



A Strategy for Social Work- Embracing Positive Change

Coaching and Mentoring in Social Work

A Review of the Evidence

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Foreword

The Health and Social Care Board (HSCB) is responsible for commissioning health and social care services across Northern Ireland. Some services are commissioned directly by the HSCB and some indirectly through Health and Social Care Trust procurement. In 2014 three calls for Reviews of Evidence to support the Health and Social Care Board, Directorate of Social Care and Children were directly commissioned by the HSCB.

These calls for evidence were designed with Improving and Safeguarding Social Wellbeing a 10 year Strategy for Social Work (2012-2022) and the *Draft Social Work Research Strategy (2015-2020)* in mind. The purpose of the research strategy is to increase the quantity and quality of research and evidence, relevant to Northern Ireland, to inform policy, commissioning and practice.

This review of the evidence related to two distinct professional development methods; those of coaching and mentoring. We were interested in identifying which approaches to coaching obtained the best outcomes and which approaches to mentoring obtained the best results and in particular the appropriateness of these approaches for social work.

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This review is available at: [www-----@hscni.net](http://www.hscni.net)

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Abstract

Objective: To review the evidence concerning the application of coaching and mentoring as separate and distinct interventions with social workers and social work organisations with a view to determining the approaches most suitable for use with social workers.

Methods: An initial scoping of the literature was conducted to aid in the clarification of the concepts of 'coaching' and mentoring'. Following this two separate systematic reviews were conducted to explore the use of coaching and mentoring respectively with social workers. Studies relevant to each concept were identified through a systematic search of several databases. Identified studies were included in the Review if they met particular inclusion criteria and were relevant to the research question. Studies were excluded if they did not meet the inclusion criteria or were not relevant to the research question.

Results: Twelve relevant studies were identified for the systematic review of the literature on the use of coaching in social work. Overall the findings suggested that coaching is associated with positive outcomes for social work organisations and practitioners, particularly in the transfer of knowledge to practice and implementation of new innovations. However, the identified research did not explore the impact of coaching social work staff directly on service user outcomes.

Thirty relevant studies were identified for the systematic review of the literature on the use of mentoring in social work. The findings suggested that social workers and those in related professions desire and value mentoring, and that mentoring can have beneficial effects for mentors and organisations. Caveats and facilitators and barriers of mentoring relationships were also described.

Conclusions: The findings suggest that both coaching and mentoring have positive implications for social workers and the organisations within which they work. More research is needed to identify which models of coaching and mentoring are associated with the best outcomes for social workers, social work organisations and service users. Future research should therefore seek to establish this through the use of rigorous study designs.

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Executive Summary

This Review defines and describes coaching and mentoring as distinct professional development methods. The evidence base on using coaching and mentoring approaches with social workers is described and evaluated. Recommendations for the use of coaching and mentoring in social work in Northern Ireland are also made.

Context and Background

Occupational stressors faced by social workers have been linked to high rates of burnout and high staff turnover. In this context coaching and mentoring may have much to offer to social work practitioners, agencies and managers in terms of improving performance, retention and wellbeing.

Methodology

This Review set out to identify:

- Which approaches to Coaching obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for Social Workers?
- Which approaches to Mentoring obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for Social Workers?

These questions were broken down into three components:

- a) Clarify the definitions of the terms “coaching” and “mentoring” so that they are clearly demarcated and therefore applied appropriately.
- b) Determine approaches to mentoring that obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for social workers.
- c) Determine the approaches to coaching that obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for social workers.

Review strategy

Phase one of this Review involved an initial scoping of the relevant literature to aid development of a review protocol. Phase two involved systematically reviewing the literature pertaining to coaching and mentoring in the social work context.

Data synthesis

The research on coaching was qualitatively synthesised under the following emergent themes: social work education, implementation of new practices and supervision. The mentoring research identified was synthesised under the following two over-arching emergent themes with associated subthemes: mentoring outcomes and the mentoring process.

Findings

Coaching

The following definition of coaching developed by Grant (2000) is adopted for the purposes of this Review:

‘a collaborative, solution focused, result orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance, life experiences, self directed learning and the personal growth of the coachee’.

Common to models of coaching is an emphasis on **contracting** the coaching relationship, the **quality** of the relationship between coach and coachee, the need for **reflection on practice** and **assessment** or **evaluation** of progress and changes observed.

Certain factors encourage or discourage individuals from being coached and recent research indicates that level of individual self-acceptance plays an important role in whether people wish to be coached.

A range of coaching approaches are covered in the literature, ranging from general approaches of peer, internal, external and 'leader-as-coach' coaching as well as a number of specific coaching models. The following features are common across a range of coaching models (Ives, 2008):

- a) It is a **systematic** process
- b) Intended for a **non-clinical** population
- c) An **individualised**, tailor-made approach
- d) Aims to encourage coachees to assume **charge** of their life
- e) Based on developing **awareness** and taking **responsibility**
- f) Reliant on skill sets of **listening** and **questioning**, to **challenge** and **support** and raise awareness
- g) A collaborative and egalitarian relationship
- h) A relationship within which the client agrees to be held **accountable**
- i) Designed to access the **inner resourcefulness** of the client.

One final feature is core to the overwhelming majority of coaching models:

- j) Focused on the achievement of a **clear stated goal**.

Coaching Outcomes

The evidence indicates that coaching is associated with positive outcomes for employees, including enhancing work performance. The research tends to focus on provision of coaching as an approach in general, as opposed to evaluating specific models.

Coaching and Social Work

This Review identified 12 studies relevant to the use of coaching in the social work context. The outcomes were organised into three key thematic areas: social work education, implementation of new practices, and social work supervision.

Coaching appears to be effective during the formative education of social workers as it encourages motivation and nurtures skills such as reflection and critical thinking.

Coaching could facilitate the adoption and implementation of new practices for individual social workers and social work organisations. Coaching skills also have a role in the supervision of social workers, and could be a useful intervention for social work supervisors.

Implications for Social Work

The empirical literature on coaching and social work is limited, but results indicate the use of coaching as an intervention with social workers and organisations is associated with some positive practice outcomes. Taken in conjunction with the coaching literature, the evidence base indicates coaching is a beneficial approach to professional development. Further research in the area will help expand the evidence base on the application of coaching with social work professionals, and the impact of this approach to professional development on service users.

Mentoring

The definition offered here as most suitable for social work is that which is used by the NHS Introduction to Mentoring (National Health Service, *Connecting for Health*) which defines mentoring as:

‘...offline help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking’ (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995).

There is general consensus in the literature regarding the common processes integral to mentoring, including:

1. Establishing the **relationship** of trust, respect and confidentiality between mentor and mentee;
2. **Facilitating** the exploration of ambition and goals, as well as clarifying developmental needs;
3. Using a range of **skills** particularly questioning, listening, challenge and support to facilitate the mentee’s thinking and maturation;
4. **Support** to set goals and develop plans, networks, relationships and approaches to achieve these; and

5. Passing on **experience** and **knowledge** to accelerate the mentee's development.

Mentoring is generally conceptualised as a learning process in which helpful, personal, and reciprocal relationships are built and mentees learn and develop through conversations with more experienced mentors. The key purposes of mentoring include career advancement, professional socialisation, and development of social capital and transfer of tacit knowledge.

Mentoring Outcomes

Mentoring has been associated with a range of positive work-related and personal development outcomes in the literature for mentors and mentees. Thirty studies relevant to mentoring in the social work context were identified.

The studies identified point to the outcomes of mentoring for mentors and mentees, as well as factors that facilitate or hinder the mentoring process. A range of positive outcomes were associated with mentoring for mentees, mentors and organisations.

