



UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT & QUALITY OF LIFE SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION & MANAGEMENT

MASTER'S THESIS

**“OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANIZATION
AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS”**

Sports Mentoring: Review of literature

Andreas Dimitrios Kosmatopoulos

Supervisor: Prof. Dimitrios Gargalianos

Sparta, November 2014

UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT & QUALITY OF LIFE SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION & MANAGEMENT

MASTER'S THESIS

“OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANIZATION
AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS”

Sports Mentoring: Review of literature

Andreas Dimitrios Kosmatopoulos

Supervisor: Prof. Dimitrios Gargalianos

It was approved by the Advisory Committee on the

.....
Dimitrios Gargalianos
Professor

.....
Dionisios Gangas
Professor

.....
Konstandinos Georgiadis
Professor

Sparta, November 2014

.....
Andreas Kosmatopoulos
Master's Degree Holder of University of Peloponnese

Copyright © Andreas Kosmatopoulos, 2014.

All rights reserved.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	9
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	10
PERSONAL REFLECTION.....	11
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	13
1.1 Purpose of Study.....	14
1.2 Methodology.....	14
CHAPTER 2: MENTORING AT A GLANCE.....	15
2.1 The Origin and Development of Mentoring.....	15
2.2 Definitions on Mentoring.....	16
2.3 The Mentor.....	17
2.4 The Mentee.....	18
2.5 Principles of Mentoring.....	18
2.6 Contemporary Mentoring.....	19
2.7 Mentor, Coach, Instructor or Trainer ?	19
CHAPTER 3: CLASSIFICATION OF MENTORING.....	21
3.1 Categories of Mentoring.....	21
3.1.1 Traditional and Informal mentoring.....	21
3.1.2 Professional mentoring.....	22
3.1.3 Formal mentoring.....	22
3.2 Models of Mentoring.....	22
3.2.1 One-to-One mentoring.....	22
3.2.2 Group and Peer mentoring.....	23
3.2.3 Friendly mentoring.....	23
3.2.4 On-line and Long Distance mentoring.....	23

CHAPTER 4: MENTORING APPLICATIONS.....	25
4.1 In Business.....	25
4.2 In Education.....	26
4.3 In Nursing.....	26
4.4 In the Army.....	26
4.5 In Social Reintegration.....	27
 CHAPTER 5: MENTORING IN SPORTS.....	 28
5.1 Background.....	28
5.2 Development.....	28
5.3 The Importance in the Development of Coaches and Athletes.....	29
 CHAPTER 6: THE CONCEPT OF SPORTS MENTORING.....	 30
6.1 Developing a Mentorship Sports Philosophy.....	30
6.2 Sport Mentoring.....	31
6.2.1 Mentor’s Role.....	31
6.2.2 Mentor’s Skills.....	33
6.2.3 Successful Mentor’s Behavior.....	34
6.2.4 Mentor’s Guidelines.....	34
6.3 Sport Mentored.....	35
6.3.1 Mentee’s Role.....	35
6.3.2 Mentee’s Guidelines.....	35
6.4 Establishing a Sports Mentoring Program.....	36
6.4.1 Setting Objectives.....	36
6.4.2 Organizing.....	37
6.4.3 Implementing.....	37
6.4.4 Evaluating.....	38
 CHAPTER 7: MENTORSHIP BENEFITS.....	 39
7.1 Mentor’s Benefits.....	39
7.2 Mentee’s Benefits.....	40
7.3 Organization Benefits.....	40

CHAPTER 8: CONSIDERATIONS.....	42
8.1 Criticism.....	42
8.2 Matching Considerations.....	42
8.3 Risk Awareness.....	43
8.4 Ethical Issues.....	44
8.5 Gender and Race.....	45
8.6 Age.....	45
8.7 Expectations.....	45
8.8 Socioeconomic Diversity.....	46
8.9 Challenges.....	47
CHAPTER 9: LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.....	48
9.1 Limitations.....	48
9.2 Discussion.....	48
9.3 Conclusions.....	49
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	51
Further Readings.....	55

ABSTRACT

The concept of mentoring has various definitions and practices depending on the field, the people involved and the aims that need to be achieved. It contains notable age, hierarchical authority, and experience differences between mentors and mentees. The purpose of the study was to examine the current situation in sports mentoring and to provide a holistic approach where mentoring can be applied in sports coaching as an undivided element. The methodology used included a review of the literature from a wide range of fields. The major results of the study were that although few sport mentoring formal programs exist, where those applied, can become a valuable tool in the athlete's development both as a performer and well-being. Criticism and concerns on mentoring arise for its efficiency and the impact it can have on people's lives. It was concluded that sport mentoring is an evolving relationship that requires time and attention to develop and includes successes and challenges.

Keywords: Mentoring, Mentor, Mentee, Sport Mentoring

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr Dimitris Gargalianos who sharply recognized my “hidden” interest in mentorship and the need to support the young athletes in an inspired, productive and innovative way. It was he, who unlocked the “last door” in my mind and encouraged me to go towards the direction I wanted in my studies. The International Olympic Academy studies in Ancient Olympia helped me to expand my Olympic knowledge with many thanks to my Professors, instigators and role – models Dionissios Gangas and Konstandinos Georgiadis for giving me this chance.

Going through my research and while I was reading the relevant books and reports, I was creating an imaginary mentor to talk to and practice what I have learned. In most of the cases it was my father’s voice and imaginary appearance who took that role. In many occasions I realized that I have been mentored – not guided – many times without knowing it. I thank my father because he did not give me straight answers, although he could, but a way of thinking that helped me find more answers and reach my expectations through an endless pursuit.

Last but not least, I thank my family members who inspire me to wake up every day and to try for the best.

PERSONAL REFLECTION

As an ambitious athlete I was “forced” to study other successful competitors and mainly their coaches’ practices and behaviours. During my career I have played the double role of an athlete and self – coach. In time, I could recognize the good coaching practices and create my ideal coach profile. In a -not so- surprizing conclusion the successful coaches had similar behaviours, reactions and priorities. Combining my past experiences with the presented literature review I corroborated that a successful coach is primarily a really good mentor. There were many times in the past that I recalled my mentor’s advice and managed to proceed with success or minor losses in a series of demanding tasks. Using my imaginary mentor, I have managed to win the World Championship title in 1995 at the age of 27, without the physical appearance of a coach or the support of a technical team prior, during or after the competition, an achievement never repeated since. Many years ago when I asked the sports authorities of my country for a sport psychologist to help me during my Olympic Games preparation, my request was considered as a luxury. In this context we are still far for employing a mentor for our athletes or establishing formal mentoring programs within sports organizations as obligatory or prerequisite. However, I am strongly convinced that goodwill mentoring leads to self-awareness and creates long lasting abilities based in a holistic philosophy of success that extends beyond the competitive sports environment.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Mentorship, a powerful personal development and empowerment tool, is a partnership between two people: the experienced mentor and the mentee, based upon mutual trust and respect. It is considered as an effective way that supports the mentee to develop solutions, to explore new ideas in confidence and to improve its overall wellbeing.

A mentor can help the mentee to find the right direction by providing guidance and encouragement.

Mentoring is not new and exists in many forms and practical variations depending on the aims, the environment that takes place and the people involved.

The study takes the reader back to the origin of mentoring and shows that a mentor-mentee relationship is partially a natural process, a fundamental to adult development and an extent to athletes' maturity. It introduces the concept of mentoring and describes the running applications in various academic and professional fields and it takes a better account of the researched evidence on mentoring in order to provide general guidelines of good practice that could be applied to sports coaching.

Through the years, mentoring has being used efficiently formal or informal, in nursing, education, business, military, art or science.

In sports competition, although it's not fully yet examined, it is believed that mentoring can become a valuable tool for the people involved and especially for the coaches, in order to maximize their abilities, therefore athlete's performance and communication in any given situation.

In recent years it became common use within sport coaching and coaches who perceived mentoring as an important aspect of their professional roles. Moreover, mentoring contributes in a smooth transition to a new career and a balanced life after the end of the demanding sport competition of an athlete.

In general, authors and/or sports organizations showed minimal awareness of the positive impact of mentoring in helping especially young athletes to express their dream and to develop it.

It was noticed that until now, few nations developed the concept of sport mentoring in full, based on a new multidimensional approach and philosophy in sport competition. There is a criticism of the ideology behind mentoring that cannot be neglected but has to

be examined in full for an integrated understanding of the mentorship impacts and results. On the present study and for legible purposes the references to the masculine gender include the feminine.

1.1 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the importance of sport mentoring and its influence in the athlete's and coach's development and improvement, both as sport performers and personalities.

In particular the aim was to describe the existing frames, practices and perspectives related to mentoring from various fields including sports and to record the surrounding criticism and concerns in order the reader to become aware and receive a wider view on the mentorship use.

1.2 Methodology

The method used is that of the review of existing international literature selected from a wide range of academic and professional fields such as business studies, military training, school education, nursing, rehabilitation and social reintegration where the practice has been widely researched, established and used, since the relevant sports literature is limited.

As sports mentoring functions partially similar to the way described in business, military and education literature, relevant practices can be adopted in sports, expecting a positive impact in athlete's behavior and performance.

