A Critical Introduction

to Coaching & Mentoring

A Critical Introduction

to Coaching & Mentoring

Debates, Dialogues & Discourses

David E Gray
Bob Garvey
David A Lane

§SAGE

Part I

Introducing Coaching and Mentoring: Where do I start?

1

Why Coaching and Mentoring? Why Now?

Chapter outline

- The notion of discourse
- Tracking the discourse in mentoring
- The Middle Ages and on …
- Tracking the discourses of coaching
- The rise and rise of coaching and mentoring
- Towards integration and distinctiveness
- Distinctiveness?

Keywords

Discourse, social context, history

Chapter objectives

After reading this chapter, you will be able to:

- Understand and appreciate the complex history of mentoring and coaching
- Appreciate that they are both social constructions
- Understand that a single definition is not possible
- Elucidate some arguments for the development of mentoring and coaching in modern society
- Engage in critical debate about coaching and mentoring

Introduction

In this chapter, we explore the historical basis of both coaching and mentoring through an analysis of their historical discourses and contexts. We consider the implications of these discourses on modern constructions of coaching and mentoring. The chapter goes on to consider the reasons behind the exponential growth of coaching and mentoring in recent times, and compares and contrasts current practice in a range of contexts. Finally, we present arguments for the integration of the traditions of coaching and mentoring while maintaining their distinctiveness.

The notion of discourse

The notion of 'discourse' is important in the study of people and society. Discourses are basically how people talk about things, and they are ways of supporting and transmitting meaning through social contexts. Bruner (1996) suggests that people have two main ways of developing a sense of meaning and organising their thoughts:

> One seems more specialized for treating of physical 'things' the other for treating of people and their plights. They are conventionally thought of as logical-scientific thinking and narrative thinking. (Bruner, 1996: 39)

To build on Bruner, narratives involve language, and language, as a vehicle for communicating meaning, plays an important part in human sense-making: 'Language is the primary motor of a culture,' and: 'Language is culture in action' (Webster, 1980: 206). It is also important to understand that:

> language is never 'innocent'; it is not a neutral medium of expression. Discourses are expressions of power relation and reflect the practices and the positions that are tied to them. (Layder, 1994: 97)

So, we need to proceed with caution. While discourses may contain 'truths', they may also contain 'lies' and deceptions (Gabriel, 2004). This apparent paradox is important. At the heart of discourse is interpretation, and it is very clear that one person's interpretation is not the same as another's. Any interpretation, therefore, has to be made by taking into account the social context in which it is employed. Within coaching and mentoring, as dialogic-learning activities, the notions of discourse and meaning are of critical importance. Discourse, as employed in the range of social contexts in which coaching and mentoring take place, is a major theme in this book – a volunteer mentor in a scheme for young offenders, for example, may take a very different view on mentoring to a paid executive coach working in a large corporation and vice versa!

Tracking the discourse in mentoring

Case Study 1.1 is an abbreviated version of the original Ancient Greek poem the *Odyssey*. Written by Homer as an epic poem, it tells the tale of King Odysseus, the King of Ithaca. Within the main poem is a subplot which explores the implications of Odysseus' absence for his son, Telemachus. The poem starts this chapter to explore the ancient roots of mentoring and their meaning and to illustrate the impact of the social context on the interpretation of the narrative.

Case study 1.1

The original story

King Odysseus is believed to be killed in the Trojan Wars. During his ten-year absence many unsuitable suitors visit his wife in the hope of gaining her hand and more importantly acquiring Odysseus' fortune. Telemachus, Odysseus' son mixes with these ill-bred visitors and learns uncouth ways.

Athene, the goddess of civil administration, war and wisdom wants to protect the stability and wealth of Ithaca. She sees Telemachus as key to the achievement of this aim. Telemachus, however, has his problems in that he is young, immature, lacking in experience and has modelled himself on the wasters who have been visiting his mother. Athene, realising that she must offer some Godly assistance to the young man, agrees with Zeus, her father, that she will go to help Telemachus to enhance his reputation.

Telemachus has a dilemma: he doesn't know if his father is alive or dead and this creates inaction. Athene appears in the male form to Telemachus as first Mentes (a stranger – an honoured title in Ancient Greece) and then as Mentor, his father's main assistant. Athene sets the young man some challenges. As Mentes, she comes to the palace as a beggar to test Telemachus' character. Greek custom has it that a stranger should be welcomed into the household and given sustenance. Contrary to Ancient Greek etiquette, the suitors keep Mentes waiting at the door. When Telemachus discovers this error, he is horrified and immediately makes amends. This incident enables Telemachus to recognise his true role and responsibility as a potential king and he immediately distances himself from his mother's suitors. Telemachus and Mentes discuss the political implications of his dilemma about his father.

Athene also tests the young man's political acumen and his courage. She finds him wanting. As Mentes, she tries to inspire him with some advice by suggesting he 'grows up' and behaves in a way that befits his large frame and status. Mentes helps

(Continued)

(Continued)

Telemachus to deal with the suitors and suggests he undertakes a voyage to learn the truth about his father. This, Athene hopes, will develop his leadership potential and develop his courage so that he will be an aide to his father when he returns.

As Mentes, Athene has established Telemachus' potential and provided the vehicle for him to develop it. In her next guise as Mentor, she builds on this and provides him with some specific leadership development opportunities and political support. Mentor helps Telemachus persuade the Ithacans to rise up against their enemies and to support his quest for news of Odysseus. The young man notices the lack of self-interest in Mentor and sees that his only motive is to protect the absent king's interests. Mentor enables the voyage to happen by a series of interventions. In one, he (she) takes the form of Telemachus in order to recruit the sailors needed for the voyage. In another, he (she) puts enemies to sleep so as to protect him from ambush.

Mentor introduces Telemachus to King Nestor and facilitates the relationship and later delegates his (her) responsibility for Telemachus to Nestor. King Nestor is favoured by the Gods and it is a great honour for Telemachus to be placed in his care. King Nestor, together with his son, takes on the guiding role from Mentor.

Eventually, Odysseus returns and joins with his son to fight off and violently punish the suitors and various other traitors. Athene, her task completed, turns herself into a swallow and flies into the rafters taking no part in the final battle.

Questions

1. What do you see as the key elements of the story?
2. What elements of the Ancient Greek context influence events in the story?
3. How far does our modern context influence the interpretation of this story?

The Middle Ages and on …

The first recorded use of the term 'mentoring' in the English language was in 1750 in a letter from Lord Chesterfield to his son. There are no direct references to mentoring in any literature that we can discover until the Middle Ages and here the references are associative rather than direct. However, some (Darwin, 2000; Murray, 2001) link mentoring to the practice of apprenticeships or knight and squire relationships. Nevertheless, accounts of the period show that these relationships were not called 'mentoring' but they were often one-to-one and they could be exploitative and manipulative. Often, the master craftsman would use the apprentice as a source of cheap labour with the promise of teaching the particular trade. The master craftsman would often pass the apprentice's

work off as his own or keep them under tight controls by restricting food and payment. The apprentice's options were clearly limited under these circumstances.