Mentees were generally positive about being mentored. Being mentored was associated with feelings of competence, confidence and job satisfaction.

The mentoring process impacted positively on mentors as well as mentees, but with some indication that mentoring involves emotional investment.

Mentoring appeared to facilitate organisational goals in a number of ways including incentivising recruitment and job retention, developing and transferring tacit and explicit knowledge and encouraging greater management effectiveness.

Process

Factors impacting on the mentoring process and mentor-mentee relationship included characteristics of the mentor, characteristics of the mentee and characteristics of the mentoring relationships.

Characteristics of the Mentor and Mentee

The match of mentor to mentee is important. Mentors can facilitate the mentoring process through how they enact the role of the mentor, but innate characteristics (such as gender or ethnicity) also impact the mentor-mentee relationship.

Mentees must engage proactively with the mentoring process in order for it to be effective. The mentor-mentees relationship is dynamic and a function of the interaction between the particular mentor and mentee.

Implications for Social Work

Mentoring can equip the social work workforce with the confidence, knowledge and skills sets to undertake their role. Taken with the findings from the general mentoring literature, the evidence base indicates that mentoring is a beneficial and desirable professional development intervention. Further research into the application of mentoring in the social work context, interpreted with the research currently available, will help expand the evidence base and further determine the impact and outcomes for social workers and social work practice.

Contrasting Coaching and Mentoring

Coaching and mentoring offer an individualised approach to personal, professional and career development for social work compared to traditional training approaches (see Table 2, page 66 in this Review for a more detailed overview).

Mentoring facilitates individuals to learn from more experienced colleagues who can pass on knowledge, experience and open doors to otherwise inaccessible opportunities.

In contrast, the emphasis in coaching is on the coach's skills in being able to raise the individual's self-awareness so they take responsibility for improving their performance (See Table 3).

Discussion

The empirical research indicates that coaching and mentoring are beneficial interventions for capacity building in social work, and other sectors.

A strength of the evidence is the consistency in positive findings in relation to the use of both coaching and mentoring across a diverse range of applications. In addition, the scoping review of the general literature, alongside the systematic review of the literature in relation to social work, illustrate a consistency in findings from a wide variety of disciplines including the private sector, healthcare, academia, education and occupational therapy.

However, it should be noted that the majority of these studies were cross-sectional in nature, and many used self-report from coaching and mentoring recipients as opposed to the use of standardised measures to assess outcomes such as confidence and self-efficacy.

Coaching and Mentoring across the Career of a Social Worker

Coaching and mentoring are distinct interventions which can be used to build the capacity of social workers, across the career trajectory. The literature provides examples of coaching and mentoring being differentiated and applied for different purposes from the formative professional education stage to preparing for succession at management and executive levels. Coaching is particularly useful for supporting the application of knowledge and skills directly to practice and performance, or in introducing innovation and new working methods. Mentoring is particularly useful for supporting the professional development of social workers from the early professional socialisation through to role transitions at management level.

The benefits of these approaches address many of the issues such as burnout, resilience and staff retention that are impacting on social work today.

Conclusion

The review of the research related to coaching and social workers has highlighted the positive contribution it can make to initial and ongoing professional development of social workers, the implementation of new practices at the practitioner and organisational level, and in the supervision process. The review of the research relating to mentoring has pointed to both the job-related and personal benefits that both mentors and mentees derive from the process, in addition to the benefits of mentoring to organisations in terms of having more confident, productive and satisfied workers.

1. Introduction

1. The promotion and use of coaching as a professional development intervention, outside of the world of sport, has been steadily increasing in the last decade. The prevalent trend in the coaching industry is to offer solutions or to be goal oriented (Stelter, 2009), and has become a popular approach to performance enhancement in the business field especially.

2. The concept of mentoring has a long history with roots in Greek Mythology. However, contemporary interest in the practice of mentoring dates from the late seventies having been instigated by Levinson's study into the career development of men in 1978 (Levinson, 1978), followed by Kram's seminal 1985 publication, "Mentoring at Work", which provided a theoretical foundation for understanding developmental relationships in the workplace (Kram, 1985).

3. From 1985 – 2014 there has been a large body of research into coaching and mentoring crossing disciplines, professions and frontiers (see Allen *et al*, 2004; Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2002; Noe *et al.*, 2002; Ragins, 1999; Wanberg *et al.*, 2003;). Coaching and mentoring are relatively new concepts in social work. However, increasingly they are being recognised as two distinct interventions which afford staff development benefits that more traditional training does not. This Review sets out definitions of coaching and mentoring and identifies from the literature common processes, concepts and approaches as well as providing examples of different models for each intervention.

1.1 Context and Background

4. Increasingly, there is acknowledgement of the fact that social work can be a very rewarding career, but also incredibly demanding and stressful. Social workers respond to the needs of those they work with on a daily basis, and yet they may be less aware or direct less attention to their own professional needs (Research in Practice, 2013). Social workers are often required to work with individuals who are resistant to receiving help.

5. Social workers may even experience violence or aggression in the course of their day to day work (Chiller & Crisp, 2012). This combination of occupational stressors has been linked to the high rates of burnout in social workers (Guy *et al.*, 2008) and high turnover (Russ *et al.*, 2009).

6. A UK study reported that the average length of time a social worker stays in the profession is just eight years, in comparison to 15 years for nurses, and 25 for doctors (Curtis *et al.*, 2010). It is clear there is a need for 'on the job' supports for social workers which not only help them in their professional duties, but help deal with the significant stresses they encounter on a daily basis in their work.

7. A review of 65 studies relating to the research of social worker resilience and burn out (McFadden *et al.*, 2012) showed that engaging in ongoing personal and professional development strategies throughout their career enable social workers to develop positive coping strategies. The review showed that organisational culture, supervisory and peer support and manageable workloads are significant factors in social work retention.

8. These findings are supported by Munro (2011) whose Review of Child Protection Services highlighted the importance of reflective practice and the transfer of knowledge and expertise as critical organisational supports which enable good practice. She makes a contrast between social work and medical training and support:

'...see the front line social worker as akin to a junior doctor, who takes a proactive approach to accessing consultation and ongoing training from more experienced colleagues...thought should be given to providing opportunities for senior practitioners to coach more junior staff' (p. 116)

9. Finally one of the key strategic themes in the Social Work Strategy 2012-2022 for Northern Ireland is 'Strengthening the Capacity of the Workforce' (Department of Health Social Services and Public Safety for Northern Ireland, 2012).

10. This includes specific recommendations relating to improving employer supports for social workers, promoting learning and continuous improvement including peer review, team supervision, coaching and 'bite sized' learning approaches.

11. It is in this context, that coaching and mentoring may have much to offer to social work practitioners, agencies and managers not only in terms of improving performance, but also retention, job satisfaction and resilience. The empirical investigation into the impact of coaching and mentoring in the social work field is relatively less developed than in the business, academic, education and healthcare sectors. However, there have been some interesting developments in the field and this Review synthesizes and discusses the learning emerging from empirical research conducted over the past ten years. To guide and inform the application of coaching and mentoring models and approaches to social work, and draw on the learning from their application in other sectors, this Review also presents the learning on the coaching and mentoring evidence base more generally.

1.2 Structure of the Review

12. This Review systematically collected the evidence concerning the application of coaching and mentoring, as separate and distinct interventions, with social workers and social work organisations. It presents the evidence on the various definitions in the empirical literature and what definitions are most suitable for the social work context, and the models and approaches in use.

13. It puts forward the impacts of these interventions for social workers and social work organisations, including where relevant, line management arrangements, interpersonal outcomes and potential cost-effectiveness. From a practical perspective, challenges to implementation of coaching and mentoring intervention are discussed.