Based on the existing literature, a range of sectors and approaches to mentoring were identified, however, the review concentrates on the past two decades' literature from the UK, USA, Canada and Australia, where significant implementations of sport mentoring are made. Reports, conference papers, handy guides and Internet sources have also been included as an advisory and not as a comprehensive review of the literature on mentoring.

CHAPTER 2: MENTORING AT A GLANCE

“I am indebted to my father for living, but to my teacher for living well” (Alexander the Great, mentored by Aristotle).

2.1 The Origin and Development of Mentoring

Mentoring in a wider sense of admonishing, guidance or support is not something new. As a characteristic of the human nature, parents “mentor” their children most probably from the beginning of human kind. For most of the known human history, artisans have learned from one another through apprenticeship or association (Williams, 2005).

The word, term, or name “Mentor” first appeared in Homer’s epic *Odyssey* (Satchwell, 2006). As Odysseus was preparing to fight in the long lasting Trojan War he had to leave behind his only son Telemachus. The child was young so he entrusted Telemachus’ care and education to Mentor, his wise and trusted friend (CHLP, 2003a). However, Colley (2002) claimed that the characteristics of a wise and gentle Mentor is under question and stressed that it was the goddess Athena who took the form of the Mentor and she was the one who brutally “mentored” Telemachus. According to Roberts and Chernopiskaya (1999), the modern and eventually prevailed character of the gentle mentor owe more to Fenelon’s novel “*Les Adventures de Telemaque*”, written in 1699, which was widely influential in the 18th century and comes in contrast with the Homer’s *Odyssey* version.

The character of mentor appeared in other cultures under different names. For example, in ancient China, the “mentorship” tradition had the form of the master sage or “Tzu,” who guides followers, including political leadership, in the Way or “Tao” of truth (Williams, 2005).

Since the middle of the 18th century, the term “mentor” was widely adapted in a more particular and structured form especially in education and nursing and during the past two decades is in a process of being clarified in full regarding its identity. As a structured concept mentoring progressively extends into new fields of application such as military, sports, employment and various organizations of different interests. Mentoring programs began to be formalized in the late 1970s by both public and private

organizations, as they had been recognized as a beneficial process for both the individuals and the organization (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

2.2 Definitions on Mentoring

Despite the recognition of the beneficial mentoring practices the exact terminology is not clarified yet (Bloom et al., 1998). The difficulty on an agreed term for mentoring was identified by researches in the UK and USA (Hall, 2003). This happens because mentoring has a wider range of meanings and an optional practical application. According to Clutterbuck (1996) the biggest problem for researchers into mentoring is still defining what it is.

Many mentoring guides are generated or reproduced by companies, life coaches or sport organizations, refer to mentoring as “...a process in which an experienced individual helps another person develop his or her goals and skills through a series of time-limited, confidential, one-on-one conversations and other learning activities” (CHLP, 2003a, 1). Those guides and brief introductions into mentoring are spread through the internet, while widely adapting the “good version” of Homer’s Mentor. In most cases they just reproduce simplified definitions of what they want mentoring to be, according to their aims, or they adapt the terminology that already exists in dictionaries.

However, one generalized version of the definition of mentoring cannot be adopted while attempting to describe what this means in practice as for each field of application there are minor or major differential approaches. For example, youth mentoring has been associated with different approaches and practices than in military, business or rehabilitation environments. Each field has other priorities, aims and policies. Furthermore, in military, the mentor is confused with the leader, in sports with the coach, in education with the teacher. In some cases, depending on the personality and skills of the mentor, one person can apply more roles. This is not obligatory, but it is desirable.

US Army defines mentoring as: “*The voluntary developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience that is characterized by mutual trust and respect*” (AR, 2007, 6).

Kaye (1997) provided a logical, simplified but widespread description of what a mentor is, stating that behind every successful person there was someone - the mentor - who

cared about his growth and development. However, this is only partially true as there are successful persons that had never experienced mentoring. According to Anderson-Ashcraft (2002) some people that choose not to be mentored can be equally successful as those who are mentored. Hall (2003, 6) points out that “...mentoring takes many forms, exists in a variety of settings, and can be employed for a range of purposes”. It is worth mentioning that the varied definitions on mentoring as their conjunction can provide a wider view and understanding of the mentoring functionality. For the purposes of this study the following definition of mentoring by Williams (2005, 2) was employed: “...a trusting, collaborative relationship in which there is a commitment of time and a series of interactions that contribute to the personal and professional development of one or more parties to the relationship”.

In order to reduce any emotional cohesions and to highlight the specified two-way mentoring process between the mentor and the mentee for the purpose of this study the term “mentoring relationship” has being replaced with the term “mentoring synergy”. Despite the existence of the different definitions on mentoring there is a common frame which is “...the receipt of information through the experiences of others (mentors) that have the ability and willingness to share them with younger, inspired individuals (mentees) who are seeking for knowledge and personal growth” (Williams, 2002, 2).

2.3 The Mentor

Culture, literature and film industry have created a typical mentor character: an old wise man, who knows and delivers the formula for success. Reality seems to be far from that. Mentors exists regardlers their age or gender. According to Busen and Engebretson (1999) mentors can be younger in age than their mentees but considerably more experienced or specialized in a given area.

Juster (2012, 5) points out that a mentor related to bussiness, “... is a senior executive with knowledge, experience and skills in a specific field, willing to transmit them to mentees. He takes interest and shows commitment to the development of the individual”. The mentoring process should be without fear, and the mentee is free to discuss concerns or issues openly without any concerns. (Williams, 2002). The mentor becomes a role model and more importantly someone who guides and provides alternatives for the mentee (Anderson-Ashcraft, 2002). It’s a key element that a mentor

provides specific recommendations in a certain way and does not guide or dictate the mentee but lets him lead himself into his decisions. He develops mentee's critical thinking and positive activation.

At the beginning of mentoring synergy objectives, strategies and tactics are discussed and mainly agreed by both parties. Then, the mentor provides a recommended course of action taking into consideration the existing conditions such as the background and cultural specificities of the mentee, the timeframe, the nature of the activities and the aims agreed to be achieved. According to Hall (2003) when a mentoring scheme works, there are benefits for both the mentor and the mentee, but if does not work, both may suffer.

2.4 The Mentee

A mentee (or protégée) is a person who wants to develop his skills and self-awareness based on the mentoring process through the synergy with another person who is specialized to unlock abilities in an inspired way. Those who are mentored experience sufficient motivation to continue their effort despite any difficulties.

According to Hall (2003) throughout the literature there is little discussion of its implications for mentees. An ideal mentee is well prepared and organized, has realistic expectations, is open to feedback, and is willing to work hard to develop new skills (Williams, 2005). An effective mentoring synergy requires from the mentee to take responsibility for his part of the process and to lead by guiding and facilitating the mentor's efforts in order to create a satisfying and productive synergy for both parties (Zerzan et al., 2009).

2.5 Principles of Mentoring

Nash (2003) stretches out that mentoring is acknowledged as a dynamic, reciprocal relationship within an environment, involving an individual with more experience in a specific field and a less experienced or beginner in that field. This synergy between the two individuals should be one based on mutual trust and respect and should allow both to develop their skills and freewill within the mentoring process (Bloom et al., 1998, 267-268). According to Juster (2012, 3) "*...the key to mentoring is the relationship*

between the mentor and mentee, which must be built on trust, honesty, mutual understanding & respect and open communication”.

Confidentiality is as important in order to built trust and maintains open communication without fear or setbacks. A long-term commitment by both parties is vital for an efficient and effective mentoring synergy. According to Anderson-Ashcraft (2002) the "long-term" commitment is estimated to be between three to five years.

Juster (2012) points out that mentoring is an intentional, insightful and nurturing process that plays a vital role to the development of the mentee towards his full potential. Mentors should not dominate the mentee or create cloned copies of themselves (Jones et al., 2009).

2.6 Contemporary Mentoring

In today’s business, science, sport, art or any other “competitive” human activities, besides the traditional skills, which are provided by education, research, knowledge and experience, additional ones are required. The globalization of the economy, the speed of the technological changes, the mass amount of available information and the increased human resources availability, combined with the increase of unemployment creates an environment where individuals have to seek for self actualization and personal growth in order to remain competitive. Coaching and mentoring are considered as the most important tools of professional and personal development available in today’s workplace. Organizations, having seen the potential of mentoring as a powerful learning and developmental strategy, which could be used on the job, established formal mentoring programs (Hall, 2003). Mentorship moved from traditional and spontaneous to formal and structured in the latter part of the 20th century in order to be used more efficiently and accurately expecting to contribute in the development a growth of an individual or group of people (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

2.7 Mentor, Coach, Instructor or Trainer?

It is common for people to become confused between coaching, training, instructing and mentoring. Indeed these identities have similarities but they do not provide the same input, although in certain stages of the mentoring process they overlap. Literature

review points out that coaching is typically conceived as a narrower remit than mentoring with an emphasis on the improvement of skills and performance while a mentor has a more personal and broader commitment to the individual compared to a coach (Lord et al., 2008).