This behaviour could be viewed as 'discourses of exploitation' or 'discourses of power' and given the above discussion on discourse, this may be one source of some modern-day negative perceptions of mentoring (see, for example, Rosinski, 2004; Nielsen and Nørreklit, 2009). Clearly, this is not an 'innocent' discourse! Of course, there were also positive accounts associated with apprenticeships of this period and craft guilds played a role in attempting to regulate bad practice. However, it is interesting that modern accounts of mentoring which make the association to apprenticeships tend to take a positive perspective. Perhaps this is because they are hoping to add historical credibility to the concept of modern mentoring and thus create a positive discourse.

Moving on, Eby et al. (2007: 7) suggest that 'the concept of mentoring' (but not the word itself) is discussed in Shakespeare's *Much Ado about Nothing*. This is a curious association and perhaps another attempt to establish an illustrious and time-honoured background to mentoring. Perhaps it is part of the discourse that mentoring is nothing new and not a passing fad due to its historical roots – a 'mentoring is as old as the hills discourse'. The play itself is about the interplay of the sexes. It turns the tables on the traditional female sex-role stereotyping of the period. It is also about infidelity, deception, mistaken identity, and the title itself suggests that the society of the day made a great fuss about things that are insignificant – the battle of the sexes.

Whether or not there is a potential interpretation that the mentoring concept features here, Shakespeare does not use the term 'mentor' in any of his plays. In fact, no writers of the Elizabethan period use the term. That is not to say that they were unfamiliar with the concept. The basis of education, for those fortunate enough to receive it, was Latin and Greek and, therefore, the potential for such ideas to influence writings was present. According to Ben Johnson, Shakespeare's contemporary, he had little Latin and less Greek! However, it is not until the eighteenth century that the mentoring concept really took hold in Europe.

The eighteenth-century development of mentoring

In Europe during the eighteenth-century, mentoring as an educational process started to develop. This may have been due to the development of an education system with a continuance of the Latin and Greek focus. The first to write about mentoring was Fénelon, Archbishop of Cambrai and later tutor to Louis XIV's heir. He developed the mentoring theme of the *Odyssey* in *Les Aventures de Télémaque*. This work had a major impact on France and England in the understanding of mentoring, its role in learning, leadership development and education. However, at the time, the royal court viewed Fénelon's work as a political manifesto for the establishment of a monarchy-led republic

in France. Fénelon dared to suggest that leadership could be developed and was not a divine right. Louis XIV was unhappy about this suggestion and Fénelon was sacked. However, Fénelon may well have been at the source of the idea that leadership is something which people can learn. His work is probably the start of the notion of one-to-one developmental conversations with experiential learning at its heart. Evidence for this claim may be found in other eighteenth-century writings on mentoring and learning by Rousseau (1762) in his book *Emile*, Caraccioli (1760) in *The True Mentor, or, An Essay on the Education of Young People in Fashion* and Honoria's (1793; 1796) *The Female Mentor*. These all refer directly to Fénelon's mentoring model of reflective questioning, listening, challenge and support. Fénelon's work was translated into English the year after its publication in French and became a European bestseller and, according to Clarke, 'pedagogues of every sort found the book a god-send' (1984: 202).

In other writings, Rousseau claimed that the perfect class size for education was one-to-one and both Caraccioli and Honoria thanked Fénelon in their introductions for 'showing them the way'. As a precursor to the discourse of holistic development within mentoring, Caraccioli suggests that mentoring was about both the 'heart' and the 'mind'. In the main, these authors were discussing one-to-one male relationships but Honoria introduced group mentoring for women. Her books are accounts of educational conversations with the mentor, Amanda. Topics included comparative religion, great women from history and philosophical arguments about 'truth'.

Lord Byron made use of the term 'mentor' in three poems describing the mentor as 'stern' and 'flexible', and Lord Chesterfield in his letters to his son referred to the mentor as 'friendly', suggesting that a mentor may have different personas.

The eighteenth century seems to be the modern source of the mentoring that we know about today and these works seem to have established a discourse about mentoring which locates it in an educational setting. This confirms Clarke's assertion that:

> by the early eighteenth century and unlike Télémaque, who remained his strictly fictive status, Mentor had entered both French and English as a common noun. (1984: 202)

More modern developments in mentoring

In 1976, in *Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life*, Gail Sheehy discusses adult development from a female perspective. She noted that mentoring relationships were not as common among women as they were for men. In her revised edition, *New Passages: Mapping your Life across Time* (1996), she adds developmental maps on both male and female development and notes that mentoring had become more common among women.

In Levinson et al. (1978) *The Seasons of a Man's Life*, a longitudinal study, there are multiple references to mentoring in relation to male development. Levinson describes

'mentor' as someone, often half a generation older, who helps accelerate the development of another. He also refers to mentoring as a 'love' relationship. This may be suggesting that the learning relationship requires certain human attributes, for example trust, respect and honesty, for it to develop and become productive. Levinson claimed that mentoring could accelerate maturation and his work was probably the catalyst for a rapid growth of career-progression-based mentoring in the USA during the late 1970s and early 1980s.

David Clutterbuck brought this modern concept of mentoring to the UK in 1985 with the publication of his book *Everyone Needs a Mentor*. This was a case study book inspired by David's experience in America. It is still in print and is an all-time best-selling business book. Many publications and a substantial body of research followed these milestones on both sides of the Atlantic and mentoring became established in developed economies.

In 1983 in the USA, Kathy Kram emerged as the first substantial mentoring researcher. Her main contribution is that mentoring activity performs a 'psychosocial function' (ibid.: 616); the mentee is socialised into a specific social context and develops self-insight and psychological well-being. Kram (ibid.) also articulated developmental phases in mentoring relationships.

With reference to the affective side of learning, Zaleznik (1977: 78) argues that leadership ability is developed through intense and often intuitive mentoring relationships which contribute to the development of a deep insight into the effective 'emotional relationships' of leaders.

Further support for emotional and psychological development through mentoring is found among many writers. For example, Berman and West (2008), Clawson (1996), Mullen (1994), Smith (1990) and Zey (1984), all discuss the link between mentoring and emotional development. Others, like Levinson et al. (1978), link the motivation to mentor with Erikson's (1978) psychological concept of 'generativity' – the desire to bring on the next generation. McAuley (2003) employs the psychological concepts of transference and counter-transference in order to provide deeper insight into the power dynamics that may be at play between mentor and mentee relationships. Garvey (2006b) argues that the intention or mentoring is not 'therapy' but its affect can be 'therapeutic' and he links the development of the mentees to Levinson et al.'s (1978) framework of age-related transition and Jung's (1958) psychological concept of individuation.

Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) suggest that there are two models of mentoring. In the USA, the emphasis is on 'career sponsorship', whereas in Europe it is 'developmental'. There is evidence (Kram and Chandler, 2005) that mentoring in the USA is shifting to include a more holistic perspective on development. Research in America shows that the 'sponsorship' perspective brings with it many advantages for mentee, mentor and their host organisation. Carden (1990) and Allen et al. (2004) note that on

the positive side, sponsorship mentoring activity can enhance knowledge, emotional stability, problem-solving, decision-making, creativity, opportunity, leadership abilities in individuals, and organisational morale and productivity. However, Ragins (1989, 1994), Carden (1990), Ragins and Cotton (1991), and Ragins and Scandura (1999) show through their research that career sponsorship mentoring can also be exclusive and divisive, encourage conformity among those with power, maintain the status quo and reproduce exploitative and hierarchical structures. This can lead to relationships becoming abusive or simply breaking down.