2. Methodology

14. This section outlines the methodology for this systematic review. This Review was conducted with reference to guidance from the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination (2009). This guidance involved clarifying the research question, conducting a systematic and reproducible search of the empirical literature, identifying relevant studies and assessing their quality according to pre-determined criteria.

2.1 Research Question

15. The Terms Mentoring and Coaching can each be considered as describing developmental interactions. They are often used interchangeably or without clear demarcation. This lack of clarity has consequences in their application within Social Work.

16. Which approaches to Coaching obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for Social Workers?

Mentorship is thought to have the potential to play a role in the career development of Social Workers. Which approaches to Mentoring obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for Social Workers?

17. The question being addressed has three main components:

- a) Clarify the definitions of the terms “coaching” and “mentoring” so that they are clearly demarcated and therefore applied appropriately
- b) Determining approaches to mentoring that obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for social workers
- c) Determining the approaches to coaching that obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for social workers.

2.2 Review strategy

18. The Review was composed of two distinct phases. Phase one involved an initial scoping of the literature, of relevance to the research question, to aid development of a review protocol. The initial scoping, which involved a search of titles and abstracts on a number of research databases, indicated the availability of sources. The initial scoping signified that a review of the general coaching and mentoring literature would be required to inform and support the relatively smaller number of empirical studies of these interventions with social workers specifically. Thus phase one involved a scoping of the empirical research literature and also the grey literature which related to coaching and mentoring as interventions, generally. Phase two was systematic in nature and pertained to components (b) and (c) of the research question, i.e. coaching and mentoring approaches to professional development in the social work context.

2.3 Phase 1 of the Review

Search

19. Phase 1 aimed to identify papers which would aid in the clarification of the concepts of 'coaching' and 'mentoring'. To this end a scan of the literature was conducted to identify relevant papers. The following databases were searched to identify relevant peer-reviewed papers published in the English language within the last ten years (from 2003-2014): the Cochrane Library, Campbell Collaboration, Academic Search Complete, British Education Index, CINAHL Plus, Education Full Text, General Science Full text, Health Source, Humanities, Omnifile, Psychology and Behavioural Sciences Collection, Social Sciences Full Text, SocIndex, UK and Ireland Reference Centre and ERIC). A list of keywords were developed by the Review team and used by all three reviewers in the search procedure for phase one (see Appendix A).

20. Following a review of the titles 79 papers dealing specifically with coaching, 61 papers dealing with mentoring and 7 papers which considered both concepts were retained for further investigation. Each member of the research team reviewed the identified papers in one area, the details and main findings of each paper were recorded in a table discussed by the research team.

2.4 Phase 2 of the Review

21. This phase focused on components 'b' and 'c' of the research question, which are concerned with determining the approaches to coaching and mentoring which obtain the best outcomes and are appropriate for social workers. A systematic search was conducted of the following databases to identify relevant literature: the Cochrane Library, Campbell Collaboration, Academic Search Complete, British Education Index, CINAHL Plus, Education Full Text, General Science, Health Source, Humanities, Omnifile, Psychology and Behavioural Sciences Collection, Social Sciences, SocIndex, UK and Ireland Reference Centre, and ERIC. The electronic search was conducted using the following terms in the full text of the articles:

1. [Mentor* OR Mentors OR Mentoring OR Mentored OR Mentee OR Mentees OR Protégé] AND [Social Work* OR Social Worker or Social Workers]
2. [Coach* OR Coaches OR Coaching OR Coached OR Coachee OR Coachees] AND [Social Work* OR Social Workers].

Eligibility Criteria

22. In order to expand the search and capture as many relevant studies as possible, related words to the search terms were applied in each electronic search. To ensure the studies identified were of a specified quality and up-to-date research, the following special limiters were applied to the electronic search; published in peer-reviewed journals; and published in the past 10 years (2003-2014).

23. The studies also had to be in the English language. Studies that reported on coaching and or mentoring and subsequent outcomes for social workers, relevant professionals or their clients were sought.

24. Studies could be: empirical studies that reported on qualitative or quantitative data that applied to social work or related services e.g. juvenile justice; or literature reviews provided they were published in peer reviewed journals and of sufficient quality.

25. Studies were excluded if they: referred to the use of coaching and or mentoring as an intervention with a client group (e.g. individuals coping with addiction, individuals with chronic health conditions); were editorials; book reviews; commentaries; or were not relevant to the practice of social work (e.g. sports coaching).

Data management

26. All references identified from the electronic searches and mining of reference sections of highly relevant papers, were stored in an Excel file on a shared drive which all members of the Review team had access to. In the coaching and social work search, 400 papers were identified, of which 178 were unique after duplicates had been removed. In the mentoring and social work search, 1,325 papers were identified, of which 583 were unique after duplicates had been removed (See Figs. 1 and 2).

Screening

27. The potentially relevant studies sourced through the electronic search were independently screened against the eligibility criteria by two reviewers using the information provided by the electronic databases (authors, year, title and abstract). Studies that appeared to meet the criteria proceeded to the next stage in which full texts were obtained and assessed against the eligibility criteria by two reviewers. Differences in opinion were resolved by discussion. See Figure 1 for a flow chart of the search relating to 'coaching' and Figure 2 for a flow chart of the search relating to 'mentoring'.

Figure 1: PRISMA *Flow chart illustrating the flow of studies through the systematic review of literature relating to coaching*

