

Mentoring in coach education:

Defining the characteristics of mentoring relationships

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Abstract

The process of mentoring is well developed in many environments, but is still being explored within the world of sport coaching (Jones et al., 2009). In this study, the characteristics of mentoring were explored through observation and interviews with three hockey coach mentors, with the purpose of discovering what characteristics are present in mentor coaches and the ideal aspects of mentoring relationships in coaching. The three main themes that emerged from the data were mentoring characteristics (technical and personal), sources of coaching knowledge (tangible and intangible) and the mentorship experience (ideal experience and identified barriers). The results of the study recognize knowledge of the game, approachability and communication as key characteristics of a mentor, and acknowledge that the ideal mentoring relationship allows for observation and questions from the mentor who provides the protégé with information to enhance the decision making process. A mentoring model of coaching is proposed.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Sport is considered a significant opportunity for the development of youth (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2011) and in Canada, 75% of children age 5-14 participate in organized sport (Statistics Canada, 2011). Youth sport has three main objectives: 1) increased physical health, 2) increased psychosocial development, and 3) increased motor skills (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2011). These three objectives combine to increase athlete development, and are primarily influenced by coaches (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2011; Smoll & Smith, 2002). Coaches influence many physical and psychological elements of an athlete such as motivation, skill development, sport enjoyment (Gould, Collins, Lauer, & Chung, 2007), and increased self-esteem of the athlete (Smoll & Smith, 2002). There are three prominent models of coaching used within coaching science research the multidimensional model of leadership (MML) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978), coach effectiveness training (CET) (Smoll & Smith, 1993), and the coaching model (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995). These models all provide a foundation for coaches to produce a positive sport experience, but based on Smoll and Smith's (2002) recommendations, one of the most prominent ways to increase positive sport experience is to effectively train coaches to interact with and develop their athletes.

In Canada, coach education is largely formalized and tracked through the National Coach Certification Program (NCCP), but these programs are largely criticized for their lack of interaction and have lead coaches to gain knowledge elsewhere (Erickson, Bruner, MacDonald, & Côté, 2008). One of the ways in which coaches have sought out new information is through interactions with other coaches

(Erickson et al., 2008; Jones, Harris & Miles, 2009). The use of coach interactions as a source of development has led to an increase in the demand for coach mentoring as seen in Erickson et al.'s (2008) study involving preferred sources of coaching knowledge. Within the study, 48.5% of the coaches stated that they would prefer to learn from mentor coaches. While coaches tend to enjoy learning from a coach mentor, they have a difficult time describing exactly what determines a mentoring relationship (Cushion et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2009). Mentoring has many different definitions and descriptions throughout the various professions that incorporate the tactic, but many cite Alleman, Cochran, Doverspike and Newman's (1984) definition of mentoring as "a relationship in which a person of greater rank or expertise coaches, guides, and develops a novice in an organization or profession". Along with varied terms and characteristics, the mentoring process also contains many different models adapted throughout different professions, all hoping to increase two aspects of mentoring: career development (i.e., increasing opportunities for promotion) and psychosocial aspects of the protégé (i.e., confidence and motivation) (Kram, 1988). Business, nursing, and education all have significant mentoring models that have been adapted throughout the years (Jones et al., 2009), and now coaching needs to determine what direction its mentoring system will follow. The characteristics of mentoring within coaching need to be specified to adequately use these relationships to train the next generation of coaches (Cushion et al., 2010). In this study three hockey coach mentors are interviewed and observed with the purpose of determining these specific characteristics of mentoring and creating a mentoring model to improve the development of coaches.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In 2004, Gilbert and Trudel introduced the term of “coaching science” which “comprises research on the coaching, learning, and instructional processes as directed by coaches” (p. 389), categorizing all aspects of coaching literature under one heading. Coaching science research has increased steadily since 1970 (Bloom, 2011), delving into ideas such as coaching behaviours, coach development and education, and coaching efficacy. This review of literature will focus on an aspect of coaching science, namely coach development and education. Prominent models of coaching will be reviewed as well as types of coaching education, and research pertaining to mentoring within sport and other professions.

Models of Coaching

Models of coaching are used to form a foundation of knowledge incorporating the environment, desired outcomes, and coach’s attributes (Bloom, 2011). The most commonly used models are the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978), coach effectiveness training (Smoll & Smith, 1993), and the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995). These models use specific techniques to provide guidelines that assist coaches in obtaining the desired outcomes for their programs.

Multidimensional model of leadership. The multidimensional model of leadership (MML) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978) encompasses three aspects of leadership in sport: antecedents (i.e. team norms), leader behaviours (i.e. personality), and consequences (i.e. athlete’s skill development). In a linear model connecting these three leadership factors, the MML provides a guideline for how antecedents in sport can affect the behaviours of the leaders involved, which in turn affect the

consequences of the athlete's sporting experience. The three antecedents described within the MML are situational characteristics such as team norms and goals, leader characteristics such as the coach's personality or experience in the sport, and athlete characteristics such as gender, age and skill level (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). All three of these antecedents determine the sporting environment and what behaviours the coaches exhibit. The three states of leader behaviours described within the MML are: required behaviours that are expected of the coach, preferred behaviours that tend to be based on the preference of the athletes involved, and actual behaviours which are those behaviours the coach conducts regardless of the state of the environment they are in (Bloom, 2011; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). These differing antecedents and leader behaviours create diverse consequences such as a positive or negative affect on athlete's skill development or enjoyment of the sport. Price and Weiss (2000) used the MML as a foundation for their research involving coach burnout, the subsequent coaching behaviours and athletes' psychological responses. The study involved 193 female varsity soccer players and their 15 head coaches. The athletes completed the Sport Anxiety Scale (Smith, Smoll, & Schultz, 1990), the Adolescent Self-Perception Profile (Harter, 1988), Raedeke's burnout measure (Raedeke, 1997), and the Leadership Scale for Sport (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980), while the coaches completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The results of the research supported Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) MML as a model for coaching. The results solidified the link between coach characteristics (i.e. burnout), perceived coaching behaviours (i.e. form of feedback) and athlete outcomes (i.e. anxiety) (Price & Weiss, 2002).

Coach effectiveness training. According to Smoll and Smith's (1993) coach effectiveness training (CET) model, there are five coaching principles that can be used as basis of ideal coaching behaviours. The first principle of coaching is to create a sporting climate that is enjoyable and focused on developing technical and tactical skills appropriate to the athletes' age and ability. This focus on skill acquisition instead of winning will help improve the athlete's overall enjoyment of the activity. The second principle of the CET involves the coach using positive reinforcement, encouragement and appropriate instruction to gain the most from their athletes. By treating athletes with respect and creating a learning environment where they are not discouraged to make mistakes, a coach can create an ideal sport environment for optimal development. Smoll and Smith's (1993) third principle recognizes the importance of establishing norms within the team, encouraging team support, commitment, and cohesion. The fourth principle incorporates the athlete's views into the decision making process. Coaches should allow their athletes the opportunity to create their own rules in regards to team behaviour, increasing their accountability, confidence and decision-making skills. The last principle of the CET model encourages coaches to constantly monitor and assess their coaching behaviours. This process will allow for coaches to continue their development and keep focused on exhibiting positive coaching behaviours in terms of the previous four principles of the CET (Bloom, 2011; Smoll & Smith, 1993). Smoll, Smith, Barnett and Everett (1993) discovered substantial evidence of the positive effects of CET in their intervention-based research with 152 little league players and their 18 head coaches. The athletes of the coaches receiving the CET intervention recorded significant differences from

the control group. The intervention group athletes reported increased levels of coach supportiveness and instructional effectiveness, a positive relationship with the coach, and increased self-esteem in those with low self-esteem (Smoll et al., 1993). As stated by Smoll and Smith (1989), “the ultimate effects of coaching behaviours are mediated by the meaning that players attribute to them” (p.1527) therefore coaches should always assess what their behaviours are conveying to their athletes.

Coaching model. Similar to the MML, the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995) incorporates three peripheral components: coach’s personal characteristics, athlete’s personal characteristics and contextual factors. The coaching model differs from the MML by incorporating the three primary components of the coach’s mental model of athlete potential (competition, training, and organization), all of which are determined by the peripheral components. Competition refers to all of the coaching behaviours and knowledge applied throughout the day of competition. These competition day tasks include pre-competition and post-competition routines, as well as the detailed plans for the competition itself. The training component of the coaching model is characterized by the coach’s application of both physical and mental training, as well as incorporating technical and tactical knowledge specific to the sport (Côté et al., 1995). Finally organization as a primary component of Côté et al.’s (1995) coaching model incorporates maintaining an optimal training and competition environment. This optimal environment can be achieved through tasks such as establishing team norms, creating a plan for the season, setting team goals, and working with administration and support staff (Dejardins, 1996). All of the primary and peripheral components of the coaching model lead to the main goal of developing athletes (Côté

et al., 1995). Using the coaching model, Gilbert and Trudel (2000) conducted a case study with a university ice hockey coach. The data was collected through interviews and observations of the participant at three different times in the season. Overall, the data collected supported the incorporation of each of the primary and peripheral components of the coaching model (Gilbert & Trudel, 2000).

In 2005, Vallée and Bloom conducted a study to compare the components of team success relative to the MML and the coaching model, and determine which model is more likely to lead to a successful program. The study participants were five Canadian female basketball or volleyball coaches requiring the planning of a seven-month season, competition every weekend, and daily practices. The five coaches were interviewed individually using questions pertaining to the MML and the coaching model. After the data analysis, four categories emerged from the data: coaches' attributes, individual growth, organizational skills, and vision (Vallée & Bloom, 2005). The coach's attributes described the nature of the coach, including their commitment to learning as well as their personality characteristics. The individual growth category encompassed the expert coaches drive to develop each player into an elite athlete. This individual growth included skills and tactics required in the sport, as well as behaviours and values that would help them as individuals and teammates. The organizational skills involved the strategic planning and management of the season, from the overall seasonal plan to the individual practices the coaches organizational skills were used on a daily basis to keep their team on track. Finally vision incorporates the coach's goals for the season and overall direction of the program over several years. The results of the model analysis complement the

components of the coaching model, emphasizing the importance of organizational skills and detailing all aspects of the program (Vallée & Bloom, 2005). The coaching model appears to provide a strong foundation for the success of coaches and their program, but the overall knowledge needed to inform these organizational decisions is found within coach development programs.