By contrast, research into the developmental model of mentoring in the UK (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004; Garvey, 1995; Rix and Gold, 2000) shows that similar benefits are derived from mentoring as in the sponsorship model but with less examples of abuse or relationship breakdown. However, there are inevitably problems with some of these discourses.

Problematic discourses in mentoring

There are curiously uncontested problems of the mentoring model in Homer as well as many negative connotations with mentoring in later writings. It is possible that some of these negative perceptions persist today. One is the sexism of Ancient Greece! Athene could not have appeared as herself because women were viewed as second-class citizens at that time. Interestingly, some modern writings on mentoring, particularly from the USA, present male-dominated models of mentoring. Another issue is the brutal violence in the ancient story, particularly the treatment of Telemachus' enemies, for example, the final act of bloody vengeance is taken on the suiters and the women of the court is described in graphic detail. Telemachus and Odyssess cut off their body parts and feed them to the dogs whilst they are still alive and then they string up the women on a line.

Not quite the model of human resources development practice today! However, themes of revenge and violence were commonplace in Ancient Greek writings. Further, Roberts (1999) argues that the interpretations in modern writings of the link to Homer's Mentor are incorrect and misleading. He suggests that it is in Fénelon that we find the true base of the character of mentor. Caraccioli (1760) provides a model of mentoring that involves 'reprimand' and 'correction'. These words have an authoritarian ring to them but, again, the context of the period made these acceptable and made the meaning different to today.

A nineteenth-century association with mentoring is found in George du Maurier's 1894 novel *Trilby*. Svengali is the name of his fictional character: a stereotype of an evil hypnotist. The novel was a sensation in its day and the image of Svengali still persists in, for example, the early twentieth century in many silent film versions of the story and in later talking pictures. The word 'Svengali' has entered the language to mean

a person who, with sinister intent, manipulates another into doing what is desired. It is frequently used for any kind of coach or mentor who seems to want to dominate a performer.

In recent history, mentoring within the community or societal contexts has had a dominant discourse of 'non-judgemental', 'voluntary', 'support' and 'encourage' as key qualities and behaviours within the relationship. However, governments on both sides of the Atlantic were the main drivers of mentoring policy and therefore the holders of the power and the finance! In the UK in 2001, for example, Gordon Brown, the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, invested £13 million in youth mentoring schemes across the country. This funding was matched by the fast-food chain McDonald's. Governments and private sector companies do not invest money without an expectation of a return.

Freedman (1999) suggested that the US Government started its 'Big Brothers and Big Sisters' youth mentoring scheme in a 'fervor without infra-structure'. His argument was that government-funded youth mentoring was politically motivated and tapped into the US middle-class fears of the 'underclass', providing a 'quick fix' to social problems. He argued that it produced a 'heroic conception of social policy' (ibid.: 21). Other studies (Grossman and Tierney, 1998) suggest that youth mentoring in the USA made a positive difference to the mentee. However, they also found that mentors who focused on the prescribed goals of the funders rather than those of the mentee had much less success. Colley (2003a) found the same in her studies in the UK.

The question of whose agenda is being played out in government-sponsored schemes is part of the discourse of power. Their arguments are not necessarily based on any form of 'truth' position but, as Garmezy suggests, on a 'false sense of security in erecting prevention models that are founded more on values than on facts' (1982: xix).

Activity 1.1   Four case examples of mentoring

This activity section is designed to help the reader consider some key elements of modern-day mentoring activity. These are drawn from an organisation where mentoring is actively taking place. Mentoring was established to assist with the business growth strategy. This involved growth by acquisition. Mentoring is employed to help integrate newly hired employees and to support leadership development for the future. The following four case vignettes of two mentees and two mentors illustrate what can happen in mentoring, the potential gains, and the special character of the mentoring relationship.

(Continued)

(Continued)

Case 1 Jackie (mentee, lead analyst, private sector)

I've been working with my mentor for well over a month now, and I really can't put into words how much I've benefited from the experience. I am so new to the management role, and he has so much experience to draw on. He doesn't tell me what to do, but he listens and gets me to challenge my own preconceived ideas and biases. It's been fantastic having that sounding board. He is truly objective and his work is separate enough from mine that it just feels safe and like my own mini version of management training. He's very positive and has a great attitude about work, people and life in general, and that's been an example for me. I really am the biggest advocate of the programme and I think it's great that it is available in our business. I would strongly encourage everyone to join the programme, no matter what their role is.

Questions

1. What is the purpose of mentoring in Jackie's case?
2. What are the key skills of mentoring as described by Jackie?
3. What are the key characteristics of Jackie's mentor?

Note: some possible answers to these and the following questions are given at the end of this chapter.

Case 2 John (mentee, international manager, private sector)

For me, having a mentor is like a big support system within the company, and the feeling of someone there to hear all your concerns and to provide constructive advice that adds more value to that process. We share different time zones, and it's always challenging when the person is not just in front of you. However, in spite of that, my mentor has made sure we speak at least once in a month, and I have started appreciating the process, which probably keeps me motivated day after day. Overall, we have built a good relationship where I share my thoughts about the work and the company. I feel mentoring helps me to keep my head cool and not take hasty decisions during those tough times.

Questions

1. What is the main purpose of mentoring for John?
2. What are the main outcomes of mentoring for John?

Case 3 Fatima (mentor, scientific consultant, private sector)

As a mentor, I see the primary benefit is for my mentee but I am happy to support this as I believe this is generally a good thing to do … which is to build a strong community within the business and develop company advocates for those that do move on. What has worked well for me is the regular

contact and open dialogue. If I had a mentee again, I would try to meet them earlier, if that's not practical, then I will use our video conference facility. I have benefited by better understanding how different people view life and the business.

Questions

1. What does Fatima see as her function as a mentor?
2. What is Fatima's main skill as a mentor?
3. What purpose does she feel mentoring plays in the business?

Case 4 Bob (mentor, country manager, private sector)

Working with someone and being a support and help in their development has been personally very rewarding. It is also challenging, as my mentee will often ask questions about issues and situations that I have not considered before. Thinking about these can be a help to my own role. As a manager, it is helpful to see the perspective of someone being managed. Our relationship has been fairly informal, which has been good. However, this level of informality may not always work best; it depends on the two individuals involved. Both should be aware of the type of relationship they are trying to develop. Overall, I have found this a very positive experience.