The similarities between mentoring and coaching can be seen partially on the objectives, the required communicational and organizational skills that a mentor and a coach have to demonstrate. In some circumstances the coach acts or retains a role as a mentor too.

The trainer provides a physical and technical preparation, while the instructor provides an amount of ready-made information for comprehension. Both have a narrow and very specific area of responsibility on the development of the athlete, while a mentor has a wider range of input including the mentee's wellbeing.

Mentoring has a more long-term focus than coaching and contributes to the individual's personal and professional development and growth in a wider cultural, social and educational range (Renshaw, 2008).

CHAPTER 3: CLASSIFICATION OF MENTORING

“Mentoring is not one thing; it is a range of possibilities” (John Hall).

3.1 Categories of Mentoring

There is a variety on categories of mentoring synergies, ranging qualitative from informal to formal and quantitative from one-to-one to group mentoring. The environment, the objectives and the conditions where the mentoring synergy occurs determinates the categorization. It's quite different to help someone to become a better athlete, teacher or technician from the required support to someone in order to socially integrated or escape from disaffection.

Again, as for the definition of mentoring there were many variations, the same applies to the categorization. Philip (1999) makes the distinction between ‘naturally occurring’ mentoring, which exists in a young person’s life, and the ‘artificial’ mentoring, which is deliberately provoked by an outside agency.

According to Hall (2003) all these distinctions, typologies and alternations are evidenced that mentoring exists in a variety of forms. It is important to consider mentoring as a process, as this reflects the ongoing nature of the relationship, regardless the environment that occurs or the particular variation (Nash, 2003).

3.1.1 Traditional and Informal Mentoring

Traditional is the oldest form of mentoring and it was the base for the development of the formal mentoring. In traditional mentoring, it is usually one individual who elects to initiate a mentoring synergy with another individual, less experienced, who has the potential or the talent and the will to learn and develop (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999). There are not agreed terms and the synergy occurs naturally as a part of the human characteristic to support others and to socialize. Traditional mentoring is an individual process, where is up to the mentor’s personal choice the selection of the mentee. An informal mentoring synergy usually occurs in a spontaneous format (CHLP, 2003a). It’s quite similar to traditional but it occurs mostly outside of an organization.

3.1.2 Professional Mentoring

In contrast with the traditional, professional mentoring is a process, which is promoted and encouraged by top leadership as part of mainstream staff development within an organization. One of the major advantages of the professional mentorship is that is accessible to women and other minority groups leaving aside any discrimination issues. However, the success cannot be guaranteed as the participation is voluntary (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

3.1.3 Formal Mentoring

Formal mentoring occurs within a structured and defined framework and has a specific strategy. Is characterized by its intentionality and there is an evaluation of the results for the mentees, the mentors and the organization (CHLP, 2003a). There is an agreement between the mentor and the mentee in terms of establishing goals and defining the nature of their synergy. One of the advantages of the formal mentoring is that extends to individuals and minorities who hadn't this opportunity within an organization previously. However, a compulsory formal mentoring program does not automatically guarantee its immediate acceptance and adoption (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

3.2 Models of Mentoring

3.2.1 One-to-One Mentoring

According to Hall (2003), the one-to-one mentoring is the "classic" between an adult and a young person where the older and more experienced mentor provides support, advice and challenge to the younger mentee.

Within an organization, each mentee is supported by a more experienced colleague from the same sector (Lord et al., 2008). One-to-one mentoring is considered to be the most effective model because of its potential to foster deeper, and to provide stronger support to the mentee (Fletcher, 2007).

3.2.2 Group and Peer Mentoring

In the group mentoring, a small number of mentees are supported by a mentor as a team. Within peer mentoring the group is sharing good teaching practices and by observing each other teach they improve their practice (Lord et al., 2008). Group and peer mentoring encourage friendship while exchanging ideas and information and potentially collaborating on projects.

Minority groups can pass more efficient on what they do know and offer advices to others. They can serve as important problem solving and social support networks (Hedrick, 2005).

In sports, group and peer mentoring exists in large number of team members (e.g. soccer, basketball, etc.) where the coach plays the role of an inspirational motivator before a game or during the team's preparation.

3.2.3 Friendly Mentoring

A friend-to-friend mentoring (Hall, 2003) is considered to be informal and it is not run by professionals or within a structured form. It's the day-by-day communication between friends based more in an advisory and supportive interaction, where the two parties are almost equal or occasionally changing roles. There is not a complete plan or an existing agreement and usually the synergy ends when the specific issue or problem is solved or new interest come in place.

3.2.4 On-line and Long Distance Mentoring

Long distance mentoring becomes more common as today's technology allows a qualitative direct and live communication between the mentor and the mentee regardless of any geographical distance or time differences.

Video calls and e-mails are the primary tools for this kind of communication, which provides the benefits of low cost and immediate contact and response. Spending time together with face-to-face contact, the mentor and the mentee create stronger bonds and make this synergy more efficient.

Mentoring at distance works better if the mentor and the mentee had spent previously a

significant amount of time together.

According to Anderson-Ashcraft (2002, 50), “...*long-term relationships cannot be built in short rotations, while it becomes even more difficult to achieve the long-term duration over great distances*”. However, there are also advantages to “e-mentoring” as there is built-in reflective time and participants can think more deeply about their questions and their answers and the written record can be further analyzed (Clutterbuck, 2009).

CHAPTER 4: MENTORING APPLICATIONS

“Leaders always choose the harder right rather than the easier wrong” (Orrin Woodward).

4.1 In Business

The fast-paced work environment of modern society requires state-of-the-art human resource development systems. In order to improve their employees’ quality and productivity in the 1980s, many businesses introduced formal mentoring programs (Healy & Welchert, 1990), which improve the employee’s knowledge in a specific area or support him in the design, implementation, and evaluation of a project (Williams, 2005). According to Jones et al. (2009) mentoring practice are recognized as a highly effective tool to elevate an employee’s performance within the business.

Peer mentoring has been used effectively in many American and British organizations (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002). A new employee is matched with a peer mentor over a period of a few months in order to become familiar with the organization structure and policy in a relative short timeframe.

Mentoring is an effective tool to provide professional development and to enhance learning in the workplace. An experienced executive of a company, having the role of a mentor, provides professional guidance and shares practical knowledge and skills with a new member (Juster, 2012).

However, although research has demonstrated a positive correlation between the implementation of successful coaching and mentoring programs and corporate profit, the use of coaching and mentoring practices across the finance community is not widespread. Where used, they are not particularly formalized and they are not available to all levels of the organization (ACCA, 2009).

4.2 In Education

Educational institutions have long recognized the benefits by mentoring new teachers, while mentors appeared to have a critical role in the professional development of both teachers and schools (Jones et al., 2009).

Fletcher (2000) claims that the mentor's role in education is to assist the new teacher integrating into the school or institution, to provide guidance related with the teaching resources, to support the preparation and delivery of lessons and to indicate alternative appropriate strategies within a supportive framework.

The study of Jones et al. (2009) concludes that the benefits of mentoring schemes for all involved, teachers, students and institutions are common in the educational literature. However, it was also found that mentoring within the education frame might suffer due to lack of time and funds, when teachers are obliged to implement the mentor's role in addition to all of their other professional duties.

4.3 In Nursing

The concept of mentorship as a tool of professional development in nursing has been highly improved over the past 10 years. The basic aim was to strengthen students' theoretical knowledge, whilst ensuring that they were fit for the clinical practice part of nursing. A number of different mentoring approaches have been implemented in various clinical institutions ranging from the traditional and one-on-one, to peer, group or even at a distance E-mentoring (Jones et al., 2009).

According to Busen and Engebretson (1999) the term preceptor is used to describe the relationship between a student and an experienced clinician. The preceptor is responsible for the student's clinical learning, acts as a role model and promotes self-confidence and independence.

4.4 In the Army

A research implemented by the U.S. Army War College (Williams, 2002) concluded that mentoring is a developmental tool that can effectively support many of military learning objectives. The Army relies on a leader development system and mentoring is a

primary tool for this objective.

Mentors within the Army environment deal with people from a wider range of ethnic, racial, cultural and religious backgrounds and should prevent, based on mutual trust and respect, misunderstandings arising from those differences. Being an Army officer does not automatically qualify one as a mentor (Williams, 2002).

A mentor should have sufficient training and knowledge in order to present alternatives and to allow the mentees to choose their own path, even when this may result in setbacks. The mentor must know when to allow the mentee to fail and when to prevent him when the risk is too high.

Mentoring efficiency is based in the chemistry between two individuals; therefore it cannot be forced on the basis of a doctrine even within the Army's limitative structure (Anderson-Ashcraft, 2002).

Despite the importance of the mentoring practice within the Army training, military officers expressed some dissatisfaction as the formal mentoring program is poorly defined while there was confusion between the terms mentoring and leadership (Anderson-Ashcraft, 2002).

According to Williams (2002) mentoring can be an effective tool in the development of junior officers and provides benefits to the mentee, the mentor, and the Army organization, while leadership, counseling and mentoring although are closely related, they are not the same.

