and beneficial for the department to assign a

senior faculty member to a resident (Levy *et al.* 2004). However, the respondents also reported the difficulty experienced arranging times to meet, mostly because of scheduling conflicts (Levy *et al.* 2004).

### Nurses

According to the Canadian Nurses Association, there has been a growing emphasis on the importance of mentoring in nursing in the last 30 years. In today's society, nurses are required to generate outcomes which are measurable and cost effective. This could be achieved more effectively if mentoring were implemented in a formal manner. This may be difficult since numerous mentoring models have been put forth in this field, yet none have been universally accepted. Moreover, the mentoring models have varied widely from one-on-one relationships, to team mentoring, to e-mentoring (Byrne and Keefe 2002).

According to Andrews and Wallis (1999), mentees participating in a nursing mentoring program preferred a mentor who was a newer practitioner and who was able to more easily recall their personal student experiences. Successful mentoring largely depended on the characteristics of the mentor, such as approachability, effective interpersonal and teaching skills, all of which led to a caring and nurturing environment for the mentee. There are several Canadian nursing mentoring programs that are organized by the health services division of the federal government. In most cases, a recent graduate was paired with an experienced registered nurse who acted as mentor in their area of specialization. In these cases, mentoring has led to a number of benefits for the mentor, such as enhanced self-fulfillment, and, for the mentee, increased confidence. Ultimately, the institution was considered to benefit from an improved quality of care.

### Sport coach mentoring research

One of the most direct empirical studies of coach mentoring in sport was conducted by Bloom *et al.* (1998). Using an interview technique to acquire data from current and former Canadian Olympic team sport coaches, the researchers looked at various facets of mentoring beginning with their athletic careers and continuing throughout their coaching careers. Their results found that mentoring was an ongoing process in sport. Mentoring began during their athletic careers and continued through the early and middle stages of their coaching careers. Trusting relationships were established between their own coaches and their mentor coaches that enhanced athletic development and career progression. The mentors benefited from being challenged to refine their coaching or teaching methods. The knowledge and experience they acquired from their expert coaches went beyond technical, tactical, and physical knowledge, and involved the acquisition of knowledge that helped them shape their eventual coaching style and philosophy. Because of the positive experiences they received, these coaches also discussed the significance of being perceived as a potential mentor. Some were honoured and willing to serve as mentors for aspiring coaches due to the positive experiences they went through during earlier stages of their careers. Although these experts were often demanding as mentors, they still provided young assistant coaches with opportunities to access valuable sources of information and make other important personal contacts. Unfortunately, there was no set path for acquiring a mentor coach. According to these coaches, it was simply a case of being in the right place at the right time. Perhaps this explains why many of these expert coaches were calling for the introduction of a more formalized mentoring program.

There is currently a lack of direct empirical research on coaches being formally mentored in sport. However, widening the definition of the term mentor to include instances where coaches have been informally helped/assisted by a more experienced coach will be included. Gould *et al.* (1990) studied the educational needs of 130 expert American coaches from a variety of sports. One of their findings was that coaching textbooks and seminars were the least important sources of coaching information. The elite coaches felt the two most important knowledge sources that helped them develop their coaching styles were coaching experience and observing other successful coaches. The coaches also believed there were no definite sets of concepts or principles to follow in their profession.

Communities of practice (CoP) (Culver and Trudel 2008; Gilbert *et al.* 2009) are an informal type of coach learning that contains elements of mentoring and has the potential to positively impact coach learning and development. A CoP includes the roles that peers play in the learning process and has been defined as a 'group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis' (Wenger *et al.* 2002: 4). Although they range in size, CoPs involve an active learning process that is sustained in a systematic manner by a competent and dedicated facilitator. Although not formally labeled as mentors in the coach education literature, these peer facilitators appear to share some of the qualities and characteristics of mentors. For example, they are trained, they hold regular 'formal' learning meetings with colleagues, and they aim to create long-term substantial learning relationships with their peers (Gilbert *et al.* 2009). It will be interesting to see if this line of enquiry develops further and even more so if the facilitators assume a life-long mentoring relationship with the younger coaches.

Research from the UK has also examined mentoring in sport (e.g. Cushion *et al.* 2003; Jones *et al.* 2003, 2004, 2009). Consistent with Gould *et al.*'s (1990) findings, the studies in the UK found that informal bases of knowledge, such as ongoing interactions with peers and observing coaches during practices, were deemed to be the most important facets of knowledge acquisition. Perhaps unsurprisingly then, these authors have also called for more formalized and structured mentoring programs to be included in coach education.