Questions

1. What does Bob gain by being a mentor?
2. What does Bob see as a central feature of mentoring?

To conclude the section on the history of mentoring and its development, the following is a summary of key discourse themes:

- Mentoring's roots are educational
- Mentoring supports psychosocial development
- Learning is fundamentally based on critical reflections of experience
- Leadership is learnable and involves challenges and opportunities to practice and reflect
- Leadership development is more than a function of the individual – there are wider societal and political interests to be served
- Human relationships built on trust and mutual respect offer important contexts for learning
- Power dynamics play a role in shaping meaning and can be both helpful and destructive
- There are three types of mentor – stern, friendly and flexible
- Motivation to mentor may be linked to the concept of 'generativity'
- Skills include listening, questioning, challenge and support
- Mentoring has been adopted with zealotry fervour, particularly in the public sector, to tackle social problems

Tracking the discourses of coaching

There is much speculation in the coaching literature about its origins. Coaching activity is derived from a similar but not so ancient a tradition as mentoring. In modern practice, it has many more variations than mentoring. However, some claim (McDermott and Jago, 2005; Zeus and Skiffington, 2000) that coaching is derived from prehistory on the basis that prehistoric peoples 'must have' helped each other to improve their hunting and stone-throwing skills! This argument resonates with Erikson's (1978) 'generativity' concept mentioned above in the mentoring section but these are speculative arguments with clear associations with 'performative' learning.

Some coaching writers (Brock, 2014; Brunner, 1998; de Haan, 2008; Hughes, 2003) link coaching to Socratic teachings and the Socratic method. This is an Ancient Greek association. Essentially, the purpose of Socratic dialogue was the pursuit of self-knowledge and truth. It was a stylised dialectic process involving a debate and inquiry between people of opposing viewpoints. The Socratic method takes, for example, a generic 'truth' and dissects it with questions to test consistency and coherence. The process makes it necessary to take a 'devil's advocate' position to defend one point of view against another. The Socratic method was also a competitive process where one participant sought to weaken the position of the other in order to strengthen their own.

Others (Brock, 2014; Starr, 2002; Wilson, 2007) claim that coaching is derived from sport and historical references from the nineteenth century cited below support this idea. Brock (2014) also argues that coaching has many other antecedents which lead back to the nineteenth century. These include: philosophy, biology (neuroscience), anthropology, linguistics, psychology, sociology, education and economics. She further links coaching to both East Asian and Western philosophies in a highly complex web of relationships of ideas.

Wildflower (2013) argues that the notion behind coaching started with the nineteenth-century author and political reformer, Samuel Smiles. In a speech made in 1845, Smiles stated that:

> Every human being has a great mission to perform, noble faculties to cultivate, a vast destiny to accomplish. He should have the means of education, and of exerting freely all the powers of his godlike nature. (Smiles, 1956: 71)

His famous book *Self-Help* set the tone for a kind of individualistic economic reform that placed learning and development at its centre and, despite its radical reforming theme, Smiles became, perhaps unfairly, a favoured symbol of the right of the UK Conservative Party (Jarvis, 1997) for his advocacy of individual responsibility and criticism of excessive government interventions. Arguably, coaching today could be viewed, with its performative leanings, to be heavily influenced by an economic success discourse based on individualism.

Wildflower's (2013) book convincingly tracks and argues links between 'success' in a capitalist world and ideas found in the self-help notion (Smiles, Carnegie); human potential movement (Esalen Institute); person centeredness (Rogers); personal responsibility (Erhard); sports psychology (Gallwey); various branches of psychology (Freud, Jung, Reich, Olalla, Perls, Erikson, Berne); psychometrics; sociology and identity – a complex historical web, indeed.

However, the first recorded use of the word 'coaching' in relation to a 'helping' activity in the English language was in 1849 in Thackeray's novel *Pendennis*. Here, coaching is used in connection with helping to improve academic attainment at Oxford University.

Unlike the use of the word 'mentoring' in the eighteenth century which was found in educational treatise, the word 'coaching' was used in the popular press. It is found in newspaper, magazine and journal articles throughout the nineteenth century – for example, Smedley (1866); *London Evening Standard* (1867); *Grantham Journal* (1885); and *Cambridge Daily News* (1889). This suggests that coaching was a much more popularist activity, defined by the varied social contexts in which it was found. For example, coaching is referred to in the press as something associated with improved performance in boating and rowing, learning scientific procedures and craft skills, improving parenting skills, improving academic attainment, teaching the defence of wicket in cricket – the main discourse of the period being: 'performance improvement in a skilled activity'. Its process seemed to broadly involve observation, questions, demonstration, performance and feedback. In the main, it was the coach who held the agenda as the person who 'knows'. There do not appear to be any works which directly use the term 'coaching' as a 'helping activity' that predate the nineteenth century.

More modern developments in coaching

A central discourse of more modern developments in coaching continues to be 'performance improvement'. Despite the historical associations with coaching, others also link the beginning of modern business coaching to Timothy Gallwey's (1974) book *The Inner Game of Tennis*. Located in the sports context, Gallwey focuses on the mental state of the sportsperson and not on the skills of the sport. His emphasis is on the player reaching a state of 'relaxed concentration'. The thesis of 'the inner game' is to enable players to discover their true potential. Psychological discourse threads run through the book, involving notions such as visualisation, non-judgemental observation and trust. The 'inner game' offers insight into the psychology of human performance and resonates with various approaches to therapy.

In 1979, Megginson and Boydell published the manual *A Manager's Guide to Coaching*. They define coaching as: 'a process in which a manager, through direct discussion and guided activity, helps a colleague to solve a problem, or to do a task better

than would otherwise have been the case' (ibid.: 5). In this manual, coaching is located in the workplace as a management activity focused on performance improvement.

In 1992, John Whitmore first published *Coaching for Performance*. This work is now in its third edition.This featured the GROW (Goals, Reality, Options and Wrap up) model of coaching. In this work, performance is again a strong driver of coaching and the discourse of 'goals' as a driver of performance is central. Arguably, it is *Coaching for Performance* that was the vanguard of much of what we understand coaching to be today and whilst there are many variations of practice, this book is probably the most influential.

We conclude from this brief historical analysis that coaching has emerged from a variety of social contexts and spread by social means. It is therefore a strongly social activity, drawing on broad intellectual frameworks. Modern coaching practices are dynamic and contextual, with coaching appearing as an alternative approach to thinking about performance. Its roots are in education, sport, psychology and psychotherapy.

The research base of coaching, however, is thin to date. The earliest account seems to be in the research of Coleman Griffith from 1918. He later headed a research unit at the University of Illinois from 1926, which included the aim 'towards increasing the effectiveness of coaching methods'. He published *Psychology of Coaching* in 1926. In 1937, research by Gorby was looking at coaching for performance improvement with a focus on waste reduction and profit enhancement. According to Grant and Cavanagh (2004), in a period of more than 50 years from 1937 onwards, there were only 50 papers or PhD dissertations cited in the PsychInfo and DAI databases. The period 1995 to 1999 saw an increase in output, with 29 papers or PhD dissertations published, and between 2000 and 2003 there were 49 citations.

The British Library theses database of PhDs in UK universities cites a total of 69 works on non-sports-connected coaching between 2003 and 2015.