Coach Education

Coach education programs are widely used as a way to track the progress and knowledge of coaches. In Canada the principal agency of coaching information are courses and certifications offered through the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP). Although it is the most widely used source of coaching education, these formalized programs are not the only source available to coaches (Erickson et al., 2008; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007). Nelson, Cushion and Potrac (2006) and Cushion et al. (2010) use Coombs and Ahmed's (1974) framework of learning to categorize the different areas of coach education. This framework of learning consists of three categories: formal learning that is structured and systematically tracked, nonformal learning consisting of voluntary information sessions, and informal learning through experiences and interactions (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974).

Formal coach education. Formal learning is institutionalized, structured, and presented in a chronological manner (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974). The delivery and content of these formalized programs provide sport-governing bodies with a simple way to track coaching certifications and progress. The length of these courses can vary between a three-hour online course to a week long high performance clinic, but the objective of the programs remain the same; these programs are used to provide the

'science' of coaching. This formalized method of learning provides coaches with the knowledge to physically and psychologically develop athletes of different ages and skill levels, and are all provided by knowledgeable and professional coaching educators (Nelson et al., 2006).

Formalized education programs such as the NCCP, have been found to be one of the ideal ways that coaches wish to learn their craft (Erickson et al., 2008) and one of the main sources of coaching knowledge (Erickson et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2007). In Erickson et al.'s (2008) study Canadian coaches of both team and individual sports were asked which sources of coaching knowledge they used throughout their careers and which sources they would prefer to use. The formalized coach education programs, in the form of NCCP courses, were reported by 32.7% of the coaches, the third highest source of actual knowledge. Most information on formalized coaching programs, however, is extremely critical. Within the short time frame allotted, usually one or two days in length, research suggests that formalized programs are unable to address the complexity of coaching and lack interactions with other coaches, which is viewed as a main source of knowledge transfer in coaching (Erickson et al., 2008; Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2007; Wright et al., 2007). These formalized programs provide a chronological model of coaching knowledge, but tend to lack the incorporation of learning through experience.

Nonformal coach education. Nelson et al. (2006) define nonformal coach education as learning outside of the formal system that is provided, to a select subgroup in the population, in an organized systematic way. This pertains to any workshops, conferences, or seminars offered to a specific subgroup (i.e. high

performance coaches), without the aim of being tracked for formalized coach education programs. These nonformal learning environments are typically shorter than formalized programs (Nelson et al., 2006) and are entered into strictly for the purpose of the coach gaining new knowledge (Cushion et al., 2010). Cushion et al. (2010) also linked nonformal learning situations to that of continued professional development (CPD). CPD has been described as self-regulated, intrinsically motivated, diagnostic, and reflective (Simons, 1993). Within coaching, these CPD offerings tend to be organized through individual associations or sport governing bodies (Cushion et al., 2010) such as Hockey Canada's Coach Specialty Clinics. In hockey, for example, these non-certification specialty clinics such as skating, shooting and scoring, checking, and goaltending, provide coaches with information on specific skills and situations. The clinics are 3 hours in length and are an optional source of CPD.

Informal coach education. Coach education frequently occurs outside of formal and nonformal education programs. These informal learning opportunities are categorized as the process of acquiring and accumulating knowledge and skills through daily experiences, interactions and exposure to the environment (Nelson et al., 2006). As Erickson et al. (2008) uncovered, coaches acquire majority of their knowledge through informal means such as learning by doing, and interacting/observing others.

The informal coach education process can be a beneficial method but is not without its drawbacks. It is extremely difficult to track the knowledge transfer provided in informal activities due to the lack of a uniform definition of coach

education, as well as the fact that the process of informal learning is often unplanned (Erickson et al., 2008). Even with this weakness, informal coach education is seen by coaches to be one of the most beneficial and preferred ways to learn (Erickson et al., 2008; Lemyre et al., 2007; Wright et al., 2007). While Coombs and Ahmed (1974) framework of learning provides a strong distinction between different types of coaching education programs, there are still aspects of coach education that cross the boundaries between the formal, nonformal, and informal categories. Mentoring has been noted as falling directly between formal and informal coach education (Jones et al., 2009).

Mentoring

The use of mentoring as a tool for learning has long been used throughout diverse professions such as education, nursing, and business. While there is not one formally recognized definition of mentoring, many refer to Alleman et al.'s (1984) definition as the most succinct version of the idea. Alleman et al. (1984) defines mentoring as "a relationship in which a person of greater rank or expertise coaches, guides, and develops a novice in an organization or profession" (p. 329). Young, Bullough Jr., Draper, Smith, and Erickson (2005) describe three fundamental types of mentoring relationships: responsive, interactive, and directive. In a responsive mentoring relationship the protégé, one who receives support from an influential person that furthers their career, sets the agenda through questions posed to the mentor. The protégé's are most often experienced and this relationship allows for the protégé to have control over the mentoring process. An interactive mentoring relationship occurs most often when the pair recognizes each other as peers and

creates a mentoring environment around mutual concerns and discussions. Finally, in a directive mentoring relationship the mentor has clear expectations for the protégé and will provide guidance and advice as they see fit within the circumstances.

Different professions such as education, nursing, and business have developed their own strategies for including different forms of mentoring within their organization.

Mentoring in education. One of the most prominent versions of successful mentoring practices resides in education where the student teaching process has flourished. There are three prominent mentoring models used in education: the Apprenticeship Model, the Competency Model and the Reflective Practitioner Model (Geen, 2002). In the Apprenticeship Model the optimal learning experience involves emulating someone with experience in the field (Geen, 2002). The mentor in the relationship provides the apprentice with a model to imitate, and pre-supposes that the mentor is someone whose actions should be copied. The Apprenticeship Model consists of four phases: introduction, developmental, proficient, and mastery (Glazer & Hannafin, 2006). In the introductory phase the mentor models useful strategies for the protégé. The developmental phase involves the protégé acquiring the skills shown by the mentor, and beginning to implement them into their own teaching. In the proficient stage the protégé shows understanding by producing their own activities using the original strategies as taught by the mentor. Finally the mastery phase consists of the protégé teaching these strategies to their own protégé (Glazer & Hannafin, 2006). The main criticism of this model of mentoring is that it does not allow for creativity on the part of the apprentice, therefore the student may become a clone of the mentor, which is not an ideal situation (Geen, 2002; Jones et al., 2009).

The Competency Model has the mentor act as a coach or trainer to the protégé, in which they observe and assess the protégé's actions before providing feedback and is based on the assumption that teaching requires specific competencies (Geen, 2002). The critics of the Competency Model argue that the art of teaching cannot be successfully broken down into specific tasks; it is a more complex system of proficiencies (Geen, 2002). Finally, the Reflective Practitioner Model encourages self-reflection of both the mentor and the protégé. The mentor provides the protégé with questions regarding their actions and the protégé's self-reflect upon these questions (Geen, 2002). In theory, the Reflective Practitioner Model addresses the deficiencies of the Apprenticeship and Competency Models by incorporating a reflective environment, but in practice it is found that the protégés prefer their mentors to offer their own opinions on the subject matter. In 1999, Drever and Cope conducted a cohort study consisting of 81 education students who had just completed their ten-week student teaching experience. The education students submitted a report of 2500 words describing their professional development during the ten-week placement period. The researchers evaluated the students use of the three mentoring models and discovered that the Reflective Practitioner Model was the least favoured among education students, as the students felt their mentors did not provide enough specific feedback on their teaching abilities (Drever & Cope, 1999). Also, majority of the students involved in the study cited Brown, Collins & Duguid's (1988) three lower order processes of mentoring as the top way of categorizing their experiences learning from experts in the field of education. These three lower-order mentoring processes are: modeling, coaching, and scaffolding and fading. Modeling involves the

expert teacher demonstrating aspects of their profession (Brown et al., 1988). The participants in the study described this experience occurring within their first two weeks of their placement, where they observed the ways in which the teacher conducted the class (Drever & Cope, 1999). Within the teaching context, coaching is described as the teacher observing and providing feedback on the student's teaching technique. The use of coaching was often used to point out weaknesses in the students' teaching abilities, and was found to be extremely helpful. The more feedback and coaching a student received, the more comfortable the student felt within the environment (Drever & Cope, 1999). Finally scaffolding and fading was seen in terms of the curriculum the students followed. At the beginning of the ten-week period, the teachers determined majority of the content and the students followed the plan set out for them, but as the student completed more of their student teaching, they began to plan their own activities and have sole responsibility over planning each lesson. The various models of mentoring within education may differ on presentation of information, but the overall emphasis on formalized mentoring is consistent. The mentoring relationships are used as a tool to increase the knowledge of the protégés and prepare them for the start of their own careers.

Mentoring in nursing. Unlike education, mentoring in the nursing profession today is largely unstructured and undefined (Jones et al., 2009). The mentor acts as a role model to the protégé, and the partnerships are most often self-selected (Busen & Engebretson, 1999). This informal relationship contains mutual respect, trust and open communication between the participants. The formalized mentoring format within nursing was created in 1990 by Yoder who presented three critical attributes of

mentoring: a structural role such as distinct roles for the mentor and protégé, an organizational role involving a teaching process to follow, and a career development relationship in which the mentor will help to progress the protégé's career (Yoder, 1990). Expanding upon this three-point definition, Stewart and Kruger (1996) presented a six-attribute model of mentoring including a teaching-learning process, reciprocity or mutuality, a career development relationship, a knowledge or competence difference, time duration of several years, and a continuation of the mentoring process where the protégé becomes a mentor to others. Taylor (1992) researched the prominence of mentor relationships within academic nurse administrators to determine the significance of mentor relationships, and the perceptions of its importance to the success and career development of the profession. Of the 300 participants surveyed, 57% reported having one or more mentors throughout their career. The advantages to this mentoring relationship were described as increasing the confidence of the protégé, gaining knowledge from an experienced professional, and encouragement to achieve their maximum potential. Overall 80% of the participants indicated that mentoring relationships are very important to their career development (Taylor, 1992).