4.5 In Social Reintegration

With more than 650.000 people released from America's prisons each year the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) and Public / Private Ventures (P/PV) led to develop "Ready4Work: An Ex Prisoner, Community and Faith Initiative" in order to reduce recidivism and to help ex-prisoners to restart their lives despite the limited opportunities and the community's rejection. This voluntary reentry program was based in mentoring with some impressive results. More than half (56%) of ex-prisoners involved in the mentoring reentry program were more likely to find and more successful to retain a job and 39% of them were less likely to recidivate compared with those who were not mentored (Fletcher, 2007).

CHAPTER 5: MENTORING IN SPORTS

Many sporting organizations in different countries are beginning to realize the value of mentoring as the most appropriate method of developing effective coaches and have implemented a formal process for them to work with a mentor (ASC, 2006; Bloom et al., 1998).

5.1 Background

In the past fifty to ten years, depending on the kind of sport or the related nation, it was up to each coach's philosophy on how to deal with individual athletes or teams. The coaches were more "traditional", based their decisions in past experiences and empirical knowledge, the surrounding environment and their emotion.

Few coaches were distinguished from the traditional form and had an impact in the development of the athletes or teams. Those coaches were named "philosophers", "mentors", and "motivators" and were remembered for what they delivered.

According to Bloom et al. (1998), most of the coaches and athletes admitted that they have received and followed the advice of an experienced player or coach at some point in their career and even expert coaches considered themselves to have been informally mentored, technically, philosophically and behaviorally. Such coaches realized many years later how much the mentoring experience had influenced their lives within or outside of sports (Jones et al., 2009).

5.2 Development

Mentoring was there all the time but as an informal, unspecified and discontinued process with few exceptions. The term mentoring has started recently to appear more frequently within sports coaching and sport institutions related with the development of the coaches' knowledge and expertise by implementing a formal structured mentoring program. Bloom et al. (1998) criticized the existed unstructured and uncritical nature of, the so called, coach mentoring.

The need of a formalized content of sports coach mentoring has already been addressed in a number of countries such as Australia and Canada, while in UK the governing body for coach education “Sport Coach UK” generated empirical evidence regarding the current nature of mentoring in sports coaching in order to create more meaningful coach education program (Jones et al., 2009).

Some sports in Australia, in order for a coach to become qualified require from him to pass through a structured mentoring program (Layton, 2002).

The Coaching Association of Canada (CAC) recognizes three approaches to mentoring: supervisory, informal and facilitated.

The German coach education system has created mentorship opportunities from participant to elite levels with formal and informal mentoring courses, which are administered by the German Sports Council (DFB) (Nash, 2003).

5.3 The Importance in the Development of Coaches and Athletes

Mentoring encourages and promotes freewill and decision-making. Having said that, it's clear that it provides the freedom to act, therefore the freedom to think and plan ideally in advance. The mentor contributes on reminding this fundamental. The athlete and the coach receive the mentor's inspirational and wise echo but it's up to him/her which way to go, how and when to readjust the selected pathway. Critical thinking and further improvement within the mentoring synergy is a key element in the development of any individual.

According to Nash (2003) the success of any mentoring relationship relies on the mentor by allowing the mentees to extend their knowledge and to play a more dominant role on their decisions. Mentoring is considered as a highly effective way for new coaches to learn their role (Bloom et al., 1998). Generally, no second chance exist during the competition and fast, confident decisions by the athlete or the coach who developed critical thinking and freewill within a mentoring synergy, can determinate the outcome.

CHAPTER 6: THE CONCEPT OF SPORTS MENTORING

The nature of the athlete–coach relationship has an important role to play in the athlete’s development both as a performer and as a person. A lack of emotional closeness, trust, support, communication or respect can become a source of stress and distraction, especially for the athlete (Jowetts & Cockerill, 2003).

The following testimony is an evidence for the need of a unified modern coach-mentor character: “...people see me as a pair of legs and think that this is all that I am. I need a coach who will see me as a whole person” (Jowetts & Cockerill, 2003, 314). The coach-mentor will concentrate on the development of the athlete as a person by encouraging life balance and not only competition success.

Most of the athletes and coaches freely admit that they have been mentored informally at some point in their career by a more experienced athlete or coach and this synergy had a minor or major impact in their development.

6.1 Developing a Mentorship Sports Philosophy

The interpersonal relationship between a coach and an athlete is an important factor that greatly contributes to the athlete’s development as a human being (Jowetts & Cockerill, 2003). The ideal “coach” is not just an instructor, trainer or technical expert seeking only for success, but combines a series of skills and qualities that allows him to see the athlete and the sports from a different perspective.

Many athletes entirely depend their success upon the coach’s advice and knowledge. This practice has short term results and does not provide life balance or wellbeing to the athlete. The coach does not develop a philosophy transferable to the athlete who often is left alone.

Winning-oriented attitudes by the coaches, fans and family members have contributed to the increase in young athletes' dropping out of sports (Schloder & McGuire, 1998). In contrast, a coach-mentor encourages belief in athletes' ability to be successful on their own, aligns their level of confidence with their abilities and mainly and despite the competition outcome he is always there for the athlete or the team. A mentor helps his athletes to understand the complex experience of winning or losing.

The mentor has a multiple role and specific tools to use in order to achieve the personal

and athletes or coaches objectives by setting challenging goals. At first, identifies goals that build on what athletes know and can do already, but could not yet achieve alone. By experimenting and observing, creates a learning environment that supports risk taking and innovations (Jones et al., 2009).

Although the coaches and the athletes have different personalities, training approaches and competition demands, the mentorship sport philosophy positively supports the role of the coach and the athlete and provides a series of benefits that overcome any doubts or concerns.

According to Salmela (1996, 65), “...successful coaches have mapped out unique philosophies in their pursuit of excellence. Along the path of success they learned the path of hard work, listening to others and developing a unique coaching style. Coaches interacted with their athletes and cared about their overall well-being”.

6.2 Sport Mentoring

6.2.1 Mentor’s Role

Mentors can adopt many different roles and styles in their relationships with their mentees that overlap and change over time according to the given needs. Within the sport coaching practice he might become a teacher or a trainer providing learning opportunities or a challenger in order to encourage the mentee to maximize his/her potential. As the mentor leads by example, he becomes a positive role model by demonstrating exemplary behavior (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009).

The mentor’s role is not to provide all the answers but to serve the mentee as a learning facilitator. He provides questions over advice in order to encourage the mentee’s independence and induce him to think more broadly. A mentor has to resist the temptation to control the relationship and steer the mentee. It’s the mentor’s role to build mentee’s confidence through supportive feedback, to encourage, inspire, and challenge him in order to achieve goals or to find alternatives (CHLP, 2003a).

Mentors share their own experiences and “lessons learned” as mere examples, and provide flexibility and opportunities for the mentees by encouraging their independence in order to identify and achieve their career and personal goals.

According to Juster (2012) there are five main roles that mentors have to consider. Depending on a given situation they have to act as teachers in order to assist the mentees to set goals and plans as a challenger by providing them objective feedback, as a counselor by discussing with them their concerns, as a motivator in order to inspire and encourage the mentees to succeed in their expectations and as a guide by sharing their organizational knowledge.

An integrated mentor provides support to the mentee not only through his present challenges but also prepares him for his “after sports life”. In many cases retired elite athletes, instead of remaining role-models, they end up poor, with ruined lives, unable to establish a new career and to find a job, or, at worse, they become addicted to drugs, to overbearing, or committing violent and illegal actions (VOA, 2011).

A study of the French Basketball Players Union (SNB, 2014) concluded that 42% of the players suffer from ongoing physical after-effects and many of them from substance dependencies, such as drugs and alcohol, during an unplanned transition period or a sudden end of their career due to injury. Lack of education due to athletes’ unconditional devotion to sport preparation is one of the major factors. Institutions, sport associations, athletes’ unions and the International Olympic Committee have established educational alternative programs. Moreover, some member countries of the European Union offer dual career options acknowledging the importance of educational and job opportunities as a necessary part of athletes’ lives and well-being during and after their sport career (Pavlidis & Gargalianos, 2014).

Universities from across Australia have expressed their commitment to supporting high performance athletes pursuing dual careers of sport and study. Under the Elite Athlete Friendly University (EAFU) agreement, 39 Australian universities have partnered with the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) to introduce and promote those policies. There are currently well over 900 elite athletes undertaking study at an EAFU institution whilst competing, increasing their prospects for entry into an occupation or profession after their sporting career ends (ASC, 2013).

A mentor’s role is not only to be up-to-date with all new technical, tactical and scientific developments and trends related to sports but also to be aware of the educational level and potential future of his mentee. He has to support his athlete well before and during his transition period in order to manage his career and future development by presenting to him alternatives on education and giving him a chance to

get involved in the career environment after sport. Dual career practices will allow the athletes to make smoother adaptations to life's new challenges and perform better both in sports and life (DCA, 2013).

6.2.2 Mentor's Skills

There are many mentoring approaches but in order to be effective a mentor needs to have appropriate knowledge of technical coaching matters and procedures, skills on planning, goal setting and communication and attitudes related to the process and philosophy of mentoring and coaching (Layton, 2005).