Problematic discourses in coaching

During the nineteenth century, the use of coaching in, for example, rowing, was viewed as unsporting because it provided direct help to the rowers in the form of instructions being shouted from the towpath. This form of directive coaching in sport is still evident. For example, Jones and Wallace (2005) suggest that: 'Despite its complex nature, associated literature has traditionally viewed coaching from a rationalistic perspective a "knowable sequence" over which coaches are presumed to have command.' (ibid.: 121). They call for ways in which a coachee in sports can develop his or her own 'agency' rather than compliance to the whims of the coach. Potrac et al. (2002) also highlight some negative discourse in the sports coaching model. These included 'controlling',

'directive' and 'imposition of the coach's agenda on the coachee' – perhaps this is an association with the 'Svengali' character.

It is interesting to note that many former sports people are engaged in coach training in the business context and this raises the question of which model of coaching they promote. Arguably, this may be a goals-oriented framework derived from sports coaching. The goals discourse in business coaching is a very dominant one and it is possible that this is a direct influence from sport. It may also come from the traditions of 'management by objectives' – a dominant discourse in management today.

However, Kayes (2006) and Spreier et al. (2006) suggest that goals 'blind you to danger'. Johnson and Bröms (2000) indicate that target-chasing does not improve anything and can lead to disappointment and frustration, and this is dealt with in various articles and book chapters (see, for example, Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005b; Garvey et al., 2009; and Megginson, 2007). Megginson (2007) has many issues with the goals discourse in coaching. These are condensed here as follows:

- Conflict in goals between sponsor, coach and client diffuses motivation
- Goals narrow the focus of discussion too soon
- Goals can encourage collusion in not addressing painful areas
- Meandering can be useful exploration
- If I am in transition, I can't commit to a goal and it is an unknowable world
- Goals are often a compliance to the dominant discourse and divert people from what they really want to work on
- Goal-setting can be profoundly destructive of coaching process
- The coachee may not be ready to discuss goals and they may resist and slow the process
- Why set goals for over-targeted managers anyway?
- Goals can create avoidance

The association with the Socratic method is another problematic discourse. Again, like mentoring, this association may be an exercise in establishing historical credibility, longevity and a rebuff to the 'something new and untried' accusation. Socratic dialogue is a reductionist and stylised process. Socratic dialogue is also a competitive methodology aimed at winning a 'truth' argument. It has, therefore, the potential to develop cynicism and scepticism (this is its purpose) and perhaps more dangerously, the notion that there is only one truth – the essence of reductionism. Socrates, as de Bono (2006) reminds us, was trained as a sophist and that pattern of argument reduces the opportunity for creative ways of seeing and finding new directions.

While this position may appeal to the managerial discourse of 'one best way', some (Goldman, 1984; Kimball, 1986; Stone, 1988) view the process as corrosive rather than confirming. This is at odds with both the modern coaching and mentoring discourse

of autonomy of choice and the creative process. Moreover, the philosopher Nietzsche (1974) suggested that Socrates was responsible for the destruction of artistry which he argued was driven out by rationality and reductionism. Clearly, the rational pragmatic discourse of management is found in the Socratic method and this may help explain why so many coaches adopt the Socratic approach or at least claim that it is a fundamental element in coaching. Neenan (2009), for example, asserts that it is essential in coaching practice.

A further issue is the question of motivation and intent of the coach. Downey (2003: 57) questions the motivations of novice coaches suggesting that they may be driven by the 'need to solve, to fix, to heal, to be right or to be in control'. Perhaps, with the advent of the professionalisation of coaching (or at least attempts in this direction – see Chapter 11), this becomes a bigger issue. A paid coach, within a business setting, is under pressure to demonstrate cost-effectiveness of their intervention. This will inevitably influence the motivation and intent behind the process. Linked to this are the expectations of coachees, for example a novice coachee may have expectations of improved personal or team performance or that they will be recipients of expert advice. These are also contrary to the dominant coaching discourse of non-directiveness by following the coachee's agenda.

With the case of a line-manager coach, Nielsen and Nørreklit (2009: 208) suggest that the description of line-manager coaching as presented in Hunt and Weintraub (2002: 101) is actually a 'fake dialogue' that anticipates given responses and, therefore, the power position of the line-manager coach distorts and controls the dialogue. The 'line manager as coach' discourse is again an example of a discourse which ignores the potential conflict of power inherent between the coach and the coached.

Activity 1.2   Four case examples of coaching

The following four case vignettes of two coachees and two coaches illustrate what can happen in coaching, the potential gains, and the special character of the coaching relationship.

Case 1 Jane (coachee, operations manager, manufacturing)

My coach is a manager in another part of the business. We have met monthly for about six months now. I have found the coaching session immensely satisfying and helpful in giving me time to reflect and consider my options carefully rather than rushing into things because of the general busyness of my section. It helps me to think about the challenges ahead and encourages deeper thinking about work and my performance and this impacts on the performance of my team.

Questions

1. What is Jane's purpose for coaching?
2. How does she benefit?

Case 2 Scott (coachee, accountant in finance department)

I welcomed the idea of having a coach, although some of my colleagues did ask what it was that I had done wrongly! I have learned quite a lot about myself and how I think about my work and performance – my manager said that she noticed the difference in me after three or four sessions! I think that I have become more confident and not scared about making wrong decisions. My coach doesn't judge me, if you know what I mean, but helps me think things through. I feel that I have also become more accountable for my decisions and able to justify them.

Questions

1. How do Scott's colleagues position coaching?
2. What do Scott's comments suggest about the coaching he receives?

Case 3 Rhona (internal coach, team leader, manufacturing business)

I think that by being a coach I have developed some key people skills which can be used on a daily basis in formal and informal settings and providing insights into how to be a better manager. I have been surprised by how much I have learned and understood aspects of the business by simply listening, hearing, helping and guiding my coachees into new ways of looking at their work. It gives me a lot of satisfaction seeing people grow, develop and improve their performance knowing that I helped it happen!

Questions

1. How does being a coach contribute to Rhona's development?
2. What is Rhona's motivation to coach?

Case 4 Sushant (external coach)

I work as a consultant but often find myself coaching people as part of my work. Learning coaching has developed my skills and widened my perspective on how people are in business. I think that

(Continued)

(Continued)

coaching has been good for people in business because it helps people think for themselves and it challenges the status quo somewhat! Coaching can improve relationships as well as performance. It does matter who I coach because not everyone gets on and this can make or break the coaching relationship. Coaching has challenged me to think differently about my relationships and my role as a consultant. I think I work very differently because of it, in my work and life, I now ask questions rather than tell people what to do.

Questions

1. How does Sushant view coaching?
2. How has coaching impacted on Sushant's behaviour as a consultant?

To conclude this section on coaching's history and development, we summarise some key discourse themes:

- Coaching's roots are educational
- It broadly has a performative agenda
- From education, coaching practice migrated to sport
- Its development continued with a focus on skills improvement, task achievement and parenting skills development
- Power dynamics play a role in shaping meaning and can be both helpful and destructive
- Motivation to coach may be linked to the concept of 'generativity'
- Skills include listening, questioning, challenge and support
- Coaching has a positive, fluid social and popular history
- Mental processes play a strong role in improved performance
- Goals play a part in performance improvement
- There are directive branches and non-directive branches of coaching and both have the potential to develop performance

The existence of these contested discourses matters. When we think about the *purpose* of coaching and mentoring as an activity and even more so as a profession, we cannot simply assume that it is a good thing or politically neutral. We are taking a position in a discourse when we define coaching and mentoring, and the definition we choose carries with it connotations from the discourse. Similarly, when we meet with a client and agree on the purpose of the piece of work we will undertake together, we are taking a position within a discourse. This has implications for what we do, how we do it and why we consider it a worthwhile activity.