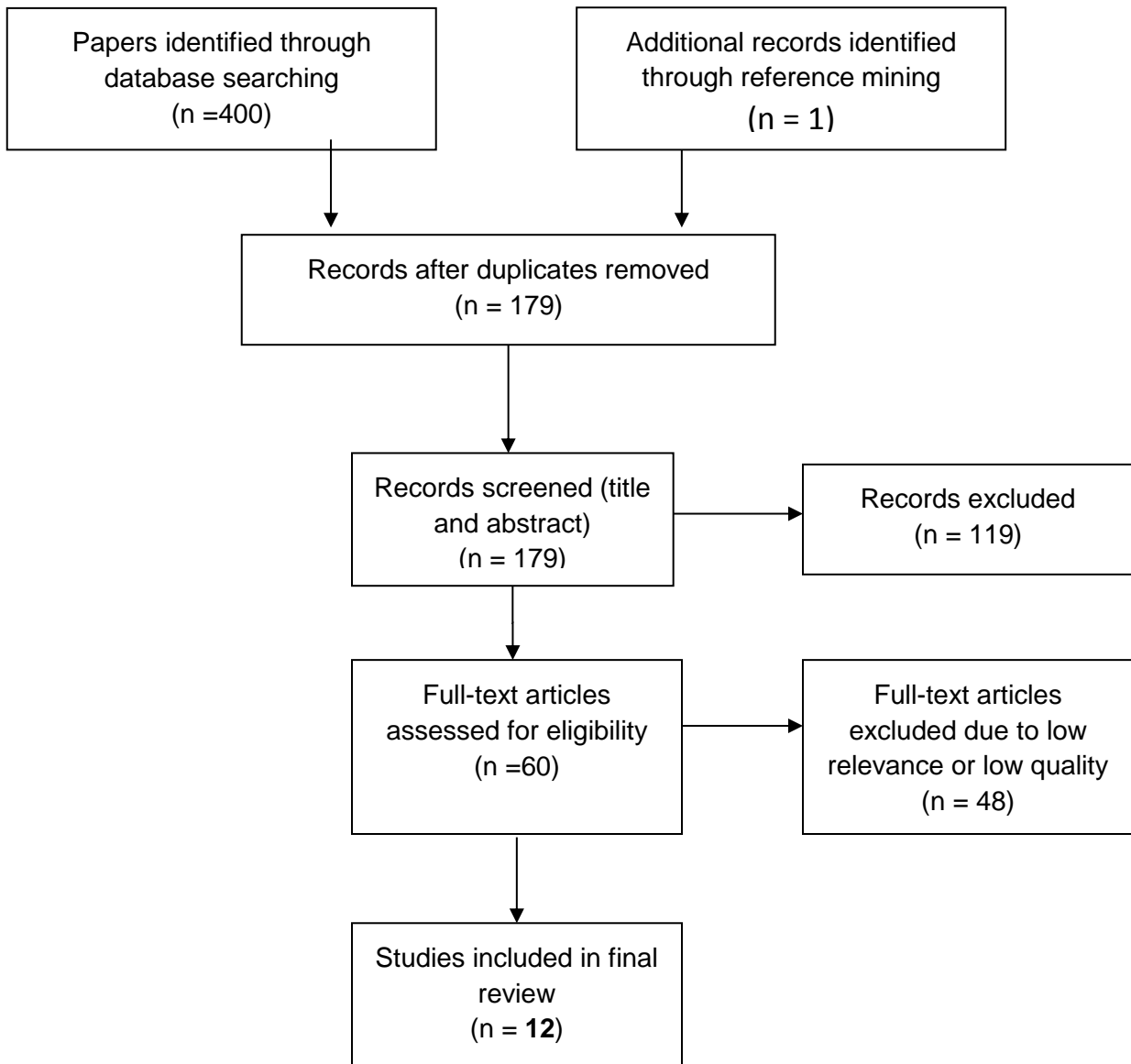
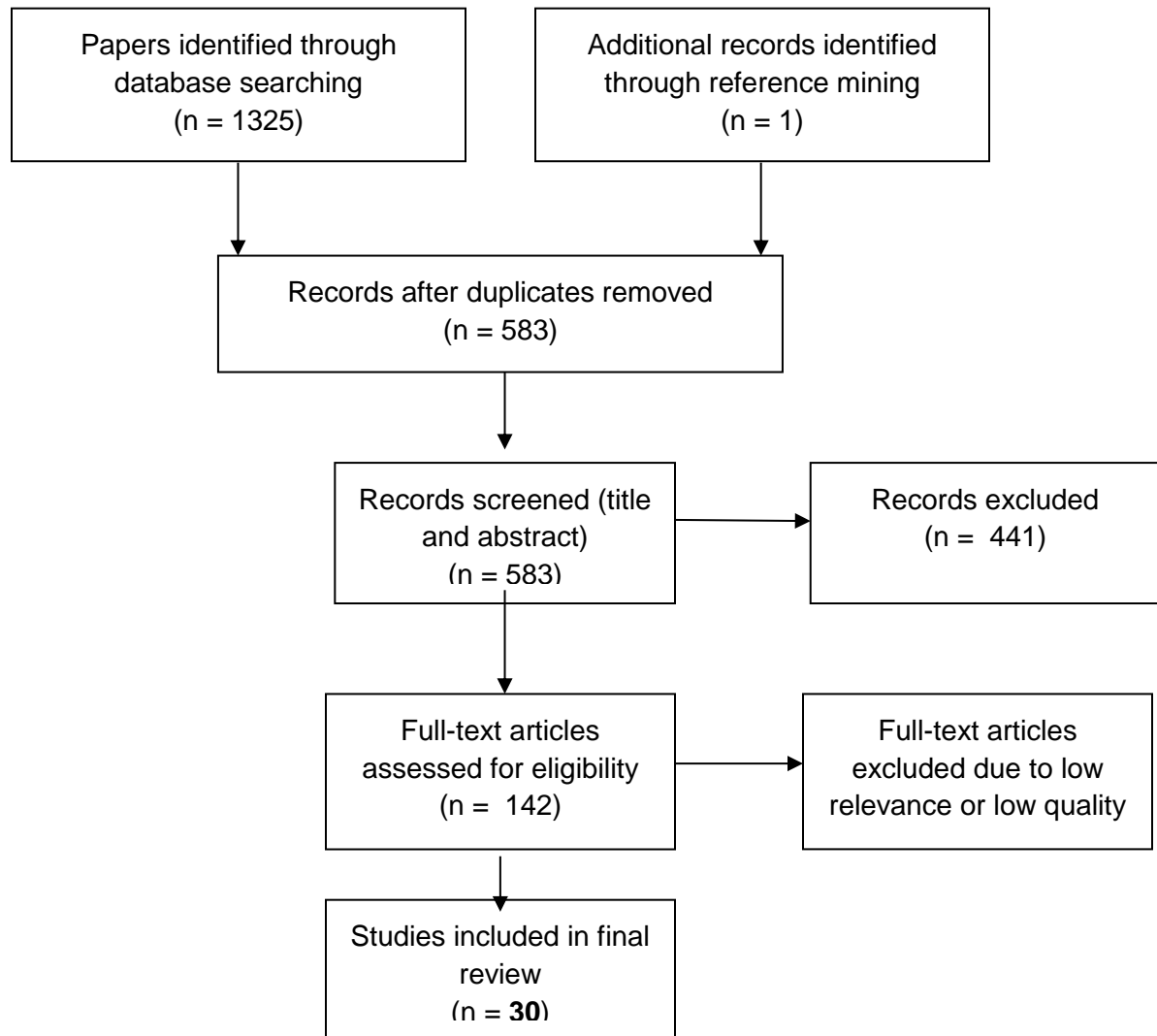


Figure 2: PRISMA *Flow chart illustrating the flow of studies through the systematic review of literature relating to mentoring*



Data Extraction

28. Each paper covered in the Review was read and data were extracted according to a template devised for this Review. This covered information about study participants, the research design and methods of data analysis, a description of the coaching or mentoring intervention, outcomes for social workers and the workplace.

Critical Appraisal

29. The papers included in this Review were independently critically appraised by two members of the Review team using the ‘Weight of Evidence’ approach developed at the EPPI Centre, Institute of Education, University of London (Gough, 2007). Where disagreement in appraisals occurred, these appraisals were reviewed by a third member of the Review team and a consensus reached through discussion. Based on the following criteria each study was weighted as “low”, “medium” or “high” (see Appendix B for scoring sheet):

- ***Trustworthiness.*** This was based on an assessment of methodological quality using standard social science research criteria. The context, sampling, research methods, data analysis and presentation of results were assessed for clarity, accuracy and transparency, in addition to the validity, reliability and generalisability of the research.
- ***Appropriateness of the study design.*** The extent to which an appropriate research design was employed to address the research question was determined.
- ***Topic Relevance to the review question.*** This considered the extent to which the study provided information about the model of coaching and or mentoring and the specific outcomes for coaches and or mentees.

30. Following these steps an overall judgement was made regarding the strength of the evidence provided by each study for answering the research question. This was achieved by calculating an average of the three assessment dimensions above. If a study was not awarded all the same grades an average was awarded, indicated by the use of a hyphen (e.g. Medium-High). The first grade indicates the overall average, with the second grade indicating a qualifying weighting that is either higher or lower. Studies had to be rated as at least Medium-Low quality (overall average) to proceed to the data synthesis stage of the Review.

Data synthesis

31. For the purposes of this Review, findings emerging from the papers included in this Review were qualitatively synthesised and a number of themes emerged. In relation to coaching, the research was synthesised under the following emergent themes: social work education, implementation of new practices and supervision. Given the greater number of studies identified relating to mentoring, there was scope to identify overarching themes and tease out subthemes. The mentoring research identified was synthesised under the following two over-arching emergent themes with associated subthemes: mentoring outcomes (composed of the following subthemes: the desire for and satisfaction with mentoring, outcomes for mentees, outcomes for mentors and organisational outcomes) and the mentoring process (composed of the following subthemes: characteristics of the mentor, characteristics of the mentee and characteristics of the mentor-mentee relationship).