Mentoring in business. While education and nursing tend to focus their mentoring process on bettering the individuals involved, the main focus of the mentoring process in business is organizational outcomes (Jones et al., 2009). The business model of mentoring is an extremely dynamic process (Jones et al., 2009). Mentoring programs tend to be short term, and can involve unconventional models not seen in other professions such as peer mentoring and reverse mentoring involving

a mentor that is younger or less experienced but possesses knowledge that will assist the more experienced protégé (Busen & Engebretson, 1999). Pastore (2003) suggested changing how mentoring is viewed within the field of sport management to incorporate the peer relationship model developed by Kram (1988). Kram's (1988) model of peer relationships has the potential to increase the psychosocial aspects of the individuals involved, as well as the career development outcomes. The psychosocial functions involved in peer relationships include confirmation where peers share their experiences and perceptions, emotional support where peers advised each other at difficult times in their careers, personal feedback consisting of reciprocal conversations regarding ways to increase their productivity and skills, and friendship as the peer relationship tends to extend to the personal setting (Kram, 1988). Conversely, the disadvantages of peer mentoring include competition between peers both vying for similar career development within the same profession, as well as increased pessimistic views about the organization that the peers are apart of (Pastore, 2003). Recently in business mentoring, there has been a shift towards a triad model of mentoring involving the organization, the mentor, and the protégé (Koberg, Boss, & Goodman, 1998). Unlike the traditional dyad model of mentoring, the triad relationship allows for the protégé to gain knowledge and insight from sources at different levels within the organization (Feldman, 1999). One criticism of business mentoring programs is the need to mechanize the process by finding the best possible model to increase productivity, and remove the human element from the relationship (Jones et al., 2009), where in fact the human element, as well as psychosocial aspects, are a significant part of the mentoring process (Kram, 1988). To allow for the balance

of psychosocial development and task productivity within the business mentoring structure, Clutterbuck (2010) suggests that there are seven specific types of mentoring dialogue that one should incorporate into the mentoring relationship to gain the most out of both outcomes. The seven dialogues are: social dialogue where the participants in the mentoring process develop a friendship, technical dialogue involving information transfer about systems and processes, tactical dialogue incorporating discussions around problem solving techniques for the workplace, strategic dialogue creating a career development plan involving opportunities and issues, self-insight dialogue involving the protégé looking within themselves to determine their values and ambitions, behavioural change dialogue incorporating feedback and putting suggestions into motion, and finally integrative dialogue helping the protégé discover who they are, and what they bring to their chosen profession (Clutterbuck, 2010).

Mentoring in sport. As demonstrated in education, nursing and business, mentoring has been identified in sport as a highly effective way for new coaches to increase their knowledge and learn their new role (Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke, & Salmela, 1998). Bloom et al. (1998) interviewed 21 expert Canadian coaches, as identified by their National Sport Organization, about their experiences as athletes and coaches. The coaches provided detailed histories of their involvement in sport consisting of their coaching philosophies, training and competition routines, organizational skills, as well as providing recommendations for aspiring coaches in their sport. Through their work with these expert coaches, Bloom et al. (1998) discovered that the coaches were mentored throughout their career in an informal capacity relating to philosophy, values, technical and tactical skills, and leadership

abilities. However, the realization of the importance of their mentoring relationships only surfaced later on in the expert coaches careers (Bloom et al., 1998). In further studies with expert sports coaches Erickson, Côté, and Fraser-Thomas (2007) and Nash and Sproule (2009) reinforced the use of mentoring in the development of expert coaches. Erickson et al.'s (2007) study featured interviews with ten team sport coaches and nine individual sport coaches about how their experiences helped their coaching careers. Mentoring was determined to be an important factor in the development of the participating coaches and most prominently occurred early in their coaching careers (Erickson et al., 2007). Nash and Sproule (2009) uncovered similar responses when interviewing nine expert coaches from basketball, hockey and swimming. Mentoring was consistently identified as a significant factor in their career development, especially in the early stages, and all of the mentoring experiences encountered were informal relationships with other experts in the field. It is this strategy of informal mentoring that appears most often in the coaching literature. Jones, Armour and Potrac (2004) discovered that knowledge acquired through informal mentoring was the most important factor in the development of coaches, and Wright et al.'s (2007) research with ice-hockey coaches revealed that face-to-face interactions with other coaches provided an exceptional learning situation. The participants in Wright et al.'s (2007) study also concluded that serving as an assistant coach provided the opportunity to learn from their more experienced head coach.

Many sport-governing bodies have created their own formal mentoring program for coaches. For example, Hockey Canada's National Coach Mentorship Program provides mentor coaches with the information needed to help promote and

sustain high levels of coaching among their protégés. Often organizations find the need to unify and formalize the mentoring process to track results in a systematic way (Cushion et al., 2010), but it is important to note that every mentoring partnership is unique and structured guidelines are not always beneficial to the parties involved (Jones et al., 2009).

Rationale

Mentoring is an extremely varied term within the literature, creating different definitions and having diverse characteristics associated with the process. For the purposes of this research, mentoring will be defined as “a relationship in which a person of greater rank or expertise coaches, guides, and develops a novice in an organization or profession” (Alleman et al., 1984, p. 329). The mentoring process transfers across the sections of coach education from informal to formal, and shows different characteristics across different occupations such as nursing, education, and business (Jones et al., 2009). While individuals may not be able to decide on a specific definition and set of characteristics, coaches are able to determine the effectiveness and importance of mentors (Cushion et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2009).

In a study conducted by Erickson et al. (2008) on Canadian coaches of both team and individual sports, it was discovered that coaches’ actual sources of coaching knowledge greatly differed from their preferred sources of coaching knowledge. The greatest discrepancy between an actual and ideal source was mentoring. Only 29.3% of coaches acknowledged learning from coach mentors, while 48.5% viewed having a mentor coach as an ideal source of information. In 2003, Nash had third year students of a sport coaching degree program work with a mentor coach in their sport. The participants recorded 36 hours of mentoring within a 15-week timeframe for two consecutive years. After year two of the program, 72% of the participants credited changes in their coaching behaviours to their mentors. The mentors helped the students by acting as a resource, building confidence, developing knowledge and skills, challenging and questioning, and being a role model (Nash, 2003).

Vallée & Bloom (2005) discovered that the coaching model is the model most likely to bring team success by incorporating all factors affecting a coach's ability to transfer knowledge, make decisions, and provide a positive environment for sport. Incorporating the coaching model into a mentoring relationship could serve as a solid foundation for the development of a mentoring model within sport. Mentor coaches can use the three primary components of the model (organization, training, and competition) as a guide for dialogue within the mentoring relationship. For this study, we will use the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995) as a foundation for the interview questions, and a grounded theory approach will be used to categorize the specific characteristics of mentoring that have been presented in various terms and definitions throughout the literature. Studies regarding how coaches learn continue to uncover the importance of coach interactions (Chase, Feltz, Hayashi, & Hepler, 2005; Lemyre et al., 2007; Nelson et al., 2006; Wright et al., 2007) and mentoring (Erickson et al., 2008), yet fail to uncover the actual properties of mentoring relationships. The current study seeks to answer the following research questions: 1) What characteristics do coach mentors deem as important for coach development? 2) What features appear within the mentoring relationships in sport?

Chapter 3: Methods

Approach to Research

The two approaches to research that are used within this study are grounded theory and insider research. Grounded theory is an inductive qualitative analysis, which follows a specific systematic coding procedure (Patton, 2002). The coding procedures begin with open coding where relevant categories are identified within the text, followed by axial coding where the categories are refined and interconnected, and finally the data undergoes selective coding where the central category of the data is identified (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The use of grounded theory allows for a systematic review of all the data, and allows the researcher to consider different meanings of a phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Grounded theory is used to “build theory rather than test theory” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 13) and, also is used to assist in offsetting some of the challenges associated with insider research.

Insider research involves the lead researcher conducting research on individuals that are within an identity group that the researcher is also a member of (Kanuha, 2000). The lead researcher is a High Performance 1 certified hockey coach from Southern Manitoba, and has coached in similar situations to the participants involved in the study. Insider research has been seen to host many challenges to the researcher such as pre-understanding, role duality and organizational politics (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010). It can be seen as a challenge to detach oneself from the research, previous experiences, beliefs and emotions can elicit certain expectations from the research, decreasing objectivity (Asselin, 2003). In the case of this study, insider research is seen as an asset to the research. As part of the coaching

community, the lead researcher shares a language, identity, and common experiences with the participants, which can lead to increased understanding of coaching behaviours and experiences of the participants (Asselin, 2003). The in-depth knowledge of the coaching world will also allow the lead researcher to establish a rapport with the participants during the observation and interview.

Participants

The participants involved in the research were three hockey coaches from Southern Manitoba, who are members of the Hockey Canada National Coach Mentorship Program. As a member of the Hockey Canada program, these individuals all have Development 1 certification and have been identified by their area associations as mentors within the hockey community. Due to the limited number of mentors in the National Coach Mentorship Program, pseudonyms have been used to assist in the anonymity of the participants.

Alex is a High Performance 1 certified coach with 10 years of experience. He/she began coaching in the Manitoba Women's Junior Hockey League and is now the head coach of a female midget hockey team in Manitoba. Throughout his/her coaching career he/she has been involved with U18 Female Team Manitoba four times, twice as a head coach and twice as part of Canada Winter Games teams.