The rise and rise of coaching and mentoring

Mentoring activity is embedded in organisational and social life, and coaching has now come of age. Over the last decade, both have developed from esoteric activities on the fringes of mainstream learning and development, to central elements of workplace learning in a huge range of organisations. In the UK, for example, coaching and mentoring are widespread throughout all types of organisation – public, private, large, small and not-for-profit. In recent years, the UK Home Office has spent £10 million per annum on mentoring for young offenders; the Department for Education and Science (DfES) spent £25 million on young people's schemes; and in the NHS, approximately 250,000 people – or 20 per cent of all staff – are engaged in mentoring activity. More recently, in 2012, the UK Government provided £1.9 million for the 'Get Mentoring Project'. Here 15,000 business mentors were trained to support entrepreneurs. They committed one hour each month for two years. The then Business Minister said: 'We have invested in mentoring because we know that good mentors can provide the practical advice and support that an entrepreneur needs to take their business idea to the next level' (www.gov.uk/government/news/business-mentors-are-ready-and-waiting-to-support-smes, accessed 16 April 2015).

The Penna Survey (2014) on talent management states that 70 per cent of Fortune 500 companies have mentoring arrangements and Youth Business (www.youthbusiness.org/18949-youth-led-businesses-supported-by-ybi-last-year/) helped 18,949 young entrepreneurs to start businesses in 40 different countries with the help of trained volunteer mentors during 2014.

According to two studies, the Bresser *Global Coaching Survey* (2009) and the Bresser *European Coaching Survey* (2008), there are an estimated 43,000–45,000 business coaches currently operating worldwide. While many countries in the world engage in business coaching, there are some quite strong clusters of coaching activity. Europe accounts for 20 per cent of coaches and the combination of North America and Australia have an estimated 80 per cent of all business coaches. Within Europe, the UK and Germany have over 70 per cent of EU coaches. In the UK and Ireland, there is about one business coach for every 8,000 inhabitants.

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development's (CIPD) *Resourcing and Planning* report (2015a) shows a steady increase from 2008 in both coaching and mentoring support within the surveyed organisations. The CIPD's *Learning and Development* report (2015b) finds that 75 per cent of all organisations surveyed employ some form of coaching and mentoring to support learning and development, with a further 13 per cent planning to introduce coaching or mentoring the following year.

The *Ridler Report* (Ridler & Co., 2013) indicates a steady growth in team coaching and an increase from 2011 in the use of coaching for senior people and a high rating of coaching as an intervention for senior leadership development.

A 2013 small-scale study conducted for the International Coach Federation shows that, despite the very small sample size, coaching appears to be covered in at least seven different classifications of business sectors: Health, Pharma and Science; IT and Social Media; Manufacturing, Engineering and Defence; Retail and Consumer; Public Sector and Non-Profit; Consulting and Financial Services and Transport; and at least six different geographic locations on the globe (PwC, 2013).

These surveys indicate that business coaching and mentoring are still in the growth phase around the globe.

A notable development from approximately 2000 onwards has been the growing interest in coaching among psychologists and therapists. Here, there is a debate about the role of psychology and therapeutic practice within executive coaching (Brunning, 2006; Hart et al., 2007; Kilburg, 2004a). This debate, which is rather similar to the debate about similarities and differences between coaching and mentoring, is about the distinction between psychotherapy and coaching. Grant and O'Hara (2006), for example, suggest that: 'some individuals seek coaching as a socially-acceptable form of therapy'; and in a rather barbed comment, Williams and Irving (2001: 3–7) state that: 'Coaching looks like counselling in disguise – without the stigma, but also without the ethics.' To create even more debate on ethics in the psychotherapeutic coaching arena, Bono et al. (2009) show that qualified psychologists have higher fees for coaching than for therapy and they charge more than non-psychologist coaches for their services – elitism perhaps? Suggesting strong commercial interest, this group also derives 50 per cent of its income from coaching.

The rise of different brands of coaching contrasts with the rather limited brands of mentoring. Here, there is a different social phenomenon at play as coaching is more associated with performance and increasingly a professional activity, whereas mentoring is often linked to voluntarism. However, Garvey et al. (2009) also argue that both coaching and mentoring are increasingly subject to commodification as 'products'. This is particularly prevalent in the coaching world, as evidenced by the increase in 'return on investment' research (Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Jarvis et al., 2006; Joo, 2005; Smither et al., 2003; Tucker, 2005) but also in the emergence of an overwhelming number of 'brands' of coaching. So what accounts for this rise and rise of coaching and mentoring in both developed and developing countries?

Mentoring, as a phenomenon which gained increasing momentum from the late 1980s in both the UK and USA, may be linked to the reconceptualisation of organisations, such as the 'knowledge-creating company' (Nonaka, 1991). It can be located within the wider concept of the learning society, which 'needs to celebrate the qualities of being open to new ideas, listening to as well as expressing perspectives, reflecting on and enquiring into solutions to new dilemmas, co-operating in the practice of change and critically reviewing it' (Ranson, 1992: 75).

In such a society, learning is not confined to formal learning institutions, but permeates and enriches the lives of all people at work and by implication, enhances the host organisation's performance, which, consequently, enriches the wider social context.

The reasons for this increasing interest in learning at work are varied and complex. The business world in the late eighties and early nineties saw 'the quality boom'. This was primarily aimed at organisations achieving competitive advantage through the superior quality of their products or services. This, combined with a drive to cut costs, saw great developments in technology and changes in working practices. Manufacturing industries saw the introduction of sophisticated automation and consequently the demand for a technically skilled workforce able to be flexible and adaptable increased. Paradoxically, some skilled workers started to become deskilled as a result of technology. Within a short period, competing organisations found that much less divided them in terms of differences in the quality of their products or services, pricing and processes. High-quality products with high-quality service at reduced cost became the entry point at which organisations could do business (Hamel and Prahalad, 1989, 1991).

Competitive advantage based on quality alone became more difficult to sustain. Business started to develop new customer-led strategies that required quality products, value for money, quality service and after-sales care. Slogans began to appear in organisational documents such as 'people mean business', 'we're in it for the long haul', 'people are our most important asset', and the concepts of strategic human resource development and teamworking evolved.

UK Government action to support this idea created the 'Investors in People' initiative (a Conservative Government initiative aimed at improving organisations through training and development). This brought real benefits in the form of improved training systems, improved skills and motivation, a better identification of training and development needs and enhanced financial performance (HMSO, 1995: 82, para. 7.10; and Hillage and Moralee, 1996). More generally, 'intangible sources' such as personal and organisational networking were identified as a source of 'sustainable competitive advantage' (Hall, 1994; Nonaka, 1991; Hamel and Prahalad, 1991).