3. Findings

3.1 Coaching

Definitions

32. There are a variety of definitions of coaching presented in the literature, and currently, there appears to be no widespread consensus on an overarching definition for the field. Review of the general coaching literature indicated the following definitions to be the most frequently cited:

Coaching is... 'a helping relationship focused between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who used a variety of behavioural techniques and methods to assist the client to achieve a mutually beneficial set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and consequently to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation within a formally defined coaching agreement' (Kilburg,1996).

'a collaborative and egalitarian relationship between a coach who is not necessarily a domain specific specialist, and a client which involves a systematic process that focuses on collaborative goal setting to construct solutions and employ goal attainment processes with the aim of fostering the ongoing self directed learning and personal growth of the client' (Grant & Stober, 2006).

33. These definitions highlight what are considered to be the key components of coaching: the role of three parties (coachee, their organisation and the coach), goals, methods, techniques used, the coach-coachee relationships and an agreed contract.

34. For the purposes of this Review, the following definition developed by Grant (2000) is adopted as it captures the key elements described in the literature, is relevant to social work practitioners, and has also been endorsed by the Association of Coaching.

'a collaborative, solution focused result orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance, life experiences, self directed learning and the personal growth of the coachee'.

35. The lack of a universally agreed definition of coaching has contributed to the challenge of the study of coaching (Augustijnen *et al.*, 2011). The multiple definitions used reflect the multiplicity of interests in coaching as an intervention and the fact that as a discipline, it draws from a number of fields such as psychology, sports coaching, and business (Lane, 2006).

36. Given the range of definitions it is helpful to look at the process of coaching for greater commonality. The following sections will describe what are considered to be generic processes in coaching and examples of different models and approaches that are used.

Coaching Processes

37. This section discusses the findings from a number of identified empirical studies on coaching to identify generic processes as a basis for a common understanding. Dingman (2004) conducted a doctoral study comparing a series of different coaching processes and identified six generic stages which are part of all published models of coaching:

1. Formal contracting
2. Relationship building
3. Assessment
4. Feedback and reflection
5. Goal setting
6. Implementation and evaluation.

38. Another model proposed by Augustijnen et al (2011) is based on four core themes:

1. Defining formal organisation based objectives between coach coachee and employer
2. Self-reflection
3. Self-awareness
4. Changes in behaviour and personal changes.

Two additional variables on which success depended were highlighted:

1. A relationship of trust between coach and coachee
2. Openness by the coachee to introspection.

39. Common to both of these models is an emphasis on **contracting** the coaching relationship, the **quality** of the relationship between coach and coachee, the need for **reflection on practice** and **assessment or evaluation** of progress and changes observed.

40. These findings are supported by the work of De Haan and Duckworth (2012) who examined the key factors in coaching effectiveness. In this study, how coachees rated their outcomes was found to be significantly¹ related to their perceptions of the relationship with their coach, their own self-efficacy and the range of techniques used by the coach. The quality of the coaching relationship mediated the impact of self-efficacy and range of techniques on coaching outcomes.

41. The results suggest that the coach-coachee relationship is the key factor in determining how clients perceive the outcomes and benefits of coaching.

¹ This term will be used throughout the Review to indicate *statistical* significance

42. A summary of the underlying factors common to all approaches to coaching was developed by Kemp (2008) and is represented in the framework below (see Figure 3). This is based on Kolb’s learning theory of coaching as a generic experiential learning process, where learning is an integrated process with each stage supporting the next. Kemp argues for the examination of the techniques, methods or strategies to be used in coaching as the basis for building an evidence base for coaching practice.

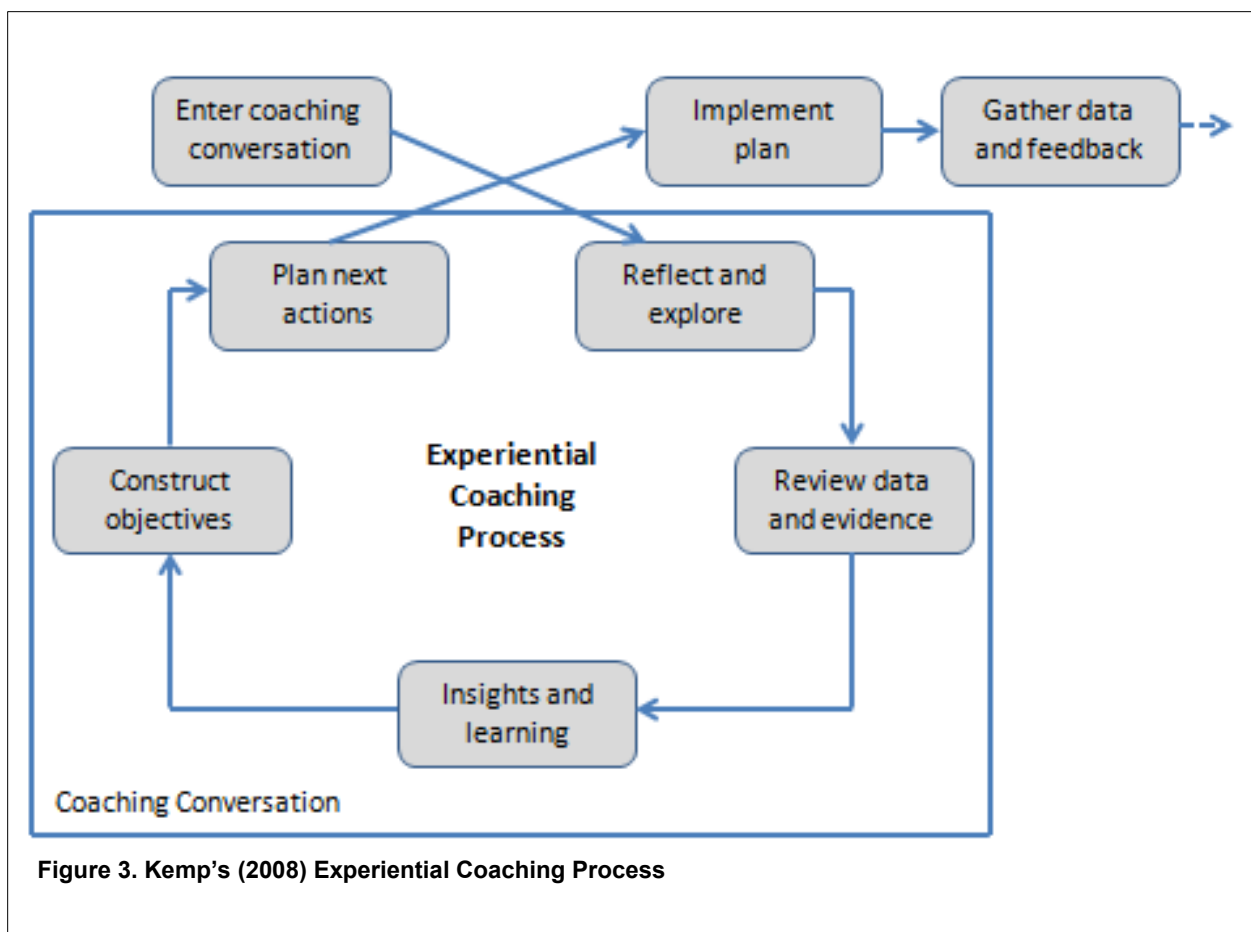


Figure 3. Kemp's (2008) Experiential Coaching Process

43. A review of the range of coaching models and approaches used in the fields of executive, performance and personal coaching between 2000-2010 was conducted by Wang (2013). Wang’s review highlighted seven common elements of effective coaching processes, set out in Table 1 below. Key considerations for each element are provided.