Salmela and Moraes (2003) have discussed mentoring for coaches in the unique context of developing countries, where formalized coach education opportunities are typically not as available as they are in developed countries like Canada, the UK, or Australia. As such, they believe that structured mentoring programs are even more important for coaches in their countries compared to coaches in developed countries. Moreover, this lack of structure in coach education may have led to a culture of not sharing knowledge or 'trade secrets' in some countries, thus greatly inhibiting the development of coaches mentoring up-and-coming coaches. It certainly appears that studying mentoring practices in countries with and without formalized coach education training seems warranted.

### ***Models of sport coach mentoring***

Formalized and structured coach mentoring programs have been developed in countries like Canada and Australia, and are beginning to gather momentum in the UK (Cushion 2006). In Canada, coach education and development is governed by the Coaching Association of Canada (CAC),<sup>1</sup> which was created in 1970. The mission of the CAC is to provide the foundation of skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to ensure effective coaching leadership for Canadian athletes. In 1974, the CAC created the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) to meet the needs of all coaches, from the beginner to the most experienced



practitioners. Most sources have credited Canada's NCCP as being the first widely adopted national coach education program in the world.

Canada presently has seven National Coaching Institutes (NCIs)<sup>2</sup> located across the country whose mission is to enhance the training environment for high performance coaches (and athletes) through a variety of services. The directors of each center meet twice a year and have conference calls on four or five other occasions to develop consistency in the services they offer to coaches and athletes. All of the high performance coaches learn at the NCIs which involves a combination of classroom study with a coaching apprenticeship under the guidance of a highly qualified master coach. The mentoring program consists of four themes, which are broken down into units and lessons. Between their courses, the mentees meet with their master coach on their own, by phone, email, or on-site during training sessions.

Although the mentoring program in Canada appears to be more advanced than other countries, there are some challenges with this current system. First, there is no definitive schedule: the mentoring is done on the coaches' time and at the coaches' availability. Second, the mentoring does not always occur face-to-face, and can involve phone calls, emails, or conversations on Skype. Third, due to the lack of professionalization of coaching (compared to education and the medical field), it can be difficult to find, hire, and train people to perform these duties. Typically, they are retired individuals who do not have to rely on a steady income of mentoring. One could argue that it would be more effective to have current elite coaches working in a mentoring capacity. Fourth, some of the smaller sports in Canada have to integrate mentor coaches from other sports due to a lack of qualified and available mentors. Finally, there is a lack of resources to ensure that the mentoring is successful.

Similar in many ways to Canada, both Australia and the UK have coach education systems that are fewer than 35 years old and were developed in part with government participation and assistance. Created around the same time as Canada's program, Australia's program<sup>3</sup> ensures that its accredited coaches have received training in coaching principles. The National Coaching Accreditation Scheme (NCAS) is an initiative of the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) and is a progressive coach education program offering courses at various levels. The ASC has developed an initiative to encourage inexperienced coaches to enter their program and has launched the Beginning Coaching General Principles (BCGP), a free basic skills course to assist beginner coaches in Australia.

The BCGP course consists of five modules that address a variety of topics such as the roles and responsibilities of a coach, planning, and dealing with parents, for example. For those who progress to the intermediate level (club or regional level coaches), there are more advanced forms of knowledge that are delivered in 13 modules that range from sports safety to sport psychology. The program is available through the departments of sport and recreation of states and territories with some offering the modules in person while others are delivered via distance learning.

To assist in the development of individuals who have been identified as potential high performance coaches or to further develop existing high performance coaches, the ASC created the National Coaching Scholarship Program (NCSP) (Mallett *et al.* 2010). The ideal duration of the scholarship is two years and the program consists of three pillars; placement with a mentor coach, a program of tertiary study at the University of Queensland in a post-graduate coaching course, as well as involvement in Sport Coach and Official Section's (SCO) professional development blocks (Mallett *et al.* 2010). Since 1993, under the NCSP, over 220 coaches have completed the coaching scholarship (Mallett *et al.* 2010). The outcomes of the Australian coach mentoring system seem to mirror Canada's in many ways.

While the coaches and the mentors see the value in the system, there are difficulties in creating a formalized mentoring system that chooses and trains the mentor and is adaptable and flexible to the time constraints that exist in this demanding profession.

### **Future research directions**

This chapter has focused on the often misunderstood topic of mentoring. Although few people question the value and importance of mentoring for coaches, particularly since the role of the coach often involves mentoring athletes, it is surprising there is a lack of research on this topic combined with a lack of formalized structured mentoring programs for coaches around the world. Despite the development of coach education in countries like Canada, Australia, and the UK, and their efforts to integrate mentoring into the training and development of their coaches, there is still a long way to go before mentoring becomes integrated for coaches in the same manner that it does for teachers, doctors, and many other professionals. Moreover, making this program geared for coaches at all levels, (i.e. youth sport, amateur, and elite) also seems far away.