The existing literature suggests that mentors and mentees tend to have certain skills that can be further developed. According to Lord et al. (2008), mentors should be knowledgeable, experienced and successful practitioners, having the qualities of trust and mutual respect. Mentor's skills also include the ability of providing emotional and friendly support, the flexibility on switching roles between a mentor and a coach and to have advanced interpersonal skills. A good mentor has to be accessible, enthusiastic and committed to his tasks and to the success of the mentoring synergy.

The ideal mentor is a good strategist, has valuable knowledge and teaching capacity, is a good role model, and both affirms and challenges the mentee (Williams, 2005). Active listening is the most basic skill that a mentor will use throughout his mentorship. It creates a positive and accepting environment that permits open communication and helps the mentor to clearly identify the interests and the needs of the mentee.

A mentor, although it takes time, has to build trust by providing confidentiality, showing interest and honesty to the mentee (CHLP, 2003a).

According to Juster (2012) the qualities of a successful and skilled mentor, among others, is to be people oriented and provide sufficient time with the mentee by recognizing and accepting that differences in opinions, values, and interests will exist. Moreover, a sport mentor has to be familiar with rules, technical and tactical principles of the particular sport for a better understanding of the athlete's needs and to have the ability to handle conflicts.

6.2.3 Successful Mentor's Behavior

Regardless of the sport or the size of the team they coach, great coaches tend to have similar behavior. The basic characteristics are the calmness they transmitted in an anxious situation by absorbing all the surrounding tension, the low tone of their voice and the politeness and respect with which they treat their athletes.

Jim Caldwell describes successful NFL coach and mentor Tony Dungy in a similar way: “... *Dungy nurtured and cultivated players and coaches by moulding without pressing, nudging without pushing and leading without dragging*” (Dungy & Whitaker, 2010, 4).

John Wooden, an iconic figure in NCAA basketball coaching, was described as a “Zen-like” character, a calm person with dignity and integrity. Apart of his victories he became a mentor to hundreds of athletes and coaches providing them with some of the most significant lessons in their life (Wooden & Yaeger, 2009).

Those prime examples of mentors, had established a trusting and protected environment for their mentees, they were talking ideally “as needed” and above all they were fully committed to their role.

6.2.4 Mentor's Guidelines

The primary concern of a mentor is to provide support to mentees through the development of a meaningful mentoring synergy that it needs time to grow and become trusted.

According to Schineller and Jenkins (2009), a mentor has to be reliable regarding his agreed appointments and not to cancel them without a warning, as this will be result to an immediate loss of trust.

A mentor has to be consistent and give feedbacks, to be aware of the dangers and threats around his mentee, to set clear structure limits and norms on his mentoring synergy at the very first stages and include the mentee in developing plans.

Confidentiality and trust is the basic requirements of a successful and productive mentoring relationship (IMA, 2014). A mentor receives private and personal sensitive information from the mentee or his/her family. This information remains within the mentoring synergy and any leak will result the loss of faith and trust on the mentor (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009).

According to Hedrick (2005), the mentor should treat all dealings and sort out the priorities, to clarify and reconsider mentees expectations, to give constructive criticism in private and anticipate in advance any potential problematic situation. Listening and asking powerful challenging questions in a friendly way are two essential skills for successful mentoring.

6.3 Sport Mentored

6.3.1 Mentee's Role

A mentee is responsible for his own growth and development and has to go beyond what a mentor suggests. This is a process where the mentor gives a simple incentive to the mentee who starts or continues to act according to his diversified beliefs and upgraded methods.

A mentee has to seek for constructive feedback and input rather than advice or specified guidelines of how to do things or solve problems (CHLP, 2003b).

The mentee is not a walk-on that receives the mentor's advice in blind but rather an active participant who aspires to self-assessment, responsibility, honesty, and appreciation for his mentor. The mentee should develop a clear vision of his own goals and by doing so he will present clearly his aims and needs to potential mentors (Zerzan et al., 2009).

6.3.2 Mentee's Guidelines

According to ASC (2006) mentees have to be clear about their goals and desires, to take responsibility for their choices while "driving" the mentoring process and not to wait for the mentor to initiate action. Furthermore, mentees have to look for a mentor with similar values and the skills and respect his time and needs maintaining having reasonable expectation.

A mentee has to look for potential mentors' own achievement in key areas and make sure that he has the required knowledge and is specialized for the specific tasks. Many mentoring synergies rely on formal written agreements that include the purpose of the mentoring, the goals and the related actions for achieving those goals (Hedrick, 2005).

The agreement does not guarantee the success and the commitment but is a clarification of what to expect from the particular mentoring process. It's up to the mentee to complete assigned tasks, to request feedback and to ask questions (Zerzan et al., 2009).

6.4 Establishing a Sports Mentoring Program

Most successful sport mentoring programs have evolved through experience, have little structure and even less documentation and reporting. They can range from very informal to very formal, depending on the sports' and athletes' needs or the available resources. Whatever the format, mentors have to ensure that they are providing quality mentoring that leads to fair, valid and reliable assessment (Layton, 2005).

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) has created a sport specific Mentor Training Program in order to develop and enhance the skills of mentors working with coaches and officials in community or high performance environments. According to the ASC *"...mentoring can be a valuable tool to help coaches and officials improve their knowledge, skills and confidence, and achieve the requirements for accreditation"* (Harmer, 2010, 2).

The Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L) is a movement to improve the quality of sport and physical activity in Canada and is implementing nation-wide a community mentor program to encourage sport and community participation, long-term athlete development and physical literacy (CS4L, 2014). The mentor within this program acts as a collaborator, facilitator or evaluator in order to support the aims of the program after his training courses on mentorship.

In 2010, the National Coaching Foundation of UK established a mentoring program in order to support mentor coaches working with new coaches (recruits) involved in the Recruit into Coaching (RiC), a national programme that aimed to train and recruit 10,000 new volunteer coaches and deploy them in grass-roots sport across England within a year (Jones & Simmons, 2010).

6.4.1 Setting Objectives

Before implementing a sport-mentoring program the needs of the athlete or the team

have to be identified and realistic expectations for both have to be set. An open discussion of the key developmental areas and the mode of action are needed in order to set a mutual strategy. Setting more specific goals, short and long term, related with athletes' performance improvements or achieving a competition task is the next step. Goal setting can be identified using the SMART checklist: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-framed (Jones & Simmons, 2010).

For the mentor who is seeking also for personal development within the mentoring synergy the goal might be “...to improve the quality of feedback provided to individual athletes at training” (Layton, 2005, 11).

6.4.2 Organizing

The establishment of a formal written agreement related with the ground rules, the expectations and the timeframe of the mentoring synergy is appropriate for a better communication and cooperation and for avoiding any future disappointment and conflicts. The organizations include the technical aspects related with the mentoring synergy such as the appropriate place and the time it will occur, the camera, voice recorder or projector equipment and documentation.

Once the mentor has observed and analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of the athlete, together with him can explore and write down the strategies of improving the performance and establish priorities (Layton, 2005).

6.4.3 Implementing

At this stage the topics are processed one by one as planned, while mentors share their own experience and lessons learned. They continuously observe and record athletes' behavior and actions at a distance and do not distract or dictate their will but they rather guide the athletes to pass through the process and specific tasks. They encourage new and creative ways of thinking and give new assignments (Juster, 2012).

6.4.4 Evaluating

The evaluation of the mentoring program records the behavioral changes and the performance improvements of the athlete. The experiences both of the mentor and the athlete – mentee are taken in consideration to alter the mentorship as needed in order to become more effective (Juster, 2012).

The evaluation has to be scheduled at regular intervals during the mentorship implementation to assure that the needs of the athlete and the mentorship principles are met. However, if the mentoring process is no longer productive and does not meet the needs of the athlete and/or the mentor, it might have to be terminated or to change the pairing (Layton, 2005).

During the evaluation, feedback will give the opportunity to the athlete to analyze his own performance and to the mentor to provide his own analysis. In order to monitor the effectiveness of a mentoring program, some indicators are the interest, the motivation and the satisfaction of the athlete, his goal achievements, the value of training provided and the observation of the ongoing progress (ASC, 2006).

CHAPTER 7: MENTORSHIP BENEFITS

“The man who moves a mountain begins by carrying away small stones”
(Confucius).

According to Ehrich and Hansford (1999) it is difficult to discuss the benefits of mentoring because the role of the mentor can vary enormously, while formal mentoring programs have different orientation, context, and aims. Even within the same mentoring scheme mentees can have a quite different experience and understanding.

Although the mentoring benefits can only be seen in long term and it is hard to be measured, most of the literature agrees that mentoring synergy delivers a significant number of critical benefits to the mentors, the mentees, the organizations and the society.

The key findings on the Community Based Mentoring (CBM) by Big Brothers Big Sisters of America, showed an improvement or increase in academic performance, parental and peer relationships, a positive attitude toward school and a decrease in violence, alcohol and drug use in young ages (Hansen, 2007).