Table 1: Elements of effective coaching practice (Wang, 2013)

Element	Key considerations for the element
Individuals and relationships in coaching	Building trust, communication, commitment, support and collaboration
The coaching cycle and learning process	Understanding coaching as a goal-oriented and person-centred, non-linear learning process
Feedback and evaluation of outcomes	Using multiple methods to assess the effectiveness of coaching
Context, environment and organisational governance	Paying attention to the whole context including governance arrangements
Essential coaching skills and techniques	Developing coaching expertise through a combination of techniques, skills and capacities
Qualities and attitudes of an effective coach	Regarding effective coaching as a dispositional aspect integrating being, thinking and feeling
Ethics in coaching practice	Addressing professionalism, confidentiality, consent and boundary management in coaching contracts

44. Effective coaching practice is likely to address these seven elements. He proposes that that this structure provides rigour, as well as flexibility, allowing coaching practitioners to adapt it to their situation.

45. The structure reflects some of the core ingredients for effective coaching highlighted in other research which is discussed in this section, namely the relationship between the coach and coachee, and the need for reflection and assessment of progress.

Individual Factors and Coaching

46. The factors that encourage or discourage individuals from being coached is crucial, and recent research conducted with public sector management personnel indicates that level of individual self-acceptance plays an important role (Ellam-Dyson & Palmer, 2011). The authors compared a sample of managers in a public sector department who declined to be coached to a sample who agreed. Those who declined had statistically significant lower levels of unconditional self-acceptance.

47. This suggests that those in need of coaching, or those individuals who are highly critical of themselves or their performance, may not seek it out. Indeed they may avoid it. This may have implications for organisations where coaching is implemented for employees on a compulsory basis, and there may be a need to generate buy-in amongst staff for this through staff consultation, and championing the use of coaching as a positive professional development measure in comparison to more traditional training methods.

Coaching Approaches

48. There are a number of coaching approaches covered in the literature, that range from more general approaches of peer, internal, external and 'leader-as-coach' coaching in addition to more specific models. The term model is used to refer to a specific method of coaching based on an underpinning theory. The term approach is used to describe how the coaching was provided, for example using internal or external coaches.

49. While some of the empirical literature covers the implementation and evaluation of specific coaching models, generally, it focuses on the coaching approaches, as outlined below:

- **Peer coaching:** Peer coaching is carried out by colleagues, where support and knowledge is exchanged between the two parties, or a number of peers in what is referred to in the literature as a 'community of coaching practice' (Shams, 2013). It has become increasingly popular as a professional development tool in the business environment (Parker *et al.*, 2013). Peer coaching models are also used increasingly in education, between both students and teachers. Jewett and MacPhee (2012) describe the experiences of a group of teachers who used a collaborative peer coaching model to create 'two-way learning opportunities ... in which knowledge was co-constructed as they engaged in jointly negotiated activities'. Teachers reported feeling more confident in their role, more supported, and valued the opportunities for collaborative learning. Similarly, a qualitative study of Reciprocal Peer Coaching, where students coach each other in turns, was found to improve self-regulation in university students (Ashgar, 2010).

However, it has been highlighted that there are risks associated with a peer coaching approach which must be taken into account (Parker *et al.*, 2013). Differences in mindsets, values, skill sets as well as broader issues such as the organisational context and clarity of purpose can negatively impact on the efficacy of a peer-coaching intervention in an organisation.

- **Internal coaching:** Whybrow and Lancaster (2012) reviewed coaching in the 3rd sector and found that some organisations have an internal pool of coaches to support learning and performance development across the organisation. Large organisations including the National Health Service (NHS) in England and Wales, and the Co-operation And Working Together CAWT partnership in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, have put in place internal coaching systems that consist of developing a trained pool of internal coaches who can provide a coaching service to employees.

In the example of CAWT, a pool of 75 internal coaches undertook a 10-day coach training programme and are being supported to achieve credentialing with the International Coach Federation (2013). This is part of the wider CAWT Connect Coaching and Mentoring service which is available to staff in the four partner organisations: the Western and Southern Health and Social Care Trusts in Northern Ireland and the Health Service Executive West and Dublin North East regions in the Republic of Ireland. This initiative won the Irish Training and Development Institute Award for Excellence in 2014. The programme is in the process of being formally evaluated. These types of internal coaching systems have governance arrangements that are usually managed by the Human Resource departments.

- **“Leader as coach” programmes:** There is a growing body of research in the area of ‘leader as coach’ or coaching as a part of management practice (De Haan & Duckworth, 2012). Some studies have involved managers trained in coaching, and some with untrained managers. These training programmes tend to focus on developing coaching skills in line managers and integrating coaching principles into ‘the way we do things around here’. The Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) Coaching Survey (2011) shows that 50% of coaching is carried out by line managers through day to day supervision, appraisal, and ‘on the job development’.

This indicates that coaching skills are seen as a necessary part of the line manager 'toolkit' and necessary to build a performance culture in organisations. Evidence shows that line managers have a significant impact on employee engagement which can be enhanced by a 'coaching style' of leadership (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009).

- **External coaching:** Similar to other sectors, Whybrow and Lancaster (2012) found that external coaching is more likely to be offered at the senior and or executive levels in organisations. The CIPD Coaching Climate Survey (2011) showed that external coaches are used generally for senior and executive managers. The selection of external coaches includes the use of formal methods such as tendering (19%) and assessment centres (4%) to test for coaching competences. The majority of organisations (53%) use ad hoc engagement of coaches on a consultancy basis.

50. While executive coaching is becoming an important developmental practice in organisations, there has been relatively little serious consideration of the complex ethical issues that arise for individuals and their organisations. Issues such as confidentiality questions, potential and actual conflicts of interest, questions about professional standards, success measurement issues, and financial matters may arise in these sessions without sufficient corporate clarity about how they may be handled (Hannafey and Vitulano, 2013).

51. The CIPD (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development) Guide to Coaching (2009) provides a helpful summary of the different foci or objectives or the various coaching approaches:

- a) **Performance** coaching: enhancing an individual's performance in their current work role
- b) **Executive** coaching: usually externally provided to senior managers and executives to improve their performance

- c) **Skills** coaching: achieving a number of skill development objectives linked to the organisation's needs
- d) **Career** coaching: focussed on individual's capabilities and exploring career options
- e) **Personal or life** coaching: individual agenda about personal aspiration and how these may be achieved
- f) **Business** coaching: coaching that takes place in a business setting.

52. Team coaching is becoming a more popular approach. It is defined as a 'direct interaction with a team intended to help members make coordinated and task-appropriate use of their collective resources in accomplishing the teams work' (Hackman & Wageman, 2005).

53. The Whybrow and Lancaster study (2012) is corroborated by the findings of the CIPD surveys (2009, 2011) on how coaching is provided in organisations. This ranges from **ad hoc coaching** which is driven by individual requests, **managed coaching** which is driven by a champion or sponsor, **proactive coaching** which is driven by business needs, and lastly **strategic coaching** which is driven by the organisational human resource talent strategy.

54. A wide range of models are used in coaching. A selection reviewed by Wang (2013) includes (all references below as cited in Wang, 2013):

- ACHIVE model (Dembkowski & Eldridge, 2003)
- LASER model (Lee, 2003)
- POSITIVE model (Libri, 2004)
- ABCDE cognitive model (Ellis *et al.*, 1997)
- SPACE model (Edgerton & Palmer, 2005)
- Appreciative Enquiry (Liston-Smith, 2008)
- Integrative Model (Passmore, 2007)
- Non-Violent Communication (NVC) (Cox & Dannahy, 2005)
- Psychodynamic Model (Kilburg, 1996, 1997; Ward, 2008)

- Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) Model (O'Conner & Seymour, 1993; Linder-Pelz & Hall, 2007)
- Renewal Model (Newell & Turner, 2008)
- Scientist-Practitioner Model (Corrie & Lane, 2009)
- 360 Degree Feedback (McDowall & Kurz, 2008).