There are currently many limitations/struggles related to mentoring that have likely contributed to the lack of research into, and development of, formalized coach mentoring programs. First, funding is required to help professionalize the process. Funds are needed to hire coordinators to oversee the mentoring program, to train the mentors, and to pay the mentors for their time and expenses (travel, food, etc.). Second, there is a lack of consistency regarding types of mentoring, whether it is done face-to-face, through electronic means, one-on-one, or in a group setting. Third, the lack of a recognized definition and theoretical framework has undoubtedly limited research in this area. For example, sport psychology topics like cohesion and leadership have definitions and conceptual models that have traditionally framed the research in these domains for the past 30–40 years. The same cannot be said for mentoring. Fourth, coaching is a profession that includes individuals with different traits and leadership styles. Care and effort needs to be given to matching the mentors and mentees as far as their thoughts and styles related to communication, discipline, or feedback styles or their personal make-up. Fifth, lack of time is problematic, especially in a profession like coaching that is not a nine-to-five job. Finally, there are currently no clear indicators to define the effectiveness of formalized coach mentoring programs.

Despite the difficulties and challenges that are present with the creation of formalized coach mentoring programs, it is undoubtedly something that is worth pursuing. A good starting point would be empirical research on coach mentoring. Perhaps the ideal framework would be having academics working in partnership with sport governing bodies in various countries to design, implement, and evaluate coach mentoring programs. The combination of sport governing bodies working with academics would help provoke reflective and reflexive thinking and would lead to a greater likelihood that the results would be transferred into coach mentoring practices around the world.

In sum, the recent creation of mentoring programs in Canada and Australia are a good first step in moving coach mentoring programs forward. As with other fields, having a mentor can improve protégés' confidence and competence, can provide them with a positive role model, and can promote them and introduce them to others who might be able to help with their career progression. The key is identifying and then training the right people to act as mentors. Some of the variables that have been identified as important include approachable, respectful, knowledgeable, up-to-date with current information, organized (time management skills), and trustworthy. If these factors are considered and mentoring programs

are implemented, then one could argue that the mentoring process would benefit the coaching mentees, the mentors, and the organizations who train them. This would undoubtedly lead to a more fulfilling sport experience for the many athletes who work with these coaches.

### Notes

- 1 www.coach.ca.
- 2 www.coach.ca/national-coaching-institutes-p137482.
- 3 www.ausport.gov.au/participating/coaches.

### References

- Abell, S.K., Dillon, D.R., Hopkins, C.J., McInerney, W.D. and O'Brien, D.G. (1995) 'Somebody to count on: Mentor/intern relationships in a beginning teacher internship program', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11: 173–188.
- Ackley, B. and Gall, M.D. (1992) 'Skills, strategies and outcomes of successful mentor teachers', paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 28 April, San Francisco, USA.
- Andrews, M. and Wallis, M. (1999) 'Mentorship in nursing: A literature review', *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 29: 201–207.
- Ballantyne, R., Hansford, B. and Packer, J. (1995) 'Mentoring beginning teachers: A qualitative analysis of process and outcomes', *Educational Review*, 47: 297–307.
- Bertz, S. and Purdy, L. (2011) 'Coach education in Ireland: Observations and considerations for high performance', *Journal of Coaching Education*, 4: 29–43.
- Bloom, G.A., Durand-Bush, N., Schinke, R.J. and Salmela, J. H. (1998) 'The importance of mentoring in the development of coaches and athletes', *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 29: 267–281.
- Borman, C. and Colson, S. (1984) 'Mentoring: An effective career guidance technique', *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, 3: 192–197.
- Bowers, G.R. and Eberhart, N.A. (1988) 'Mentors and the entry year program', *Theory into Practice*, 27: 226–230.
- Byrne, M.W. and Keefe, M.R. (2002) 'Building research competence in nursing through mentoring', *Journal of Nursing Competence*, 34: 391–396.
- Carter, K. (1988) 'Using cases to frame mentor-novice conversations about teaching', *Theory into Practice*, 27: 214–222.
- Castiglioni, A., Bellini, L.M. and Shea, J.A. (2004) 'Program directors' views of the importance and prevalence of mentoring in internal medicine residencies', *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 19: 779–782.
- Culver, D. and Trudel, P. (2008) 'Clarifying the concept of communities of practice in sport', *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 3: 1–9.
- Cushion, C.J. (2006) 'Mentoring: Harnessing the power of experience', in R.L. Jones (ed.) *The Sports Coach as Educator: Re-conceptualising Sports Coaching*, London: Routledge.
- Cushion, C.J., Armour, K.M. and Jones, R.L. (2003) 'Coach education and continuing professional development: Experience and learning to coach', *Quest*, 55: 215–230.
- Dickson, S. (2001) *A Preliminary Investigation into the Effectiveness of the National Coach Accreditation Scheme*, Armidale, New South Wales: Australian Sports Commission.
- Donovan, A. and Donovan, J. (2009) 'Mentorship in postgraduate training programmes: Views of Canadian programme directors', *Medical Education*, 43: 155–158.
- Freiberg, M.R., Zbikowski, J.M. and Ganser, T. (1994) 'The anatomy of a mentoring program for beginning urban teachers', paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, 12–15 October, Chicago, USA.
- Friday, E., Friday, S.S. and Green, A.L. (2004) 'A reconceptualization of mentoring and sponsoring', *Management Decision*, 42: 628–644.
- Gibson, S.K. (2004) 'Mentoring in business and industry: The need for a phenomenological perspective', *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 12: 259–275.