Some saw these events as managerial attempts to 'gloss' over the flaws in 'disorganised capitalism' (Lash and Urry, 1987), but others took a more generous view. Later, as Kessels (1996: 4) put it:

> a far more cogent argument would be that organisations have a direct stake in the personal enrichment of employees because excellence on the job requires employees who are comfortable with their work and who have strong and stable personalities. Personal enrichment is thus less an employee privilege than a condition for good performance.

In this period, many organisations were attempting to develop into 'learning companies' (Pedler et al., 1991) in order to achieve a competitive edge.

The UK public sector during the Thatcher Government, similar to today's Conservative Government, saw many changes. In the main, these were driven by the rhetoric of the reduction of public expenditure but at the same time there was an attempt to improve the quality of service. Many public sector organisations became subject to 'market principles' and the notion of 'public service' diminished. The public sector started to become more 'managerial' in its approach with the support and encouragement of a right-wing, free market political agenda. The public sector saw compulsory competitive tendering and a 'commercialisation' of its activities. Within the Health Service, Trusts were established and locally the long tradition of cooperation within the Service was put under strain as some started to view one another as competitors.

Arguably, the free market economic philosophy coming out of the USA and the UK generated a social sense of urgency and competitiveness, a desire to do things differently. The implications of this fast-changing and competitive climate on individuals were considerable. The need increased for people able to adapt to change rapidly, be innovative and creative, be flexible and adaptive, to learn quickly and apply their knowledge to a range of situations. The whole nature of work changed and the notion of having a career for life was transformed (Beck, 1992; Handy, 1990; Nonaka, 1991). Clearly, this climate also had implications on individuals and the need for employees to have 'strong and stable personalities' (Kessels, 1996) as individualism became increasingly important. In association with this fast-changing climate, there was a tendency in both the public and private sectors towards 'objectivity' in all work activities. Newtonian scientific method applied to organisational life became a dominant preoccupation of managers. The exponential growth in performance league tables for organisations and performance objectives for individuals offered evidence of this (Caulkin, 1995, 1997). The pressure for improved performance accelerated.

Both coaching and mentoring activity developed in practice in a range of contexts around this period, perhaps to address the relational and supportive needs of people in change, holistic learning and development and performance improvement. Both seemed to have emerged as offering an alternative discourse to the rational, pragmatic and performance-driven world of organisations but, at the same time, curiously part of this discourse. This is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

By examining publications on coaching and mentoring over time, it is possible to get some sense of the developing or changing discourses. Figure 1.1 shows that publications in peer-reviewed journals (the gold standard of research) on both coaching and mentoring between 1983 and 2000 were approximately the same in number. It also shows that peer-reviewed articles focused on learning and development during this period rather than on performance.
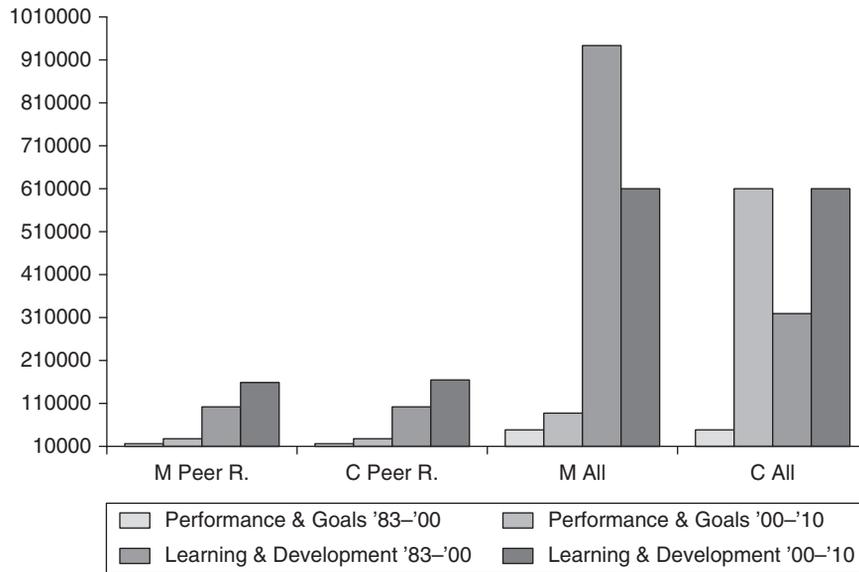
Figure 1.1   Numbers of published articles which link learning and development and performance to coaching and mentoring (Garvey, 2011)

There is an increase in articles linking coaching and mentoring to the learning and development agenda between the years 2000 and 2010, with a slight increase in articles linking coaching and mentoring and performance.

What is particularly striking are the figures for mentoring and the links to learning and development between 1983 and 2000 with over 910,000 publications, but declining quite dramatically between 2000 and 2010 as the coaching agenda started in organisations. There is also a low number of articles linking mentoring and performance in the whole period of 1983–2010.

For coaching literature, there is a marked difference. Between 1983 and 2000, there are few articles linking coaching and performance, with a huge increase between 2000 and 2010. Between 1983 and 2000, coaching was moderately linked to learning and development, but between 2000 and 2010 the link between coaching and learning and development increased considerably.

This demonstrates a shift in the discourses in both coaching and mentoring in the last ten years.

In 1990, a major publication was launched – *The Fifth Discipline* by Peter M. Senge. According to the 1997 *Harvard Business Review*, this was one of the seminal works of the last 75 years! There is little doubt that it was a bestseller and had a huge impact

on both sides of the Atlantic. This publication also coincided with a whole raft of 'learning organisation' literature. This literature argued that the route to enhanced performance in business was to develop a learning environment. During this period, the mentoring movement was growing in the UK, and it linked itself to the learning and development discourse of this period, with the coaching discourse linking up to this later.

Coaching and mentoring are now the norm in a majority of corporate organisations, and are widespread in the public and voluntary sectors. From being almost exclusively a phenomenon of the English-speaking Anglo-Saxon world, the use of coaching and mentoring has spread around the globe into a vast number of countries, cultures and language communities. Today, a burgeoning literature, both 'popular' and scholarly, bears testimony not only to the diffusion of coaching and mentoring throughout organisational life, but also to the level of interest in them. In the UK ten years ago, Oxford Brookes and Sheffield Hallam universities and the Professional Development Foundation internationally pioneered postgraduate awards in coaching and mentoring, and by 2015 at least 25 UK higher education institutions are either delivering directly, or accrediting, undergraduate- and Masters-level programmes in coaching and/or mentoring.

Towards integration and distinctiveness

All the above highlights that both coaching and mentoring share similar skills and process and that the results are often similar! However, in Activity 1.1 and 1.2, all the case examples are based on organisational schemes and, therefore, an internal coach may have a very similar function to an internal mentor. Both involve voluntary effort, both impact on the participants and the business. In broad terms, these examples suggest that mentoring mainly supports learning and development with some performance orientation and coaching supports performance improvement with some learning and development.

Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005b) observe that in a range of books on both coaching and mentoring, some authors seem to position coaching and mentoring as different and distinctive from each other, criticising one and elevating the other. One of the areas of difference is in the experience of the coach or the mentor. Mentoring is often associated with passing on experience and, at times, this is described as 'handing out gratuitous advice'. Coaching is often described as non-directive and experience-free. Neither position is wholly accurate. Experience for both a mentor and a coach can be valuable but it is the way that it is used that counts!

Activity 1.3

An experienced mentor from a mentee's point of view

My mentor has a lot of experience and he uses it as examples to illustrate. He sometimes shares his experience as a 'story'. This gives him a kind of human feel. He never says: 'do it like this because I got success this way'. He never dishes out advice either. I wouldn't take it anyway! What he says is: 'this is my experience now let's unpick it and discuss it to see if there is anything to learn here'. I find this helpful as it gives a sense of reality to our discussions. I wouldn't want it any other way.

- How is the mentor using experience in this case?

An experienced coach from a coachee's point of view

I have a coach who comes from outside of my business. He has lot of business experience. I think this gives him some credibility. I think he uses his experience to inform his questions sometimes and at other times he shares his experience. I don't copy him, if you know what I mean, but I do get ideas for action from his stories and I find them interesting. If he spent all his time just listening and asking me what I think all the time, I'd question his value. I mean, what would be the point of that?

- How is the coach using experience in this case?

Distinctiveness?

Despite the obvious similarities between coaching and mentoring in terms of skills and processes, there are some models of coaching and mentoring that are clearly distinctive. In the world of mentoring, there are five basic models:

- Developmental mentoring to support the mentee's learning and development as he or she experiences some sort of change. This is often part of an organisational scheme within the private, public or social sectors
- Sponsorship mentoring to fast-tracking the mentee's career. This is predominantly a US model (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004), but versions of this approach may be found in 'Talent' programmes in the UK and Europe
- Executive mentoring is for executives who may be working on their performance, leadership skills and longer-term strategic thinking

- Reverse mentoring is a relatively new innovation to the mentoring model. Here a younger, junior person may be a mentor to a more senior or older person. This approach focuses on the differences of experience or understanding and attitudes as mentor and mentee learn about each other's worlds. An example of this is found in the US with the company Time Warner. Younger, technically expert people mentor senior executives and in the UK Health Sector, patients may mentor health care professionals on the self-management of long-term health conditions
- Peer mentoring where colleagues are mutually supportive

There is another form of mentoring developing with Marsha Carr (www.selfmentoring.net, accessed 9 October 2015) in the US known as 'self-mentoring'. Currently, this is in its infancy. It has developed in order to counter the sometimes destructive power elements found in mentoring. It is based on a reflective and reflexive model of learning and values and respects an individual's resourcefulness.

Within the coaching world, Garvey et al. (2009: 81) suggest that, there are five basic forms of coaching:

- Sports coaching derived from the sports world in line with the historical roots as outlined above
- Life coaching derived from person-centred counselling (there is one eighteenth-century reference to developing parenting skills as a form of life coaching)
- Executive coaching which is a commercial- and business-oriented form of coaching with its roots in sponsorship mentoring and psychotherapy
- Team coaching associated with sports coaching and probably developed from the tradition of action learning
- Brief coaching/solution-focused coaching developed from therapy, goal-oriented and time-limited intervention – an increasingly developing business model focused on the time-limited executive

Whilst it is clear that many of these forms share processes, skills and techniques, some key differences may be found in what people think that coaching and mentoring might be for, whether or not it is a paid or voluntary activity and, of course, the main driver of this book, the contexts in which they happen.

A starting point as a coach or mentor is to consider the *purpose* of the field, as we perceive it and the way it is defined in our work with clients. As is clear from the various discourses within the field, defining that purpose for persons (as clients) or peoples (as a profession) involves taking a position. These positions include:

- The intent of the work – what is it designed to accomplish?
- The values it represents – what informs it?

- The philosophical stance taken – what evidence base is called upon to justify the activity?
- The context in which it is defined as worthwhile – what makes it a meaningful activity?

As coaches and mentors we need to take responsibility to have considered our position, the discourse that underpins the stance we take and to justify the *purpose* of the activity as we practice it.

These issues will be explored as the book progresses. We invite you to reflect on these positions as preparation for the journey through the chapters ahead.

Summary

- The notion and importance of 'discourse' is highlighted as key element of this book
- Both coaching and mentoring have a long history
- There is a dominant positive narrative about coaching and mentoring in the literature but there are also some negative narratives
- Both coaching and mentoring have educational roots
- The history of coaching has a performative aspect, whereas mentoring has a more developmental aspect
- Coaching and mentoring are similar and yet distinctive

Topics for discussion

1. What do you see as the main similarities or differences between coaching and mentoring?
2. Do these matter?
3. What impact might the different contexts of coaching and mentoring in practice have on their operation?
4. How far does our past shape our present?

Questions that remain

1. How does the stated purpose of coaching or mentoring influence its practice?
2. Are coaching and mentoring about skills and techniques or something else? If something else, what else?
3. What difference does the model of coaching or mentoring make to practice?

Further reading

Daloz, L.A. (1999) *Mentor: Guiding the Journey of Adult Learners*. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. An excellently and artistically written account of mentoring in the education system. The chapter on learning theories and mentoring is particularly impressive.

Dutton, J.E. and Ragins, B.R. (2007) *Exploring Positive Relationships at Work*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. A good interdisciplinary account about developmental relationships in the workplace.

Western, S. (2012) *Coaching and Mentoring: A Critical Text*. London: Sage. An interesting and critical account of coaching and mentoring. 'Scoping the Field: Definitions and Divergence of Practice' is a particularly helpful chapter.

What next?

In Chapter 2, the notion of discourse continues. Here we highlight the psychological discourses. These include the discourse associated with the rational pragmatic, which revolve around the practical applications of various brands of psychology to coaching and mentoring for practitioners – the 'how to' discourse. We raise the discourse of the theorists and these include the discourses of the behavioural and cognitive approaches, the psychoanalytic and therapeutic and the humanistic. We also raise the academic discourse of 'critique' and argue that more needs to be done in the way of critical writing on coaching and mentoring. Critique is important, for without it there is blind compliance! Continuing on the academic theme, 'evidence' is another discourse. However, it is clear that one person's evidence is another person's subjective opinion, therefore we raise the discourse of 'what is truth'?

Possible answers to questions on pp. 14–15

1. Support in a new job role
2. Listening and challenge
3. Positive role model and sounding board
4. Exploring ideas, motivational support
5. Helping with decision-making and thinking things through
6. Building a strong community of support
7. Her reflective ability and awareness of her own need to learn
8. Social integration and understanding diversity
9. He develops himself by being challenged by his mentee

10. Sensitive awareness about relationship dynamics
11. It develops strategic thinking
12. It provides space for her to think future challenges through
13. They may see it as remedial or that he has performance issues?
14. His coach is non-directive and non-judgemental and it develops autonomy
15. Coaching has enabled Rhona to develop important people skills
16. She is motivated by performance improvement she sees in others
17. Coaching is changing the organisational culture and empowering people
18. He has become less directive and more facilitative
19. The mentor is offering his experience to develop ideas and demonstrate empathy
20. The coach is establishing credibility and the questions are informed by experience