55. Other examples of models from this literature review include goal (outcomes) focused coaching (Grimbley, 2012), CRAIC - Control, Responsibility, Awareness, Impetus and Confidence (O'Donovan, 2009), rational coaching and the PRACTICE model (Palmer, 2008), Motivational Interviewing (Passmore, 2011), Co-Active coaching (Tofade, 2010) and the GROW model (Whitmore, 2009).

56. In conclusion, while the choice of coaching model may vary depending on the training, theoretical preference and experience of the coach, the following features are common to the full range of coaching approaches (Ives, 2008):

- a) A **systematic process** designed to facilitate development (change), whether cognitive, emotional or behavioural
- b) Intended for a **non-clinical population** i.e. individuals not in need of a therapeutic intervention
- c) An individualised, tailor-made approach
- d) Aims to encourage coachees to assume **charge** of their life
- e) Based on the twin growth areas of developing **awareness** and taking **responsibility**
- f) Reliant on twin skill sets of **listening** and **questioning**, to provide **challenge** and **support** and raise awareness
- g) Involve a **collaborative** and **egalitarian** relationship based on an **agreed contract**, rather than one based on authority
- h) Creates a relationship within which the client agrees to be held **accountable** for the choices she or he makes
- i) Designed to access the **inner resourcefulness** of the client, and built on her or his wealth of knowledge, experience and intuition

One final feature is core to the overwhelming majority of approaches:

- j) Focused on the achievement of a **clear stated goal**, rather than problem analysis.

Coaching Outcomes

57. There are numerous studies, across a variety of sectors, using a range of methodologies which show the positive outcomes of coaching for individuals. While the volume of rigorous experimental studies is smaller in comparison to other related fields in psychology for example, the collective findings emerging from the expanding evidence base indicate that coaching is associated with positive outcomes for employees. However, it should be stressed that effect sizes, where reported, tend to be small. In addition, the research tends to focus on provision of coaching as a professional development intervention in general, as opposed to evaluating specific models.

58. A quasi-experimental study of executive coaching which involved a sample of over 1,202 senior managers in one multi-national organisation reported that managers who were coached were more likely than other managers to set goals, look for ideas for improvement from senior colleagues, and obtained higher performance ratings from peers and superiors (Smither *et al.*, 2003). Another similar study of management coaching of 408 full time working adults across a number of sectors reported that selective coaching is positively related to job performance, commitment to service quality, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ellinger *et al.*, 2011).

59. An experimental study in a public health setting involved providing staff with a leadership workshop, and four individual coaching sessions provided by external coaches. Results indicated that, compared to the control group, coaching enhanced goal attainment, increased resilience and workplace wellbeing and reduced depression and stress (Grant *et al.*, 2009).

60. Another experimental study reported that coaching provided for community development staff had a positive impact on the implementation and fidelity of a community based interventions (Quinby *et al.*, 2008).

61. The importance of coaching in consolidating learning and implementation of new skills can be seen in the frequently cited meta-analysis of nearly 200 studies by Joyce and Showers (2002), in which they synthesised years of systematic research on training teachers in public schools in the USA. The authors report that that provision of coaching to teachers, after an initial training in new classroom skills, significantly improves implementation. Training alone did not result in teachers demonstrating the new skills learned in the classroom (0%), feedback and training was slightly better (5%), however when coaching was provided in the classroom after training, 95% of teachers demonstrated the new skills in the classroom.

62. As coaching is inherently client and target focused, much of the research focuses on client perceptions and outcomes, as opposed to organisational outcomes. For example a qualitative study on the experience of being coached with 5 health professionals working with quality improvement in a hospital reported that, from the perspective of the participants, the coaching process improved their work attitude and was effective in enhancing self insight, core performance and positive feelings (Ammemtorp *et al.*, 2013). The experimental study based in a public health setting, as cited above, also investigated client perceptions, and staff reported that coaching helped increase their self confidence, build management skills, and deal with organisational change (Grant *et al.*, 2009).

63. One study that did assess the efficacy of two types of academic coaching was a study by Franklin and Franklin (2012). The study evaluated academic performance 12 and 18 months after coaching. Fifty-two participants were randomly assigned to one of two coaching interventions. Their academic results were compared to a control group of over two thousand students who were not coached. Participants completed self-report pre- and post-measures of academic self-efficacy, decisional balance, resilience, hope, self-compassion and belief in the incremental theory of change. Participants in both coaching conditions reported significant improvements in self-efficacy and resilience and better academic performance than control group participants at 12 and 18 month follow-up.

64. The small number of experimental, randomised trials on coaching may reflect the difficulties in implementing this research design in a work environment where it could be viewed as a disbenefit for staff that are not allocated to receive the coaching intervention (Chartered Institute of Personnel Development, 2012).

65. With the increase in the demand and practice of coaching more evidence is needed to clarify what defines coaching as a professional development intervention, the technical skills required to coach effectively and the methods that are most effective and the conditions necessary for success.

66. However, the emerging trends in the literature support the use of coaching as an intervention to enhance performance.

Coaching and Social Work

67. It has been argued in the literature that coaching is a 'natural fit' for social workers, both as a tool for professional development and as a strategy for social workers to use themselves, as there are similarities between coaching and the actual work social workers engage in with clients and families. Both coaching and social work involve helping processes that focus on self-understanding and self-discipline to effect behavioural, emotional and attitudinal change (Caspi, 2005).

68. This Review identified 12 studies which refer to coaching and social work from the ten year period applied to this Review (see Appendix C). Five studies were from the USA, two from Canada, one from South Africa, one from a number of countries in Europe as part of an e-learning initiative, two from the UK, and one from Germany. The methodology applied across the studies varied; one study adopted a rigorous experimental design, six were literature reviews which were relevant to social work, four studies adopted a mixed methods design, and one study was qualitative in nature, i.e. interviews. In addition, the populations covered in the identified studies varied from social workers, social work educators, social work supervisors, youth workers, and juvenile justice caseworkers.

69. All of the empirical studies which engaged social workers directly concerned social work with children and families. The emphasis in this Review was on empirical studies or literature reviews in peer reviewed journals which related to coaching being used as an intervention with staff as a capacity building or professional development measure. No study was identified which reported on the impact on service users as a result of coaching social workers.

70. The extant literature does not allow for the analysis of any of the particular coaching models discussed in the Review of the general coaching literature, as the empirical studies referred to coaching as an intervention in general.

Outcomes

71. From the small number of studies identified, the outcomes can be organised into three key thematic areas: social work education, implementation of new practices, and social work supervision.

Social Work Education

72. A small number of empirical studies have looked at the role of coaching in social work education. A study by Larsen et al (2008) investigated the outcomes and experiences of instructors in an international online social work education project called 'the Virtual Classroom for Social Work in

Europe' or VIRCLASS. Instructors indicated that there were four crucial skills required to create an effective learning environment for social workers, namely supervision and coaching, facilitation, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills and collaboration with other instructors. Feedback highlighted that supervision and coaching competencies were helpful in encouraging engagement from students, reflection on learning and empowerment.

73. A literature review also highlighted the important role coaching could play in the formative education of social workers and their supervision, and how coaching in supervision methods is rapidly growing in popularity in education, management and nursing (Perrault & Coleman, 2004). The authors discuss three components of coaching which relate to educational supervision: relationship building, motivation, and reflection.