- Gilbert, W., Gallimore, R. and Trudel, P. (2009) 'A learning community approach to coach development in youth sport', *Journal of Coaching Education*, 2: 1-21.
- Gould, D., Giannini, J., Krane, V. and Hodge, K. (1990) 'Educational needs of elite U.S. National Team, Pan American and Olympic coaches', *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 9: 332-344.
- Graham, P. (1997) 'Tensions in the mentor teacher-student teacher relationship: Creating productive sites for learning within a high school English teacher education program', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13: 513-527.
- Hunt, D.M. and Michael, C. (1983) 'Mentorship: A career training and development tool', *Academy of Management Review*, 8: 475-485.
- Jimenez, S., Lorenzo, A. and Ibanez, S. (2009) 'Development of expertise in Spanish elite basketball coaches', *International Journal of Sport Science*, 17: 19-32.
- Jones, R.L., Armour, K.M. and Potrac, P. (2003) 'Constructing expert knowledge: A case study of a top-level professional soccer coach', *Sport, Education and Society*, 8: 213-229.
- Jones, R.L., Armour, K.M. and Potrac, P. (2004) *Sports Coaching Cultures: From Practice to Theory*, London: Routledge.
- Jones, R.L., Harris, R. and Miles, A. (2009) 'Mentoring in sports coaching: A review of literature', *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 14: 267-284.
- Kirsling, R.A. and Kochar, M.S. (1990) 'Mentors in graduate medical education at the Medical College of Wisconsin', *Academic Medicine*, 65: 272-274.
- Kram, K.E. (1983) 'Phases of the mentor relationship', *Academy of Management Journal*, 26: 608-625.
- Kram, K.E. (1985) *Mentoring at Work*, Glenview, IL: Foresman.
- Kram, K.E. (1988) *Mentoring at Work: Developmental Relationships in Organizational Life*, New York: University Press.
- Levy, B.D., Katz, J.T., Wolf, M.A., Sillman, J.S., Handin, R.I. and Dzau, V.J. (2004) 'An initiative in mentoring to promote residents' and faculty members' careers', *Academic Medicine*, 79: 845-850.
- Mallett, C., Billet, S., Tinning, R., Rossi, T. and Rynne, S. (2010) *Learning and Mentoring in High Performance Sports Coaching*, St Lucia: The University of Queensland.
- Marks, M.B. and Goldstein, R. (2005) 'The mentoring triad: Mentee, mentor, and environment', *The Journal of Rheumatology*, 32: 216-218.
- Maynard, T. (1997) *An Introduction to Primary Mentoring*, London: Wellington.
- McNamara, D. (1995) 'The influence of student teachers' tutors and mentors upon their classroom practice: An exploratory study', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11: 51-61.
- Merriam, S. (1983) 'Mentors and protégés: A critical review of the literature', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 33: 161-173.
- Parise, M.R. and Forret, M.L. (2008) 'Formal mentoring programs: The relationship of program design and support to mentors' perceptions of benefits and costs', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72: 225-240.
- Robinson, M. (1993) 'Warwick University PGCE Mentoring Scheme', *Mentoring*, 1: 23-30.
- Salmela, J.H. and Moraes, L.C. (2003) 'Developing expertise: The role of coaching, families, and cultural context', in J.L. Starkes and K.A. Ericsson (eds) *Expert Performance in Sports: Advances in Research in Sport Expertise*, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Schinke, R.J., Bloom, G.A. and Salmela, J.H. (1995) 'The career stages of elite Canadian basketball coaches', *Avante*, 1: 48-62.
- Stroble, E. and Cooper, J.M. (1988) 'Mentor teacher: Coaches or referees?' *Theory into Practice*, 27: 231-236.
- Tomlinson, P. (1995) *Understanding Mentoring: Reflective Strategies for School-Based Teacher Preparation*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Walker, W., Kelly, P. and Hume, R. (2009) 'Mentoring for the new millennium', *Medical Education Online*, 7(15), available at: <http://med-ed-online.org> (accessed 21 August).
- Walton, G.M. (1992) *Beyond Winning: The Timeless Wisdom of Great Philosopher Coaches*, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Wenger, E., McDermott, R. and Snyder, W.M. (2002) *Cultivating Communities of Practice*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.