7.1 Mentor's Benefits

Within a mentoring synergy, mentors draw benefits as well. A mentor has the opportunity to share his wisdom and experiences, evolve his own thinking and deepen his mentoring skills (CHLP, 2003a). According to Philip and Hendry (2000) mentors involved in informal mentoring have the opportunity to gain insights into the realities of other people's lives and to learn from these for themselves, they become able to make sense of their own past experiences and to build up a set of psycho-social skills as 'exceptional adults', able to offer support, challenge and a form of friendship.

Lord et al. (2008) refers on mentor's benefits resulted by involvement in a mentoring synergy.

A mentor gains in knowledge and skills related to leadership, management and problem solving, he receives a greater understanding of child protection and willingness to undertake professional and career development. Furthermore, he increases reflectivity and improves psychological wellbeing, confidence and sharing of practice.

According to Hedrick (2005) a mentor experience has a beneficial outcome from the mentoring process and the satisfaction in assisting in the development of the mentee and in contributing to overall changes. Furthermore, he places himself within a network of colleagues exchanging ideas and improving his methodology.

7.2 Mentee's Benefits

According to Ehrlich and Hansford (1999) a critical part of a mentoring relationship is learning new skills. For the mentee involvement in a mentoring program results in an increase in performance and productivity ratings, more pleasure and satisfaction in their work and an increased likelihood of success specially compared with someone not mentored.

Mentees develop their own potential; gain self-knowledge and self-confidence. Hedrick (2005) stretches a series of benefits for the mentee that includes individual recognition and encouragement, reduction of stress as part of the psychological support from the mentor and constructive criticism and informal feedback.

Work by Lord et al. (2008) presented the impacts and benefits for mentees and coaches divided in categories that include an increase in reflectivity and clarity of thinking by shifting their ways of "seeing", a psychological wellbeing and confidence improvement by reducing work-related stress through work discussion, gains in practitioner knowledge and skills, an improvement on sharing of practice, a better problem-solving and decision-making skills, a more positive attitude towards professional and career development, a better communication, and an improvement in self-management and self-learning skills.

7.3 Organization benefits

Murray and Owen (1991) identified several benefits by implementing formal mentoring programs within an organization. By sharing knowledge mentors and mentees improve organizational communication and skills required for their specific role and tasks. Mentored employees improved their productivity and motivation.

According to Williams (2005), mentorship within an organization increases employee's loyalty and commitment, accelerate learning, improves the quality of work products and services through the use of feedback loops and build collaborative ties between the

work units where mentors and mentees are based.

According to Lord et al. (2008) mentoring within an organization contributes in a cultural and ethical change by: a) creating a holistic learning environment, b) building a sense of community and c) increasing the sense of professionalism and career development. Furthermore, organization policies, systems and processes have being improved as mentoring can help employees to communicate and understand the values, vision and mission of the organization.

Juster (2012), points out that mentoring, through the ongoing interactions and role modeling, provides a supportive and encouraging environment within the organization. It also contributes and supports the development of leadership and management and helps to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

CHAPTER 8: CONSIDERATIONS

“I cannot teach anybody anything. I can only make them think” (Socrates).

8.1 Criticism

There is a specific criticism of the ideology behind mentoring that cannot be avoided or neglected. The understanding of each of the problems that might occur within the mentoring practice will increase the awareness of the mentor in order not to fail by putting himself, the mentee and/or the organization he represents at high risks due to his behavior and actions. The mentee has to be aware of this criticism and to identify the potential difficulties in the early stages in order to protect himself by avoiding or reporting the mentor when he recognizes false interactions.

According to Ehrich and Hansford (1999) the literature contains a series of warnings related with “the dark side of mentoring”. Under certain conditions a mentoring synergy can become harmful for the mentor, the mentee or both.

The unrealistic promotional expectations, the over dependence on the mentor and gender issues lead to the “the pain of fractured trust”, “the pain of letting go” and “the pain of disappointment”. Concerns raised by Long (1997) were related to the poor planning and lack of understanding of the mentoring process, unsuccessful matching of mentors and mentees, lack of access to mentoring for women and minority groups, limited mentor’s availability and reproduction of the mentor’s work style.

According to Ehrich and Hansford (1999) there is a difficulty to convince an authority to implement a mentoring program when there is a relative lack of hard data justifying its effectiveness.

Busen and Engebretson (1999) criticized that many forms of negative or toxic mentoring relationships exist in nursing in contrast with the positive outcomes.

8.2 Matching Considerations

In order to create an efficient and/or a long lasting mentoring synergy the selection of a mentor for a particular mentee and vice versa is very critical. When matching considerations are ignored and the mentoring pairing is dictated, most probably the

mentoring synergy will fail.

According to Hall (2003) the mentees participate in a mentoring synergy according to their own values. Therefore, it is very important these values to be in line or at least similar to the mentors. Layton (2005) points out that in order to reduce the incidence of mismatches, the factors that need to be taken into consideration include gender, age, cultural background along with the participants' personalities and their code of ethics.

A method to identify "ideal" mentoring pairs is to apply a questionnaire for the mentors outlining their skills, expertise and their aims and then to establish a database to help match the skills of the mentor with the goals of the mentee. This will allow creating better matches and giving mentoring synergy a better chance of success.

Another method of selection is to use the recommendations from key individuals within the sport (Layton 2005).

In general, mentees need to be paired with mentors with whom they share similar worldviews. Problems due to different cultural and interpersonal styles or racial and ethnic heritages can be more easily addressed (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). A fundamental in sport mentoring is that the coach/mentor and the athlete/mentee have a clear vision and aim of what they want to achieve in a specific timeframe.

The residence location of the mentor and the mentee, the goals and expectations of the mentee and the knowledge and experience of the mentor relevant to the needs of the mentee need also to be taken in consideration when matching mentors with mentees (Layton, 2002).

8.3 Risk Awareness

There are some series of issues that both the mentor and the mentee have to be aware related with the nature of the mentoring synergy. The responsibility of the mentor "being in charge" or guide a mentee is very high and should not be taken in light. According to Hall (2003) a mentoring synergy is at risk and most probably will fail if there is a social distance and mismatch between the values, the roles or the aims of the mentor and the mentee or the mentor is inexperienced or untrained.

What elevates the risk in the mentoring scheme is the fact that most models of mentoring are based on a "*fairly crude and simplistic concept of empowerment*" where the "experienced" mentor is seen as the powerful member of the dyad, and the mentee

as relatively powerless, awaiting empowerment by the actions of the mentor (Colley, 2003, 139). Mentors may use the mentoring synergy in order to fulfill with their own needs and projects and to receive recognition ignoring of the mentee's needs and success. Mentoring synergy that becomes competitive will lead to an unbalanced mentoring relationship with a mentor's desire to fail the mentee.

Some mentors may set goals that are too high or low misperceiving their mentee's potential (Hedrick, 2005). A mentor has to resist the temptation to dictate the mentee or to create a competitive or threatening climate within the mentoring process.

8.4 Ethical Issues

In some cases mentoring synergy between a mentor and a mentee of different gender evolves a romantic relationship due to the close cooperation and mentee's admiration to the mentor. In a worse case scenario the mentor takes advantage of his power and manipulates the mentee despite his will.

According to Hedrick (2005) if a mentee realizes that his mentor suggests a sexual or romantic relationship, he has to confront the issue in a straightforward and firm manner, or to write a letter if he wants to avoid in person contact. In more severe situations where the mentee feels continuously harassed he has to report the issue to supervisors. If there is a romantic or sexual relationship, the mentoring synergy is ruined and has to be terminated. A mentor has to remain at a certain distance from the mentee and avoid sexual joking, comments about personal appearance or using nicknames. If the mentor realizes that a mentee has an emotional interest over him, he has to make a clear statement that he does not wish to jeopardize the mentoring synergy or violate conflict of interest's guidelines. Furthermore, it's vital for a period to invite a third person along if meetings are at lunch, drinks or dinner places. Avoiding private places and having the meetings in public will eliminate uncertain and uncomfortable situations (Hedrick, 2005).

In order to avoid an ethnic diversity a mentor has to learn and study the cultural values and traditions of his mentee. Communication, social norms and interpersonal behavior can vary greatly among different ethnic groups.

By further understanding the mentee's behavior based on those differences a mentor can avoid conflicts and mentoring can become more efficient (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009).

8.5 Gender and Race

Male mentors tend to select only male mentees because they believe that they are more skilled to take the job within an organization so it's worth to invest their time. This is an example of sexism since it is discrimination based on a person's gender. Furthermore, female mentors are a minority within an organization therefore is more difficult for them to be included in mentoring processes (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999). Even when they are available as mentors, they are often perceived as being outside the departmental norm, with less power and influence (Hedrick, 2005).

According to Williams (2002), white men and wealthy advantaged people are more likely to be mentored compared to other groups or minorities.

Formal mentoring group and peer programs seems to be the only way to ensure equal opportunity in mentoring for all employees or groups despite their background.

8.6 Age

Despite the age of the mentee, the mentor has to be aware of the youth culture and respect him as equal, even if may not approve of the youth appearance or speech (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009). Setting clear limits for the mentor-youth mentoring synergy can protect both mentors and mentees from exploitation and harm.