Sam is in his/her 16th season coaching hockey in Manitoba, and is currently an assistant coach with a midget AAA hockey team. Over the years this High Performance 1 certified coach has also been involved with Bantam AAA and senior men's teams. He/she has also served as coach with U16 Team Manitoba for three consecutive years.

Riley is in his/her 15th year coaching female hockey, and has worked his/her way up from coaching Peewee, Bantam and Midget AA, to becoming an assistant coach in Canadian Interuniversity Sport (CIS) women's hockey. As a High Performance 1 coach, he/she has been coaching CIS hockey for 9 years, and was also part of both a Manitoba Games and Canada Games coaching staff.

Procedure

Ethics. After the pilot research was complete, the lead researcher applied for ethics approval. The application process took approximately two months to complete, and was approved by the Education/Nursing Research Ethics Board (ENREB) at the University of Manitoba.

Pilot. To begin the research process, a pilot study was conducted using one AA hockey coach from Manitoba. The lead researcher first observed a one-hour practice from on the ice in order to gain better access to conversations that were had during practice. The lead researcher then observed one game from behind the team bench, including pre-game planning and post game analysis, lasting 2.5 hours. After the game observation, the interview was conducted in a vacant dressing room in the arena, where the lead researcher asked the coach the questions from the interview guide (see Appendix A). The pilot study reinforced two research decisions: proximity and interview questions. The pilot study gave the lead researcher the opportunity to determine if observing the coaches from on the ice in practice and behind the players bench during the game was sufficient to gain the necessary data. In both cases the lead researcher was able to be close enough to the conversations to hear verbal cues, and watch the reactions from players and assistant coaches. The pilot study also

reinforced the questions asked in the interview guide, as the questions were easily understood and answered by the coach participant.

Data Collection

The data was collected during the 2013-2014 regular season and the 2014 spring season, consisting of both observation and interview. The data collection took place on 6 nights over the course of 7 weeks, ranging from 2-4.5 hours in duration.

Observation. The participants were observed during one practice and one game before the interview process. The practices ranged from 1-1.5 hours in length, while the games were all 3.5 hours including pre-game planning and post-game talk. The direct observation process was both naturalistic in setting as the mentor coach was acting within his/her natural environment, as well as etic with the researcher viewing the practice from the outside, not participating in the activity itself (Patton, 2002). The main focus of observation was the behaviour of the mentor coach within the context of their preparation, their interactions with other coaches and players, and the demeanour in which they conducted themselves in various situations. The observations included pre- and post-practice meetings with coaches and players, pre-game, post-game and intermission discussions, as well as the actual practice and competition events. Due to the participants' previous experience with observation as a requirement of their High Performance 1 certification, as well as their familiarity with the lead researcher, all behaviours viewed during the observations were presumed to be extremely similar to those regularly seen in each participants' style of coaching.

Interviews. The semi-structured open-ended interview process incorporated specific questions to each participant with the opportunity for follow up questions

throughout the interview (Patton, 2002). The core questions (see Appendix A) that were asked are based on the primary and peripheral components of the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995). For example, the question “what is the ideal mentorship experience?” is related to the organization factor of the model, whereas “what characteristics have led to your mentor status” would relate to the coach’s personal characteristics. In order to ease the participants into the interview, the first question relates to their coaching background, enabling the participants to get comfortable with the process by answering a routine coaching question. The questions progressively get more in depth culminating with their ideas for an ideal mentoring model and connecting all of their previous thoughts into their own definition of mentoring.

Data Analysis

The transcripts were transcribed verbatim from the audio files and returned to the participants for member checking, allowing 1-week for the participants to review the transcripts and increase the validity of the data. After the member checking was complete, the lead researcher used the grounded theory organizational structure to determine elements, categories and patterns within the transcripts (Côté, Salmela, Baria, & Russell, 1993). Two processes of structuring the data were used to determine the elements within the data. First tags were created from the unstructured data (Tesch, 1990). Through an open coding strategy, tags were created representing meaning units of individual ideas represented within the data. After the data was separated from its original context into tags, the second process of data analysis, axial coding, occurred by creating categories within the tags (Côté et al., 1993). The tags then went through selective coding where they were categorized based on similar

meanings, and this “re-contextualization” of information will serve the original organizational structure used to interpret the qualitative data (Tesch, 1990). After the coding procedure, the observation notes were compared with the themes and categories derived from the transcripts in order to verify behaviours and determine inconsistencies in the participants answers to the interview questions compared to their actions. These comparisons between the interview responses and the observation notes allowed the lead researcher to incorporate a personal viewpoint into the analysis, incorporating the insider research aspect. By using previous knowledge of the situations and the individuals, the lead researcher was able to specifically determine the connections or discrepancies between the two sources of data.

Chapter 4: Results

Results from the interviews and observations are presented in Appendix C. The first column displays the three main themes of the data and the second column includes the sub-themes. The third column displays the categories represented in each sub-theme and the final column displays the 56 specific sub-categories found through the interviews (I), observations (O) or both (I/O).

Mentor Characteristics

One of the main themes of the research was the importance of specific characteristics of mentor coaches. These characteristics factor significantly into determining the success of mentorship relationships. The participants in the study noted two different types of characteristics, technical characteristics and personal characteristics.

Technical Characteristics. Two main characteristics were acknowledged by the participants to assist in the technical ability of the mentor coaches, knowledge of the game and organization.

Knowledge of the game. Through the interviews and observation, it was determined that knowledge of the game is a significant and important characteristic of qualified mentors. This characteristic can be seen in the technical and tactical knowledge of the mentor coach. As stated by Riley, “for someone to be a successful mentor they have to be very knowledgeable of the game”. Through the observations, each mentor coach showed significant background knowledge in different aspects of the game, such as penalty kill and defensive zone tactics. The second main source of knowledge comes from different experiences the mentor coaches bring to the game,

either from their coaching career or their playing experiences. Sam noted previous experiences as a major source of knowledge:

I was able to play in a couple of different, different styles and levels of hockey. Like I was over in Europe for a few years, Olympic size ice, and then in the minor leagues and you know I've been to NHL camps and junior camps, I've played different, different styles of games.

Knowledge of the game comes from varying sources, but all of the participants agree that it is an integral part to being a successful mentor.

Organization. The second technical characteristic brought to light during the interview and observation process was organization in terms of planning (season, practice, etc.) and bench management. Two of the participants noted the importance of planning and being organized in their both their mentorship and coaching plans. Alex joked that he/she has “a little bit of OCD in terms of organization”, and that their planning involves everything from training load, to nutrition on road trips, to travel itineraries. The participants also mentioned bench management as a significant aspect of organization. Alex stated that they have a mentor who showed them “bench management, how to get all [his/her] coaches involved”, and Riley noted that one of his/her mentors also stressed the importance of “[being] a little bit tougher, you know not so soft with being able to make decisions on the bench”. All of the participants displayed excellent bench management techniques, making sure communication was constant with all assistant coaches and players, and the transitions between scenarios (i.e. power play, penalty kill, etc.) ran smoothly. Mentor coaches need to be organized

to plan out their seasons, help their protégés, provide athletes with a stable environment in which to succeed, and to keep on top of all of their commitments.

Personal characteristics. The personal characteristics of mentor coaches that were deemed important by the participants can be divided into four categories: communication, intrinsic motivation, approachability, and passion.

Communication. The importance of communication skills for mentoring was both described in the interview process and seen during the observation. All of the mentors noted that the communication between mentor and protégé was ongoing, and did not end when the initial mentorship experience concluded. As Alex suggested “honestly I just think it just comes down to that open communication again... if I’ve worked with that person for a whole season, I’d like to see that communication stay open”. Throughout the game and practice observation one commonality was seen with all the mentor coaches relating to communication, each of the mentor coaches made sure the rest of their coaching staff was well informed. During the practice observation, the mentor coaches would ensure the assistant coaches knew exactly what was going to be done at practice and the purpose and main teaching points behind each drill. Throughout the game observation this same promotion of knowledge sharing was seen within the coaching staff as they met pre-game and discussed what needed to be done to be successful, and then continued to communicate throughout the game on the bench and between periods when any new information was discovered and changes needed to be made. Another communication requirement of mentor coaches was identified as the ability to provide easy explanations. As a mentor, one must be able to provide simple explanations to their

protégés, just as a coach must be able to convey their ideas to their athletes in an easy manner. Riley stated that mentor coaches should “be able to teach, you know, and and to get what they want across easier. I don’t want to say dumb it up, but to be able to explain it well so that you understand”. In order for the protégés to gain the most from the relationship, the mentor coaches must be able to easily communicate with others. Finally, the mentor participants noted the importance of mentor coaches being able to use communication as a way to increase the confidence of their protégé. Riley noted that “boosting the confidence of the coach” should be part of the mentor’s assignment. This confidence boost from their mentors was seen as extremely important to the participants’ development as a coach, and integral to the mentorship process.

Intrinsic motivation. Another key component of the mentor’s personal characteristics is their intrinsic motivation. Mentor coaches assist other coaches for many reasons such as continued learning, increasing the number of qualified coaches, and watching athletes succeed. Mentor coaches have been seen to have a love for continued education, they are always trying to better themselves and increase their knowledge of the game. Sam noted that one of the reasons he/she enjoys mentoring is the personal development. He/she stated that a mentor should be a “student of the game” and that “you can always learn something from others, even those with less experience”. The primary objective of a mentor coach is to assist coaches in need and to increase the number of qualified coaches available. Increasing the qualified instruction from a grassroots level upward also increases the positive experience for the athletes involved. Alex stated that often “when the kids start to move into the

Peewee AA, Bantam AAA... some of the coaches still aren't at the level where they can adapt in high pressure situations or adapt to what a team is throwing at them", and emphasizes that if we don't provide qualified coaches then we are not allowing the athletes the best experience and opportunity for success,

because when the kids get to that midget age, um if they've been dealt a full hand of cards and they've been offered the most success they can, they can have, and we've done right by that... If we're not offering the most success by giving them the best teachings, then, you know, we're falling short.