Mentors in young ages act and considered as the extension of the mentee's family. It is important the mentor to be aware that any physical contact or touching that even may seem appropriate and natural can result a series of complications and it might make a younger mentee feel uncomfortable and threatened. It is obvious that any sexual intention or interaction is strictly prohibited and this is indisputable (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009).

8.7 Expectations

Unrealistic goals and high expectations beyond the abilities of the mentee for the given time lead to a failure of the mentoring synergy despite any general progress. Focusing only on the outcome the mentee misleads the efficiency of mentoring. This situation can lead to frustration and the loss of faith and optimism for the mentee.

A poorly planned and implemented mentoring program by the mentor will not reach the expectations or agreed realistic objectives.

Mentors must have realistic expectations too and not to get discouraged when they feel that their mentees are not making huge improvements. Mentor may adjust those expectations in order to prevent mentoring synergy “burnout” and frustration (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009). As a result, dissatisfaction may occur from a mismatch of goals, commitment, or expectations.

Murray and Owen (1991) point out that the unrealistic expectations of the mentees can be avoided when the roles and responsibilities are communicated to them in order to realize what to expect. According to Long (1997) it’s important for the mentors too to clarify and communicate the aims of a specific mentoring program and the link with the mentee’s expectations.

If a mentor has a genuine feeling or realises that a potential mentoring synergy will not be successful or does not care about the particular mentee and the process, he has to decline the mentee and suggest someone else who might be more appropriate to take mentor’s role. Lentin (2003, 47) suggests that: “...*expectations of failure can be a self-fulfilling prophecy*”.

8.8 Socioeconomic Diversity

It is not uncommon that a mentee may live very different from the mentor, especially in social reintegration programs. Moreover, the background of the mentor and the mentee may be quite different. The mentee may live in a dangerous neighborhood, not have a phone or proper accommodation and food. The communication in such conditions may suffer and it’s important for the mentor to be supportive and not judgmental for the situation blaming the mentee. The mentor’s contribution is limited as he cannot financially “rescue” the mentee, but his influence is vital in a direction that will nurture self-development and a sense of dignity and self-worth for the mentee (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009).

8.9 Challenges

Having in mind that everyone has to have equal opportunities to mentor or to be mentored there are some boundaries that still have to fall. According to Hedrick, (2005) women with disabilities are more likely of being excluded from informal mentoring interactions. Potential mentors avoid dealing with people that have physical disability, as they are unfamiliar with someone who may require special assistance or accommodations.

Mentee's parents may be threatened or will try to prevent a mentor from developing a relationship with their child. Parents do not always understand the mentor's role and the development of a trusted relationship between the mentor and the family is often quite difficult (Schineller & Jenkins, 2009). A mentor has to get the parents on the same page in order to work in the same direction, beneficial to the child – mentee. This synergy is often referred to as the athletic triangle, and is an important aspect of effective sport leadership. The stronger the bond of this triangle becomes the more beneficial and satisfactory the mentoring process will be for the child and the mentor (Schloder & McGuire, 1998).

The level of motivation and commitment of the mentor and the mentee are very critical and any lack of those elements may result a poor and insufficient mentoring synergy (Lord et al., 2008).

CHAPTER 9: LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

“Try not to become a man of success. Rather become a man of value” (Albert Einstein).

9.1 Limitations

According to Hall (2003) the mentoring related literature expresses concerns regarding its efficacy. Outcomes extracted from mentoring programs are better regarded as advocacy rather than evidence. The literature review of this study was based in western resources. Few nations seem to have implemented formal sport mentoring programs that are relative new. More reliable results of those programs will be extracted in distant future. Sport mentoring literature is limited compared to other fields and researches were not made upon the same standards and procedures. Comparisons of mentoring programs and policies between nations do not exist in the available literature.

Sport mentoring is in its growth reestablishing its identity.

9.2 Discussion

Mentors have different qualities and knowledge and may not be able to perform as needed in order to support the mentee. A theoretical background or short seminars do not automatically qualify someone to become a mentor and take this responsibility. Mentoring is a lifelong process and experience through practice combined with lifelong learning both by mentors and mentees will develop the necessary skills. Mentors are mentored too. Most of the practices, benefits and concerns presented in this work related with “general” mentoring have a direct connection with sport mentoring. By replacing the word “organization” with “sport club or team”, mentor being the coach and mentee being the athlete, there is a basic frame and a procedure that can be implemented in sports.

An action plan for further development on sport mentoring can include the introduction of its practices and benefits to sport institutions and organizations. Publication of materials and articles related to sport mentoring, the engagement of retired role model athletes or recognized successful coaches in mentoring scheme and the establishment of

sport mentoring training programs similar on those in Australia, UK and Canada will elevate the interest and the knowledge regarding mentoring philosophy. A multidimensional method (Schloder & McGuire, 1998), that develops physical and technical skills, provides knowledge, fun and motivation, encourages athletes' independent decisions and responsibility and fosters social-psychological and emotional aspects can be adopted while is supported by mentorship.

A coach's influence reaches far beyond the sports environment and can have a permanent impact on the life of the athlete, therefore his role is crucial and carries with it significant responsibilities because the role-modeling effect has an either positive or negative impact on the athlete's development and character formation. A coach being a mentor becomes able to implement the multidimensional method that treats the athlete as a unique entity in an effort to develop not only his sports related characteristics, but his overall existence too.

9.3 Conclusions

Mentoring exists in many forms and variations and is considered as an ill-defined concept both generally and specifically within sports coaching as there is no universally agreed-upon definition or practices. It's quite differential how people and organizations perceive the mentoring synergy and its practical application.

According to Hall (2003, 33), “...*there are many formats, which are known as 'mentoring' but they differ so greatly that it is difficult to see what the essential core of 'mentoring' could be*”. In some problematic cases a thin line between the mentor and the mentee does exist.

Mentoring should not become a substitute for psychotherapy (Williams, 2005). However, despite any of those diversifications and the surrounding criticism, the importance on individuals' development and the benefits both for the mentor and the mentee extracting from the mentoring synergy are undoubtedly important and this was supported by most of the literature.

Confidentiality, mutual respect and the establishment of clear objectives and guidelines at the beginning of the mentoring synergy are essential for a successful and efficient mentorship. Athletes can increase their chances of being mentored by actively seeking performance feedback and by adopting the attitude of lifelong learning. The ability to

focus on the athletes' overall development rather than only in sport performance and to create a positive environment for learning is some of the key qualities of a good mentor (ASC, 2006). The need for formal mentoring training programs for coaches, athletes and officials within sport institutions and organizations is increasingly recognized. However, only few countries implemented an educational structured mentoring system in sport coaching.

According to Jones et al, (2009, 280) “...*mentoring is a fluid and dynamic process, requiring patience as to evolve through several stages*”. To be a mentor at any level of sports is both an honour and privilege that carries a significant amount of responsibilities specially when dealing with younger ages. Mentoring in sports is challenging and remains a wide-open field for innovation and discovery.

Bibliography

- ACCA. (2009). *The Coaching and Mentoring Revolution - is it working?* London: Association of Chartered Certified Accountants.
- Anderson-Ashcraft, M. (2002). Mentoring Perceptions in the Military. *Strategy Research Project*. Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania, USA: U.S. Army War College.
- AR. (2007). *Army Leadership*. Army Regulation 600-100. Department of the Army Washington, DC : US Army Publications.
- ASC. (2006). *Guidelines for Building a Mentoring System for Coaches or Officials*. Australian Sports Commission.
- ASC (2013). Universities commit to supporting dual careers of athletes. Australian Sports Commission. Available at: http://www.ausport.gov.au/news/asc_news/story_559730_universities_commit_to_supporting_dual_careers_of_athletes (accessed 21 August 2014).
- Bloom, G. A., Durant-Bush, N., Schinke, R. J., & Salmela, J. H. (1998). The Importance of Mentoring in the Development of Coaches and Athletes. *International Journal Sports Psychology*, 29, 267-281.
- Busen, N., & Engebretson, J. (1999). Mentoring in Advanced Practice Nursing: The Use of Metaphor in Concept Exploration. *The Internet Journal of Advanced Nursing Practice*, 2 (2). Available at: <http://ispub.com/IJANP/2/2/4354> (accessed 15-06-2014).
- CHLP. (2003a, November). A Guide for Mentors. *Mentoring Guide*. Oakland, California, USA: Center for Health Institute & Practice, Public Health Institute.
- CHLP. (2003b, November). A Guide for Protégés. *Mentoring Guide*. Oakland, California, USA: Center for Health Leadership & Practice, Public Health Institute.
- Clutterbuck, D. (2009). *Coaching and Mentoring in Support of Management Development 1*. Oaks CA: SAGE.
- Clutterbuck, D. (1996, November 7-8). What Do we Still Need to Know About Mentoring? 3rd *European Mentoring Conference, London*.
- Colley, H. (2002). A 'Rough Guide' to the History of Mentoring From a Marxist Feminist Perspective. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 28(3), 247-263.
- Colley, H. (2003). *Mentoring for social inclusion: A critical approach to nurturing mentor relationships*. London: Routledge.
- CS4L. (2014). *Becoming a CS4L - A Mentor's Guide*. Ontario: Canadian Sport for Life.
- DCA (2013). Dual Career Association. The concept: Transition. Available at: <http://www.dualcareer.com/home> (accessed 23 August 2014).

- Dungy, T., & Whitaker, N. (2010). *The Mentor Leader: Secrets to Building People and Teams that Win Consistently*. Illinois: Tyndale House Publishers, Inc.
- Ehrich, L., & Hansford, B. (1999). Mentoring: Pros and Cons for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 37(3), 92-107.
- Fletcher, R. C. (2007). *Mentoring Ex-Prisoners: A Guide for Prisoner Reentry Programs*. U.S. Department of Labor. U.S. Department of Labor.
- Fletcher, S. (2000). *Mentoring in Schools: A Handbook of Good Practice*. London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Hall, J. C. (2003). *Mentoring and Young People - A Literature Review*. University of Glasgow. York UK: Reports Express.
- Hansen, K. (2007). *One to One Mentoring: Literature Review*. Philadelphia: Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America.
- Harmer, A. (2010). *Mentor Training, Deliverer's Guide and Curriculum*. AUS, Australia: Australian Sports Commision.
- Healy, C. C., & Welchert, A. J. (1990). Mentoring Relations: A Definition to Advance Research and Practice. *Educational Research*, 19(9), 17-21.
- Hedrick, M. (2005, November). Faculty Mentoring Handbook. *Advance*. Rhode Island, USA: University of Rhode Island.
- IMA. (2014). *Connect - Leadership for Mentoring Programs*. Farmington: International Mentoring Association.
- Johnson-Bailey, J., & Cervero, R. (2004). Mentoring in Black and White: The Intricacies of Cross Cultural Mentoring. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 12(1), 7-22.
- Jones, E., & Simmons, G. (2010). *Recruit Into Coaching: Mentoring Guide*. Leeds, UK: The National Coaching Foundation.
- Jones, R. L., Harris, R., & Miles, A. (2009). Mentoring in Sport Coaching: A Review of the Literature. *Physical Education & Sport Pedagogy*, 14(3), 267-284.
- Jowetts, S., & Cockerill, M. (2003). Olympic Medallists' Perspectives of the Athlete - Coach Relationship. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 4, 313-331.
- Juster, C. (2012). *Mentoring - A Developmental Strategy for Fresher*. Bilaspur: South Eastern Coalfields LTD.
- Kaye, B. (1997). *Up is Not the Only Way: A Guide to Developing Workforce Talent*. (2nd Edition ed.). London: Nicholas Brealey.

- Klasen, N., & Clutterbuck, D. (2002). *Implementing Mentoring Schemes: A Practical Guide to Successful Programmes*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Layton, R. (2002). *Making Mentors*. AUS, Australia: Australian Sports Commission.
- Layton, R. (2005). *Making Mentors: A Guide to Establishing a Successful Mentoring Programme for Coaches and Officials*. Canberra: ASC: Australian Sports Commission.
- Lentin, J. (2003). *Strategies for Success in Mentoring*. Alberta: APEGGA.
- Long, J. (1997). The Dark Side of Mentoring. *Australian Educational Research*, 24(2), 115-183.
- Lord, P., Atkinson, M., & Mitchell, H. (2008). *Mentoring and Coaching for Professionals: A Study of the Research Evidence*. National Foundation for Educational research.
- Murray, M., & Owen, M. A. (1991). *Beyond the Myths and Magic of Mentoring: How to Facilitate an Effective Mentoring Programme*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey Bass.
- Nash, C. (2003). Development of a Mentoring System Within Coaching Practice. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 2(2), 39-47.
- Pavlidis, G. & Gargalianos, D. (2014). High performance athletes' education: value, challenges and opportunities. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, 14(2), Art 44, pp.293 – 300.
- Philip, K. (1999). *Young People and Mentoring: A Literature Review for the Joseph Rowntree Foundation*. Aberdeen: University of Aberdeen.
- Philip, K., & Hendry, L. (2000). Making Sense of Mentoring or Mentoring Making Sense? Reflections on the Mentoring Process by Adult Mentors with Young People'. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 10, 211-223.
- Renshaw, P. (2008). *Reflect: Creative Partnerships National Co-mentoring Programme. Executive Summary*. The Sage Gateshead.
- Roberts, A., & Chernopiskaya, A. (1999, November). A Historical Account to Consider the Origins and Associations of the Term Mentor. *History of Education Society Bulletin*, 81-90.
- Salmela, J. H. (1996). *Great Job Coach! Getting the Edge from Proven Winners*. Ottawa, Canada: Pontentium.
- Satchwell, K. (2006). *Mentoring Literature Review*. Alberta: Government of Alberta.
- Schineller, K., & Jenkins, C. (2009). *The Wisdom of Age: A Handbook for Mentors*. Alexandria: Metlife Foundation.

Schloder, M. E., & McGuire, R. T. (1998). *Coaching Athletes: A Foundation for Success*. LA, USA: LA84 Foundation.

SNB (2014). SNB Transition: The life after professional basketball. Syndicat National de Basketteurs. Paris. France.

VOA (2011). Professional Athletes Prepare for Life After Sports. Voice of America. Available at: <http://www.voanews.com/content/professional-athletes-prepare-for-life-after-sports-118377659/163130.html> (accessed 21 August 2014).

Williams, K. L. (2002, February 28). Mentorship: The Need for a Formal Program. *Strategy Research Project*. Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania, USA: U.S. Army War College.

Williams, K. (2005). *Mentoring the Next Generation of Nonprofit Leaders: A Practical Guide for Managers*. Washington D.C.: AED Center for Leadership Development, Academy for Education Development.

Wooden, J., & Yaeger, D. (2009). *A Gameplan for Life: The Power of Mentoring*. New York, USA: Bloomsbury.

Zerzan, J., Hess, R., Schur, E., Phillips, R., & Rigotti, N. (2009). Making the most of Mentors: A Guide for Mentees. *Academic Medecine*, 84(1), 140-144.

Further Readings

Alred, G., Garvey, B., & Smith, R. (1998). *The Mentoring Pocketbook*. Hants, UK: Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

ANU. (2010). *A Guide to Staff Mentoring at ANU*. Canberra: Australian National University.

Bloom, G. A. (2002). Coaching Demands and Responsibilities of Expert Coaches. In J. M. Silva III, & D. E. Stevens, *Psychological Foundations of Sports* (pp. 438-465). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Carter, A. D., & Bloom, G. A. (2009). Coaching Knowledge and Success: Going Beyond Athletic Experiences. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 32(4), 419-437.

Chambers, F., Luttrell, S., Armour, K., Bleakley, W., Brennan, D., & Herrold, F. (2012). *Effective Mentoring in Physical Education. Teacher Education*. ScoTENS - The Standing Conference on Teacher Education North and South. Armagh: The Center for Cross Border Studies.

DuBois, D., Patrick, S. K., Rhodes, J., Townsend, R., Weinberger, S., & Cohen, J. L. (2005). *How to Build A Successful Mentoring Program Using the Elements of Effective Practice*. Alexandria: Metlife Foundation.

Feldman, D. (1999). Toxic Mentors or Proteges' ? A Critical Re-examination of Dysfunctional Mentoring. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9(3), 247-278.

Fernandes, A. L. (2012). *Vulnerable Youth: Federal Mentoring Programs and Issues*. Congressional Research Service.

FM 6-22. (2006, October 12). Army Leadership. Competent Confident and Agile. Washington, DC, USA: Headquarters, Department of the Army.

Grace, J., Aquilina, H., & Shai, H. (2011). *Good Practices Mentoring for Aboriginal People in Western Australia*. Department of Training and Workforce Development. Perth: Shelby Consulting.

Haire-Joshu, D., Nanney, M. S., Elliott, M., Davey, C., Caito, N., & Loman, D., (2010). The Use of Mentoring Programs to Improve Energy Balance Behaviors in High-risk Children. *Articles Childhood Obesity*, 10(1), 75-83.

Karcher, M., & Herrera, C. (2007). *School-based Mentoring*. Mentor/National Mentoring Partnership. Alexandria: Metlife Foundation.

McMullen, M. A., & Miller, P. M. (2002). *Because you Believe in Me: Mentors and Proteges who Shaped our World*. Kansas, USA: Andrews McMell Publishing.

NESTA. (2009). *A Review of Mentoring Literature and Best Practices*. London, U.K.: NESTA.

Payne, W., Reynolds, M., Brown, S., & Fleming, A. (2003). *Sports Role Models and their Impact on Participation in Physical Activity: A Literature Review*. University of Ballarat, School of Human Movement and Sport Sciences. Ballarat: University of Ballarat.

Piper, H., & Piper, J. (1999). Disaffected' Young People: Problems for Mentoring', *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 7(2), 121-130.

Saiz, S. J., Calvo, A. J., & Godoy, S. I. (2009). Development of Expertise in Spanish Elite Basketball Coaches. (Ricyde, Ed.) *International Journal of Sport Science*, V (17), 19-32.

Wong, A. T., & Premkumar, K. (2007). *An Introduction to Mentoring Principles, Processes and Strategies for Facilitating Mentoring Relationships at a Distance*. Saskatoon, Canada: University of Saskatchewan.