These intrinsic motivations help drive mentors to continue helping other coaches in need.

Approachability/Reliability. Mentor coaches need to be approachable in order to provide easy communication to their protégés and be available to assist with any questions or issues. As stated by Sam "we need to put people in a situation where they feel comfortable discussing their specific team as well as some personal strengths and weaknesses". Throughout the observations the mentors proved to be extremely approachable individuals. The mentors were easy-going in their conversations with other members of their support staff and their players were quick to ask questions and initiate discussions with the mentor coaches. Mentoring often involves juggling different schedules, so availability comes into effect. The protégés need to be able to rely on the mentor to assist them in a timely manner, and as Riley said "mentors can't be at all places all the time... the technology that they have nowadays, they should be reachable" and Sam notes that mentors need "flexibility" in juggling different schedules.

Passion. Mentors need to be passionate about what they do, and this can be displayed in many different ways such as showing their love of the game, their drive to watch athletes succeed, and being compassionate/caring individuals. Simply being involved with so many aspects of the sport can be viewed as a love of the game. These individuals spend much of their free time coaching their own teams and mentoring others. Sam considers himself/herself a “hockey person” and that they’ve “been around the game [their] whole life” and as Alex he/she just “love[s] the game”. The mentor coach’s drive to watch athletes succeed in their sport is observed during both practices and games, with key details relating to both individual and team tactics constantly being communicated, but these mentors also wish to see their athletes succeed off the ice. As Alex said, “I’m their coach but I’m also there for them in their real lives. So for me, my kind of consensus is if they come into my program at stage one, and we do our job, we’ve developed a kid into a better player and a better person”. Mentor coaches not only have to care about the wellbeing of their athletes, but also their protégés, therefore they must be compassionate/caring individuals. Alex described himself/herself as being “very passionate, very intense, but at the same time I’m also very compassionate and I care about my players”. These components of passion all help build the mentorship relationship. When a mentor coach loves the game, wants to see athletes succeed, and cares about those around them, the mentorship experience can build from a positive foundation.

Sources of Coaching Knowledge

There are many sources of coaching knowledge, and most coaches use a variety of resources. The participants in the study recognized many different

categories of coaching resources that fall into two sub-themes, tangible resources and intangible resources.

Tangible resources. These resources are those that provide tangible information to increase coach development. The examples provided by the participants are coaching courses and online/book resources.

Courses. All coaches in Canada are required to complete the necessary Hockey Canada coaching courses, ranging from Intro to Coach to High Performance. All of the participants involved in this study have completed their Coach, Development 1 and High Performance 1 levels. Two of the coaches noted the importance of their High Performance 1 course, Riley stated that “you had to do a lot of research... a lot of talking to other coaches” and Alex said that the “coaching certifications have really helped, especially the high performance”.

Online/Books. The mentor participants noted online information and books as extra reference points for different drill ideas and teaching tactics. Alex said that he/she is “constantly researching online with what the NHL teams are doing and looking for drills”, while Riley prefers to use books on hockey tactics to improve coaching knowledge. He/she said that one specific book he/she has “breaks down everything simpler and gives you ideas... for coaching defensively”. The use of these tools can be an easy way to gain new information.

Intangible. The intangible sources of coaching knowledge rely heavily on the other use of other coaches and previous experiences. The participants discussed five categories of intangible resources: mentors, trial and error, discussions, working at camps, and their playing experience.

Mentors. The participants mentioned two types of mentors as sources of knowledge, head coaches and non-staff mentors. Many coaches learn from being an assistant coach. They pick up knowledge and behaviours from watching and learning from the head coach on their coaching staff. Alex and Riley both had a head coach as a mentor and recognized some key traits in the mentoring relationship. First, head coaches have the ability to assign increasing responsibilities, so that you are constantly learning. Alex acknowledged that their head coach mentor tried to give them opportunities to step out of her comfort zone, “he gave me situations on the bench where I had to step in and I had to run the power play and stuff like that, and he really forced me to step out of my element”. The mentors are also able to increase the confidence of their protégé in these situations. Alex said that when he/she was asked to step out of his/her comfort zone, that they “recognized how confident [they] could be”. The head coaches were also in a position to be able to continuously ask questions, which keeps the protégés in the moment. Riley gave the example that his/her head coach would ask, “so why did you put these people out at that time? ... maybe get you to think a little bit of the game instead of just getting into the routine of just rolling”. Finally, the participants noted that head coach mentors were able to help with bench management skills. Alex said that his/her head coach mentor “did a really good job of showing me bench management, how to get all my coaches involved”. This mentoring relationship as head coach-assistant coach, allows for a different view and access than being mentored by a non-staff member.

Non-staff mentors. Mentors that are outside of your own coaching staff provide an outsider perspective on your coaching style and team play. The

participants mentioned that it was important that these outsiders provide their protégés with ideas, not answers. As Sam said, “I think, um, mentorship in any sport is you sharing ideas... bouncing ideas off of each other”. Non-staff mentors also can be used to discuss different approaches to teaching technical and tactical aspects of the game. Riley said that working with non-staff mentors “gives you options of different ways of doing things. You know, so that you can go out and be able to teach your players ... alternate ways of doing things”. Often coaches get stuck in doing things the same comfortable way they always have, especially when working with the same staff for a long period of time. The use of a non-staff mentor provides coaches with a completely peripheral perspective to their team.

Trial and error. One of the participants in the study mentioned that many people in their coaching clinics learn through trial and error. Sam said, “learning the way they learn is by trial and error, and I think it’s the worst way you could go, I think we lose a lot of coaches” and they noted that they also needed to “survive” this trial and error process.

Discussions. Two of the mentor participants mentioned discussions with other members of the hockey community to be a source of knowledge. These conversations are usually informal and provide them the opportunity to get insight from other sources. Alex stated, “I constantly bounce ideas off of people that have coached in the higher-ups, so you know in the provincial level, in the dub, in the boys AAA stream, Universities, stuff like that”. The information provided by the participants shows that hockey coaches tend to help each other with gaining knowledge, and share resources easily.

Working at camps. Another way these mentors gained coaching knowledge was to instruct in a different environment, such as working at hockey camps. Sam mentioned that it was the reason they got into coaching, and that working at camps helped them develop teaching skills. Sam said, “I picked up a lot of the essential teaching things with the hockey schools ... practices and one on one and all that stuff was good, error detection, error correction”. Alex said that working camps helped increase their own technical and tactical knowledge, and by helping out at a defensive camp, “I get to learn a lot about the game from the D standpoint, because it’s not my forte”. Getting involved in sport camps and hockey schools allows for coaches to grasp teaching techniques and technical knowledge under different circumstances with less responsibility than learning throughout the hockey season.

Playing career. Sam suggested that most of his/her coaching knowledge in terms of tactics came from being in different situations throughout his playing career. He/she was fortunate “to play in a couple of different, different styles and levels of hockey ... exposed to a few different things”. Throughout his/her career playing in Europe and North America, and over many different levels, he/she was able to learn about many different styles of play and various systems that he/she can implement in his/her own team.

Mentorship Experience

The participants described their own mentorship experiences, and from there were able to suggest factors of the ideal mentorship experience and the potential barriers to the mentoring process.

Ideal experience. The ideal mentorship experience was somewhat different between all three participants, but there were a few commonalities throughout such as shadowing, open communication, and an ongoing relationship.

Shadowing the mentor coach. Alex had a different view on the mentorship experience than did the other two mentor coaches. Their ideal mentorship experience involved the protégé shadowing the mentor coach. He/she said “for me a mentorship program is if I’m being mentored I’m not coaching that year, cause I’m spending my year with that mentoring coach”. He/she would like to see the protégé involved in every aspect of coaching from planning practices to running different drills, and gave an example of the process:

I’d like to see the way it worked when (Name 1) mentored (Name 2). So, you know, (Name 2) went down to California, he was on the ice for the practices, he was learning while (Name 1) was teaching, he was on the ice with them, he was engaged in the practice plan. You know, he actually, they’d sit down and talk about practice, he’d get to get some words in, he’d run a couple of the drills.

This arrangement is not limited to the practice environment. Ideally he/she would like to see the protégé “on the bench for the games and competition, you hear what’s happening on the bench, you see the communication between the coach and the players, the communication between the players, and how the coach adapts in certain situations”. Alex’s ideal mentorship experience follows many of the same ideas as the other mentors in a reversed format, where the protégé shadows the mentor.

Observation. Observation is an integral part of the mentorship process. Sam and Riley noted that having the mentor coach shadowing the protégé is important for absorbing information. Sam said as a mentor he/she “will more than likely go on the ice to get a close up view of what is being discussed and taught and how a team responds”. Along with the observation, both the protégés and mentors should be included in all aspects of the training, from the planning to the coaching. Sam said as a mentor he/she “will go over a coaches practice plan before hand to understand what is being taught ... then a post-practice review, discuss observations and ask questions”. Alex also noted that his/her mentor “had [him/her] on the board” to increase his/her involvement in the practices, and give him/her the opportunity to take charge. Observation during competition involves the mentor being involved in all team meetings (pre-game, post-game and intermission), the pre-game plan, and the coaching behaviours on the bench. Sam said, “a mentor can observe from the stands, behind the bench or directly on the bench” all dependent on the environment. Alex said during the competition observation “you hear what’s happening on the bench, you see the communication between the coach and the players, the communication between the players, and how the coach adapts in certain situations”. The more game day situations that the mentor can be involved in, the better sense they will get of their protégés coaching style, and the most assistance they will be

Open communication. All of the participants mentioned open communication as being integral to the success of a mentorship relationship. Mentor coaches should provide ideas to the protégés, while the protégés should feel comfortable asking questions of their mentor. Sam stated that mentors need to be able to “discuss ideas

and concepts while also giving suggestions and coaching pointers” and that a mentor is their protégé’s “support network”. This line of communication should remain positive. As Sam said that for coaches “feedback can be limited and is at times negative” so it is important for mentors to have a “positive attitude ... put coaches in a situation where they feel comfortable discussing their specific team as well as [their] strengths and weaknesses”.

Ongoing relationship. All of the participants noted that the mentorship experience should continue on as long as possible. While mentors may be assigned for a specific amount of time, if the relationship is positive a coach should be able to openly communicate with their mentor throughout their coaching career. Alex says that he/she “would like to honestly see if I’ve worked with that person for a whole season, I’d like to see that communication stay open”. He/she also notes that it is easy to “pick up the phone and call and say this is what’s going on, or, you know, I can send video ... say like here is our game tape, you know, can you take a look”. Ideally these mentorship relationships will continue well past their original assignment.

Organization of mentors. Sam proposed that starting mentoring relationships would be simplified if the mentors were assigned to specific organizations. He/she states “whether it’s a club program or a regional program, like its right in front of you, those [mentors] are already in place and they they’re going to come to you ... one mentor coach kind of filters up and down”. This application of a mentor program would provide easy access for those seeking mentors.

Identified barriers. The participants were able to provide common barriers to the mentoring process, which will need to be overcome in order to allow for the best possible mentorship experience.

Lack of promotion. All three of the participants noted that the mentoring program within Hockey Manitoba is lacking promotion. Alex said that “if you are not looking for it online, I don’t think you’ll find it”. This information can be difficult to find due to the lack of time spent on providing the information to coaches. Sam noted they do not have enough time in the clinics to discuss the full benefits of the mentorship program. He/she says “you’ve got to really drive home your point in a couple minutes and say you know what this program is available to you, here’s the benefits of it, and you kind of, it’s a quick review and then it’s off the table and you’re on to your next, your next segment”. A suggestion for the promotion of the mentorship program is to have one individual be ‘face’ of the program. Sam said, “I think there has to be more of a face to it, attached to it ... I think they need to make an appearance and a presentation”. Promotion of the mentorship program needs to be increased in the future in order to give coaches the best opportunity to participate.

Time. Another major barrier to the mentorship experience is time. Many mentors are coaching their own teams while trying to provide mentorship to others. Alex states their concerns with the time aspect of mentoring:

you know the season is so busy, do they have time to mentor? And, and I mean, where are your qualified coaches coaching? If it is a retired coach, like if it’s someone that is not coaching anymore and they’re retired and labeled as a mentor coach, then yeah they can latch on with you for the season. But right

now our qualified coaches are still, a lot of them are still coaching, so do they have the time to take us on? And, or are we getting in their way?

Coaches know that it is difficult to manage their own schedule throughout the season, but adding in mentorship time on top of that can make things difficult on the availability of the mentor.

Number of mentors. The number of qualified mentors available is another significant barrier to the mentoring process. Riley asked “are there enough mentors out there, to be able to, to be able to get out to coaches to help out?” Alex also noted a lack of female mentors. He/she said Hockey Canada is “so short staffed on the female, on the female game” and that “to be mentored in your own province by someone of the same sex is pretty difficult.” It is difficult to have mentorship programs available to coaches when there are not enough qualified mentor coaches.

Location. The last identified barrier to the mentorship process is the location of the mentors and protégés. In the NCMP in Manitoba the mentors are identified by region, but some of the regions they cover are extremely large areas. Sam said:

there’s some regions like for example Parkland region there might be one guy in the whole region. And you know that, you’re looking at maybe 8-10 different communities. He might live in, uh, Strathclair and you might be going out to Birtle ... there’s a lot of travel involved.

The distance between mentors and their protégés, along with the travel time involved, is a major barrier to the mentorship process, especially relating to rural communities.

Key Observations

Throughout the observation process, three key aspects to mentoring appeared within all three coaches: communication, bench management, and a calm demeanour. In both practice and game situations, the mentor coaches were always in constant communication with their assistant coaches. Pre-practice meetings were used to discuss the focus of practice and the main points of each drill, and pre-game meetings were used to go over the opponent and strategies for the game. After practices and games, the mentor coaches would review with their assistants and discuss changes for the next game, or what to focus on at practice. It was clear that everyone on the staff knew their role and was aware at all times. This communication was also seen throughout practices and games. During practice minor changes or ideas were tossed around from coach to coach and everyone was always on the same page. During games the communication assisted in the optimal bench management that the mentor coaches conducted. Bench management incorporates many aspects of coaching, primarily communication and organization. Communication on the bench is key to a smooth delivery and ensuring that everyone is on the same page. This includes constant communication and transferring information with assistant coaches throughout the game and relaying critical information to players. The organizational aspect of bench management includes the basic setup of the bench, keeping lines straight when different situations arise, and making sure that everyone knows their specific role (e.g., recording stats, overseeing offence/defence). The mentor coaches showed excellent abilities in both their communication and organization of their bench management. The bench ran extremely smoothly throughout the game, with

players knowing their assignments and coaches organizing the changes and communicating strategy with ease. Finally the mentor coaches were all extremely calm during the games. Often hockey coaches are excessively vocal and emotional individuals, but the mentor coaches in this study controlled their emotions throughout the various game situations. In one case a team was losing a tight game to their rivals, involving some extremely one-sided refing, but the mentor coach stayed calm in their actions which allowed their bench to run normally and their team to stay on track. All three of the mentor coaches would get excited when the situation called for it, or serious when needed, but they never let their emotions control the situation and shift them off of their game plan. These mentors all showed an air of experience in sometimes imperfect situations, and this experience allowed them to stay calm, keep the game plan on track, and give their athletes the best opportunity to find success.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to uncover the characteristics of mentoring relationships, answering the following questions 1) what characteristics define mentor coaches? and 2) what features appear within a mentoring relationship in coaching? Throughout the study we determined characteristics of a successful mentor, how coaches learn, and the ideal properties of mentoring relationships in coach development.

The participants' description of the ideal mentoring relationship for coaching coincides predominantly with the Reflective Practitioner Model (Geen, 2002) from the education literature. The Reflective Practitioner Model encourages self-reflection of both the mentor and the protégé where the mentor provides the protégé with questions regarding their actions and the protégé's self-reflect upon these questions (Geen, 2002). The two key features of the mentoring process outlined by the participants were observation and the idea that the mentor should ask questions of the protégé, not provide a specific answer. This slight deviance from the Reflective Practitioner Model assists in solving the main issue of the model, lack of specific guidance and opinions (Geen, 2002). As seen in Drever and Cope's (1999) study of education students involved in multiple mentoring situations, the Reflective Practitioner Model was the least favoured as the students felt their mentors did not provide enough specific feedback. In terms of problem solving, the participants in this study would ideally like to see mentors provide ideas when necessary. As a guideline for questions, mentors should adhere to Clutterbuck's (2010) seven dialogues for mentoring: social, technical, tactical, strategic, self-insight, behavioural change, and

integrative. By following these seven dialogues, mentors can increase the positive outcomes from the mentoring relationship (Clutterbuck, 2010).

The barriers listed by the participants as major constrictions on the mentoring process are lack of promotion, time, location, and number of mentors. In terms of lack of promotion, the mentors are specifically discussing the National Coach Mentorship Program. Cramer (2007) recognizes the importance of public advertising on mentorship programs, noting that advertising mentorship programs can provide reassurance to protégés that help is available and assist them in obtaining the resources necessary. The participants in this study believe that more time needs to be spent promoting the program in coaching clinics and creating a ‘face’ for the program, someone who can get out into the hockey community and discuss the coach development opportunities in mentoring and the National Coach Mentorship Program. Time and location barriers are directly linked to the lack of mentors available. The small number of mentors creates time constraints for those who are mentoring as they may be taking on too many protégés while still coaching their own teams. The number of mentors also increases the location barrier, as a small number of mentors are covering large regions. Cramer (2007) acknowledges that the most successful way of retaining mentors and offsetting time constraints is to offer monetary compensation. This may be the most effective way of increasing the number of mentors available, however it is almost certainly not an available solution to most amateur sport organizations. The primary way to overcome these barriers, as stated earlier, is to increase promotion of the mentoring program, along with recruiting coaches who are at the end of their coaching careers.

Mentor Characteristics

This study focused a great deal on determining the specific characteristics that successful mentors need to possess. The participants focused primarily on the ability of the mentor to transfer knowledge and ideas, which coincides with the idea of ‘guidance’ which is seen consistently across mentoring definitions (Cassidy, Jones, & Potrac, 2004). In order to improve this transfer of knowledge, the participants recognized communication, approachability, and knowledge of the game to be important characteristics of mentor coaches. In terms of communication, the participants highlighted the ability of the mentors to effectively transfer knowledge and ask questions, as well as the importance of continuous communication throughout the original mentoring process and the rest of their coaching careers. The mentor coaches should also be approachable in terms of being easy to talk to and their openness to questions. Lastly, knowledge of the game is a particularly important technical characteristic of the mentor, and there are many ways in which coaches obtain this knowledge. The mentor participants’ personal sources of coaching knowledge overlap with those recognized in the literature in terms of Erickson et al.'s (2008) research in actual versus ideal sources of coaching knowledge. The participants noted all of the same sources as Erickson et al. (2008), specifically mentioning the significance of NCCP courses, mentoring, and interactions with others. The participants also made note of the downfalls of ‘learning by doing’, which is a major source of knowledge, but is not viewed as an ideal form of coaching knowledge (Erickson et al., 2008). For many coaches this process of ‘learning by doing’ is one of the only ways in which they learn about coaching, and while you can

learn a great deal from experience, it should not be the only resource available to you. Wright et al.'s (2007) research with ice-hockey coaches revealed that face-to-face interactions with other coaches provided an exceptional learning situation. The participants in Wright et al.'s (2007) study also concluded that serving as an assistant coach provided the opportunity to learn from an experienced head coach. The participants in this study corroborated these findings, suggesting that different mentoring experiences and interactions with other coaches were two of the most important sources for coach development. While there are many forms of education for the increase of sport specific knowledge, methods for teaching the 'soft skills' of mentoring such as communication and approachability still need to be developed.

Maguire and Pitceathly (2002) set out to determine effective training methods to decrease undesirable communication or 'blocking barriers' between doctors and patients. First Maguire and Pitceathly (2002) determined skills that needed to be performed to optimize communication such as eye contact, questioning the type of information the patient wanted to receive, and being supportive. Then they suggested three different training methods to improve the skills and increase communication. The three methods were cognitive input where detailed evidence is provided on successful communication, modelling where trainers demonstrate positive communication skills to the doctors, and practicing involving simulated situations where the doctors can practice their communication skills and receive feedback (Maguire & Pitceathly, 2002). In business, Blaszczynski and Green (2006) combine these three training methods into a model for developing 'soft skills'. The model involves providing knowledge of the skill (information or demonstration) and using

guided practice and feedback, a process which continues until refinement and an acceptable level of skill has been achieved. Shilling, Jenkins, and Fallowfield (2003) reported the increased satisfaction of patients whose clinicians had attended a three day communication skills clinic, and noted specifically that these clinicians asked their patients if they had any questions more often than the control group. It may be difficult to conceptualize the training of 'soft skills', but areas such as medicine have created different training programs and reported the benefits. Within hockey coaching many of these 'soft skills' are used not only to increase the mentoring relationship, but also to improve bench management in terms of communication with coaches and players, as well as increasing the transfer of life skills from sport to other aspects of coaches' lives. In order to increase this knowledge transfer and create the best mentors and coaches possible, the NCCP should look into involving the development of 'soft skills' within their courses, and the National Coach Mentorship Program should provide 'soft skills' training to the mentors involved in their program.

Mentoring relationships should be challenging and rewarding to both the mentor and the protégé (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). Mentor coaches need to have goals for the relationship as well, and foster the passion they have for the sport and coaching in order for the relationship to be successful. Based on the participants' description of mentoring characteristics, the mentors do not necessarily have to be coaches. With the exception of organization in terms of bench management that may need a coach's perspective, anyone with sufficient knowledge of the game and personal characteristics could be a successful mentor. This transfer of knowledge from different fields can be seen in the use of sport psychology in business (Fletcher,

2010; Jones, 2002). Business leaders encounter extremely similar circumstances as occur in sport, specifically organizational issues, stress, leadership roles, high performance teams, and one-to-one coaching/counseling (Jones, 2002). Through the use of sport psychology techniques and interventions, business leaders can enable themselves to be successful in various scenarios (Fletcher, 2010; Jones, 2002). The same can be said for mentoring across disciplines, as the basics of coaching are the same as taking a leadership role in business. If sport psychology techniques can improve business outcomes then leadership techniques presented by business leaders should improve sports coaching.

Mentoring Model of Coaching

Using the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995) as a framework, a mentoring model for sport is suggested based on the results from the current study (Figure 1). The goal of the mentoring model is to develop coaches, and is composed of three peripheral components: mentor's characteristics (i.e. philosophy, knowledge), coach's characteristics (i.e. experience, coaching style) and contextual factors (i.e. goals, age/level of athletes). These three peripheral components combine to create the Mentor's Model of Coach's Potential, which creates a framework for how mentors will address the three primary components of the model: competition (i.e. game day decisions and tactics), training (i.e. how to teach tactics and flow of practice), and organization (administrative and logistical). Based on the responses from the participants, these mentoring relationships will include observation, open communication and a continuous relationship. In terms of competition and training, the most important aspects recognized by the participants was the ability of the

mentor coach to ask questions and provide ideas to the protégé, not provide a specific solution. The participants encouraged the mentor to allow the protégé to make their own decisions with the additional resources provided by the mentors. The organizational aspect of the mentoring model can be seen in terms of administrative organization such as seasonal plans, and logistical organization like bench management. The Mentoring Model of Coaching incorporates the peripheral and primary components of mentoring in a framework that provides an easy to use guideline to increase the success of the mentoring relationship.

Strengths and Limitations

The two main strengths of the research are developing policies and uncovering the importance of ‘soft skills’ in mentoring. The proposed Mentoring Model of Coaching creates the foundation for mentoring models within sport. This foundation allows for the development of policies within coaching education. By incorporating the Mentoring Model of Coaching and knowledge of ideal mentor characteristics, the NCCP and the National Coach Mentorship Program can develop programs to increase positive mentorship experiences. This research also uncovered the importance of ‘soft skills’ in mentoring. These ‘soft skills’ such as communication and approachability, are major factors in the development of successful mentoring relationships, but are currently underdeveloped in coaching education. Development strategies for ‘soft skills’ need to be added to coaching education programs, and promoted within the National Coach Mentorship Program, in order to increase the success of mentoring relationships and create positive coaching behaviours.

The limitations of this study include the sample size, the sport, and the same circumstances for all mentors involved. The sample size in the study is relatively small at three participants and the coaches were all involved in the same sport and mentorship program. For the purposes of the study the same sport and mentorship program was used to keep the data consistent. Also, three participants from the National Coach Mentorship Program was deemed a sufficient number of participants as there was an extremely small pool of mentors to select from. Future research should include larger numbers of coaches from different sports and information needs to be gathered from a multitude of mentoring programs (i.e. Sport BC's Coach Mentorship Program).

Personal Experience

This research was driven by the experiences of the lead researcher, many of which are similar to those of the participants. The lead researcher has completed the same coaching courses from Coach to High Performance 1, has been involved in the day-to-day operations of coaching hockey in Southern Manitoba, has been both a mentor and a protégé, and has worked alongside the participants in the research. All of these factors influenced how the data was collected and interpreted. Many experiences that were observed or described within the interview process were easily interpreted as the lead researcher shares a language with the participants and has been in similar situations. This research also allowed for reflexivity. The data collected from the mentors provided insight into how to develop and organize ideal mentoring relationships as well as the characteristics most coveted in a mentor coach, all of which can be incorporated into the lead researcher's coaching career.

Future Directions

Future research pertaining to mentoring relationships should include different sources of data collection, expansion into other sports, increased observation of one-on-one mentoring, and testing of the proposed Mentoring Model of Coaching. First, a quantitative approach would be beneficial in order to verify the key characteristics of mentoring relationships. Using Erickson et al.'s (2008) template for the actual versus ideal sources of coaching knowledge would be well suited to continue the mentoring research, asking protégés to describe their actual versus ideal aspects of mentoring relationships. The use of quantitative research in addition to the qualitative results from this study would serve to solidify the characteristics of mentors and ideal mentoring relationships in coaching. The research should also be expanded to include other sports. By incorporating other sports researchers will be able to determine if mentoring relationships differ across sports, or if the same general principles apply to all settings. The research should also increase the focus on observing one-on-one mentoring relationships in action. Viewing the mentor and protégé relationship up close with experienced coach mentors would give the research the most complete look into the mentoring relationship. Finally the proposed Mentoring Model of Coaching needs to be tested, beginning with hockey coaches as the original data came from that environment, and then expanding into other sports to test the ability of the model to create a proper foundation for positive mentoring experiences.

Conclusion

The mentoring relationship, at its core, is about guidance (Cassidy et al., 2004). It is “an investment in the total personal growth of an individual” (Jones et al.,

2009, p. 269), allowing motivated and knowledgeable mentors to guide protégés through their career while also increasing their personal development (Johnson-Bailey & Cevero, 2004). Within sport, mentoring is one of the ideal sources of coaching knowledge (Erickson et al., 2008) and has been acknowledged by expert coaches as a significant contributor to their success (Bloom et al., 1998), yet work still needs to be done to determine how to create and develop these successful relationships. The creation of a mentoring model may be the first step in creating successful relationships and providing coaches with a foundation for mentoring in sport, allowing them the opportunity to vicariously live out practical experiences of their mentors (Bloom et al., 1998). The Mentoring Model of Coaching suggested above acknowledges that mentor characteristics (highlighted as knowledge of the game, approachability and communication), coach characteristics and contextual factors all contribute to the mentoring process, and provides guidelines for mentors to follow. By solidifying the major components of the mentoring relationship, we can assist in coach education and provide coaches and athletes the best possible opportunities for success.

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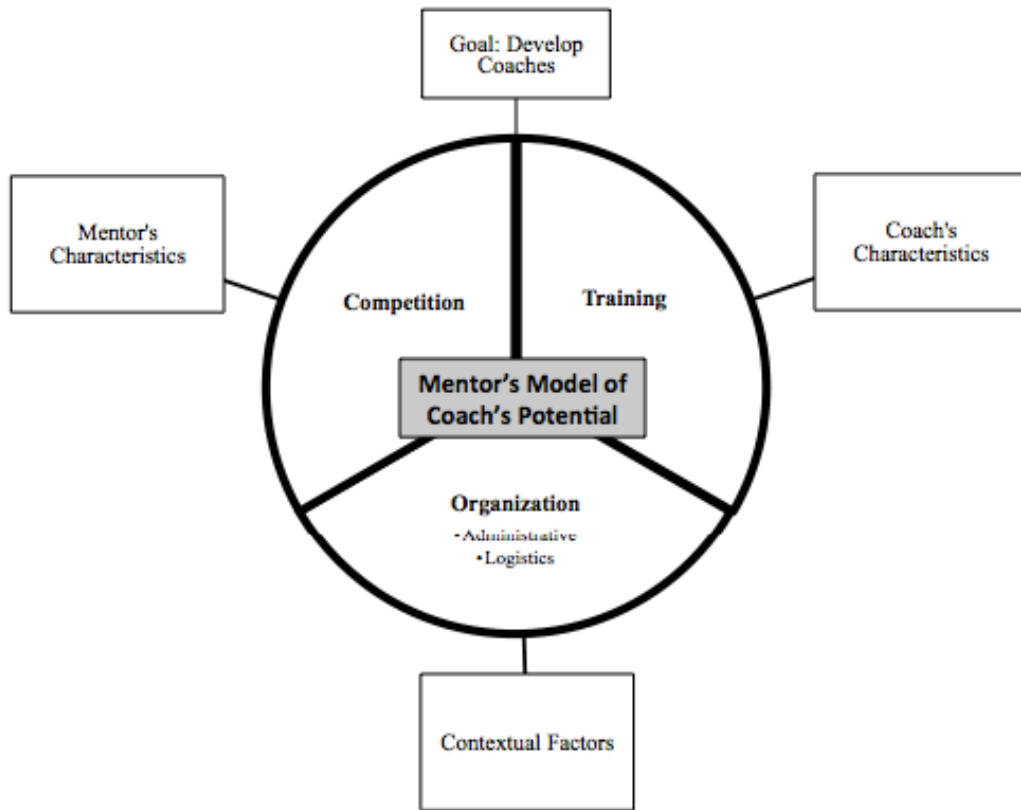


Figure 1: The Mentoring Model of Coaching



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Appendix A

Informed Consent

Research Project Title: Mentoring in coach education: Defining the characteristics of mentoring relationships in coaching.

Researchers: Kayla Hobday, Primary Researcher, Faculty of Kinesiology and Recreation Management; Supervising Advisor: Dr. Leisha Strachan

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information. If you would like to receive a summary of the findings, please indicate this desire in the space provided at the end of this form.

You have been asked to participate in this study due to your coaching background and your involvement in the development of hockey coaches through mentoring. The purpose of this study is to determine characteristics of mentoring relationships in coaching. Sport has used mentoring as a tool of coach education for years without

defining the parameters of the mentoring relationship. With the increasing reliance on coaches learning from other coaches, sport needs to define what the mentoring relationship within coaching looks like, and solidify the process for use across all sports. Due to this lack of verification in mentoring, this research is guided by the following questions:

1. What characteristics do coach mentors deem as important for coach development?
2. What features appear within the mentoring relationships in sport?

I am requesting your voluntary participation in this study, which has the potential to lend valuable information to coaches and sport governing bodies, and change the coach mentoring system within sport. Participation in this study will take approximately 6hrs, and will involve:

- Observation of one practice and one game to determine the characteristics and coaching behaviours of the mentor coach to enable deeper analysis of the interview data (see attached observation outline).
- Interview with the primary researcher at the arena, after the final observation is complete (see attached interview guide)
- Member checking: The transcripts of the interview will be sent to you for review before the data analysis begins. This process will enable you to change or clarify your responses to the interview questions.

The primary researcher will have access to all data (i.e. audio files, observation notes, and transcripts) and the supervising advisor will have access to the transcripts. The information provided by the participants will not be discussed or disclosed to any

other individual with the exception of the primary researcher's thesis committee members: Dr. LeAnne Petherick and Dr. Adrienne Leslie-Toogood. The identities of the participants involved will not be discussed with the thesis committee members, or any other individuals. The data provided in the research will be used in the primary researcher's thesis, as well as potential publication in academic journals and both public and academic presentations (SCAPPS, etc.). The identities of the participants will be protected in all publications and presentations of the data obtained through this research project. The data obtained during the course of the study will be stored in a secure location (e.g. locked file cabinet in room 123B Frank Kennedy Centre at the University of Manitoba – the graduate student lab) that will only be accessible to the primary researcher and the supervising advisor. The identities of those who participated in the study will be protected in any presentation or publication. All data pertaining to the study will be shredded after a five-year period (January 2019) and audio files will be deleted immediately after the transcriptions are completed.

The singular risk involved in the study is your potential identification as a participants based on the answers to the interview questions. To protect your identity, and the identities of the other participants involved, pseudonyms will used and all identifiable information such as the team and level you are coaching, will be generalized. For example 'head coach of Female Bantam AA Winnipeg Twins' will be described in the research as 'coach of female U15 hockey team in Manitoba'. Participants may refuse to answer any questions. Participants may withdraw from the study at any time by contacting the primary researcher (Kayla Hobday). Any data relating to individuals who have withdrawn from the study will be immediately destroyed. This

includes shredding the informed consent and observation notes, deleting audio files, and shredding/deleting transcripts.

This study is being completed as thesis research in accordance with the University of Manitoba. Dr. Leisha Strachan is the supervising advisor for this research and can be contacted at leisha.strachan@umanitoba.ca. **If at any time you wish to withdraw from the study, you may inform the primary researcher during the research process or contact the primary researcher via email after the interview is completed.**

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequences. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation.

The University of Manitoba may look at your research records to see that the research is being done in a safe and proper way.

This research has been approved by the Education/Nursing Research Ethics Board. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact any of the above-named persons or the Human Ethics Coordinator

(HEC) at 474-7122. A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

Participant's Signature: _____

Date: _____

Primary Researcher's Signature: _____

Date: _____

Primary Researcher:

Kayla Hobday

Graduate Student, Faculty of Kinesiology and Recreation Management

University of Manitoba

To be sent a summary of the results of this study please check here:

Yes: _____

No: _____

If yes, please include your email address or mailing address below:

Email address: _____

Mailing address: _____

Observation Outline

Purpose: To observe the mentor coach's program with a focus on the characteristics of the mentor coach within the following situations:

Pre-Game:

- Coaches pre-game discussions
- Game plan between coaches
- Pre-game talk with team:
 - o What is the main focus?
 - o How is the information presented?
 - o Are the athletes engaged?

Game:

- Game specifics:
 - o Time, place, opposition, etc.
 - o Goals, penalties, etc.
- Coach interactions/actions on the bench:
 - o Discussions with players, coaches, refs
 - o Demeanour
- Intermission:
 - o Coach discussions in hallway
 - o Information presented to the athletes

Post-Game:

- Post-Game talk with players:
 - o Player demeanour/attentiveness
 - o Information presented: tactical, emotional, etc.
- Debrief with assistant coaches

Practice:

- Practice planning
- Pre-practice discussions with staff
- Roles of staff on-ice
- Drill selection
- Interactions with athletes and staff
- Different aspects as to how the practice is conducted

Interview Guide

Developed using elements of the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995)

Coach/Athlete Characteristics

1. Describe your coaching career thus far. How many years have you been coaching? What levels and ages have you coached?

Coach Characteristics

2. You have been identified as a mentor. What characteristics do you believe have led to this status?

Contextual Factors

3. What sources have contributed to your coaching knowledge?
4. Did you have a coaching mentor? If so, describe the relationship. If not, would you have preferred to have a mentor?

Organization

5. Does the hockey world promote mentoring relationships? Have you been apart of any organizations/teams with a formalized mentoring program?
6. What is the ideal mentorship experience in your opinion?

Training

7. What is the role of the mentor in training?

Competition

8. What is the role of the mentor in competition?

Other

9. How would you define mentorship?
10. Why have you decided to help the younger generation of coaches?

11. What are some barriers to mentoring? How would you overcome these barriers?

Appendix B

Interview Guide

Developed using elements of the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995)

Coach/Athlete Characteristics

1. Describe your coaching career thus far. How many years have you been coaching? What levels and ages have you coached?

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Other

9. How would you define mentorship?

10. Why have you decided to help the younger generation of coaches?

11. What are some barriers to mentoring? How would you overcome these barriers?

Appendix C

Theme	Sub-Theme	Category	Sub-Category	
Mentor Characteristics	Technical Characteristics	Knowledge of the Game	(I/O) Technical and tactical	
			(I/O) Different experiences	
		Organization	(I/O) Planning [practice, game, season] (I) Bench management	
	Personal Characteristics	Communication	(I) Ongoing	
			(O) Assistants are well informed	
			(I/O) Provide easy explanations	
			(I) Increase confidence	
		Intrinsic Motivation	(I) Open to learning	
			(I) Provide more athletes with opportunity for success	
			(I) Provide an increase in qualified coaches	
		Approachable	(I/O) Easy to talk to	
			(I/O) Open/available for questions	
		Passion	(I/O) Love of the game	
			(I/O) Drive to help athletes succeed	
(I) Compassionate/Caring				
Sources of Coaching Knowledge	Tangible	Courses	(I) Coach	
			(I) Development 1	
			(I) High Performance 1	
		Online	(I) Drills	
	Books	(I) Ideas for teaching tactics		
	Intangible	Mentors	Head Coach	(I) Increasing responsibilities
				(I) Out of comfort zone
				(I) Organization (Bench mgmt, staff org.)
				(I) Increase confidence
		Outsider	(I) Ask questions	
			(I) Provide ideas, not answers	
			(I) Technical and tactical knowledge	
		No Mentor	(I) Ongoing relationship	
			(I) Would have liked to have a mentor	
(I) Learn by trial and error				
Discussions	(I) How do you gauge your abilities?			
	(I) Other coaches			
	(I) People within the hockey community			
	(I) Develop teaching skills			
Working at Camps	(I) Increase knowledge			
	(I) Technical and tactical knowledge			
Playing Career	(I) Technical and tactical knowledge			

Mentorship Experience	Ideal Experience	Shadowing the mentor coach	(I) Not coaching while shadowing
			(I) Involved in planning
			(I) Opportunities to run drills/systems
			(I) On bench during games
		Funnel down effect	(I) Start from higher levels
			(I) Same program expectations throughout
			(I) Coaches at all levels receive same training
		Open communication	(I) Provide different ideas
			(I) Suggestions for problem solving
		Ongoing relationship	(I) Continues after original development
	Organization mentors	(I) Mentor readily available	
		(I) Makes beginning easier	
	Identified Barriers	Promotion is lacking	(I) Won't find the information unless directly looking for it
			(I) Need a face for the program
			(I) Not enough time spent on providing information about the mentoring program
			(I) Not enough qualified coaches
Time		(I) Mentors coaching their own teams	
		(I) Juggling schedules	
Number of mentors		(I) Not many female coaches	
		(I) Regions assigned to mentors are large	
Location	(I) Travel time		