74. It is suggested, with references to the supervision and coaching literature, that coaching allows for the development of a 'learning partnership' with the student social worker that is less hierarchal and encourages a trustful, egalitarian relationship. The motivating features of coaching are also outlined, as coaching requires the student to take responsibility for their learning and goals. It is argued that it encourages, in the formative stages of one's career, a propensity for reflection and critical thinking. It must be noted however that this article, while in a peer-reviewed journal, was not an evaluation of coaching with social work students, and the points highlighted must therefore be interpreted with caution.

Implementation of new practices

75. Two studies analysed the role of coaching in improving the capacity of social work organisations to adopt and implement new practices. One study investigated the use of coaching to build capacity in evidence-based practice in screening, assessment, and case planning practices for juvenile justice case workers. The study used a randomised design, albeit with a small sample, and reported that external coaching improved organisational readiness to adopt new practices, and was more effective than traditional management directives (Taxman *et al.*, 2014). The authors also argue coaching is a low-cost method of preparing an organisation to use evidence-based practices because it embeds knowledge transfer into practice more effectively than traditional training methods. However actual cost data of implementing coaching is not presented (Taxman *et al.*, 2014).

76. Similar findings were reported in a study where staff and management in a child welfare agency received external coaching in the implementation of a new practice model. Results indicated that implementation was successful, with high levels of buy-in among management and slightly less among staff. Occupational stress was reported as an influence on the lower levels of buy-in amongst staff (McCrae *et al.*, 2014). This finding has potential implications for the implementation of coaching in the social work context. It highlights that attention must be paid to staff workloads and that participation in coaching is accounted for by management, in terms of staff capacity, time and current workloads.

77. Another two studies have addressed the impact of coaching on individual social workers and youth workers, and how coaching can help support the transfer of knowledge into practice. A study of social workers in child welfare, which focused on the use of Motivational Interviewing (MI) in conducting family assessments, reported that training in MI was not enough. Qualitative data indicated that ongoing coaching was seen as central in order to transfer MI skills into practice (Snyder *et al.*, 2012). Participants reported that coaching provided more opportunities for practice, modelling and feedback of their skills in using MI.

78. The use of one-to-one coaching with youth workers, over a six-month period, indicated improvements in integrating youth development and resilience perspectives into their practice (Fischer *et al.*, 2011). Analysis of survey data showed improvements in leadership skills and confidence, applications of the resiliency concept into practice, and growth as a professional. The majority of respondents rated coaching as very helpful in their work.

Supervision

79. The implicit meaning of supervision is to oversee others and their work, and is an integral part of social work practice. Recently social work supervision has been described as having four key elements: Reviewing the effectiveness of decision making and interventions; ensuring management and organisational accountability; caseload and workload management; and identifying personal or career development opportunities (Croisdale-Appleby, 2014).

80. The literature on coaching and supervision is mainly discursive, drawing on literature from coaching and supervision separately as opposed to empirical investigation into the use of coaching in the supervision process. This section will present some of the main discussions in the literature.

81. It has been argued that coaching and mentoring are both already components of supervision in social work (Engelbrecht, 2012), and are a valuable skill for social work supervisors to have and implement (Perrault and Coleman, 2004), particularly in coaching to deal and document difficult or traumatic cases such as incidences of family violence (McBride, 2010). Indeed it has been argued that coaches themselves should receive supervision, not only from a wellbeing perspective but for quality assurance (Moyes, 2009). Professional coaching organisations such as the International Coach Federation recommend coach supervision as important to ethical practice.

82. Conversely, it has been contended in one literature review that coaching and supervision serve different purposes – Busse (2009) in his review of the history of supervision in social work, asserts that ‘coaching means – making fit, Supervision means – giving food for thought’ (p. 164). Coaching is described as more action and goal focused, whereas supervision is more reflective and focused on guiding practice (Busse, 2009).

83. A consultation project carried out with Strand and Badger (2007) highlighted the impact of working environment on the social work supervisor, and the need for ongoing support from upper management for supervisors themselves. While not explicitly recommended by the authors, this tentatively suggests the merit in providing coaching for supervisors themselves to help them navigate and cope with their role. This has also been argued by Harlow (2013), who highlights the need to support Front Line Managers in their supervisory role and that coaching is being used in this manner in some Local Authorities in England. This is in its early days and future evaluation will illustrate the impact.

84. It has also been highlighted that coaching within social work supervision has some challenges as opposed to coaching in the business space. Traditionally, coaching encourages the coachee to take responsibility for their performance. However, in the context of social work supervision, the supervisor is responsible for the quality of service, thus the coaching relationship is necessarily more hierarchical than would be typical of coaching in the business domain (Perrault & Coleman, 2004).

Implications for Social Work

85. This Review of the research has identified a small number of studies which show the provision of coaching is associated with positive outcomes for social work organisations and practitioners, namely in the transfer of knowledge to practice and implementation of new innovations. However, it has not yet been demonstrated that coaching social workers directly affects service user outcomes. While coaching is being implemented in social work settings in Northern Ireland and is still to be evaluated, experience from other disciplines and sectors suggest there are benefits where it is used appropriately.

86. The evidence, outlined at the beginning of this Review, suggests that coaching is associated with increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover for employees generally. This has direct implications for social workers who report significantly high levels of occupational stress, turnover and burnout (Curtis *et al.*, 2010). It has been argued in the literature that social work employers have an obligation to provide the necessary supports to help them in their role. Carpenter et al (2012) argue that the emotionally charged nature of social work places particular kinds of demands on people working in the field which should to be contained by the organisation.

87. It has been suggested in the literature that an instructional style coaching, is more suited to the education of student social workers (Engelbrecht, 2012). Nevertheless, since no studies were identified which compared the relative effectiveness of coaching for newly qualified versus more experienced social workers, a definitive recommendation does not emerge from the research available as to the career stage at which coaching would be most beneficial. However, evidence-informed conclusions can be drawn from the extant literature which suggests coaching can be a valuable approach to professional development across the career span of a social worker, from student to manager.

88. There are a number of caveats to the coaching and social work research which should be kept in mind in interpreting the findings presented in this Review. Firstly, the identified studies had small sample sizes and were mainly correlational in nature, meaning causality cannot be inferred. Also, just under half of the studies in this Review were from the US based in child welfare services, limiting generalisability. Educational requirements for social workers in the US are variable not only by state but also region. Some social workers in this context may not have formal social work qualifications and training, and coaching interventions may focus on training and skills that social workers in Northern Ireland would already have (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012).

89. In terms of making recommendations for social work from the general coaching literature, it would appear that the focus should be what the evidence tells us are successful ingredients to coaching practice as opposed to specific models. For example, De Haan et al (2011) examined how various coaching interventions made a difference to executive clients. Results indicated that there was no difference based on the specific coaching model used in the interventions, and effectiveness is more related to components of coaching such as the relationship, empathic understanding, etc.

90. The empirical literature on coaching and social work is limited, but results indicate the use of coaching as an intervention with social workers and organisations is associated with some positive practice outcomes. When these findings are taken in conjunction with the results observed in the general coaching literature, the evidence base indicates coaching is a beneficial professional development intervention for a range of disciplines. However, more research is needed in social work settings with larger samples and more rigorous methodological approaches to present, with more certainty, the impact of coaching for social workers and their clients.

3.2 Mentoring

91. As with coaching, a universally agreed definition of mentoring has yet to materialise. Indeed Mertz (2004) cites Healy's (1997) indictment that the term mentoring is used 'acontextually and inconsistently'. However, there are commonalities which tend to cut across all approaches to mentoring. Specifically, mentoring is seen to involve two parties (a mentor and a mentee or protégé), a relationship (formal or informal), and the transfer of skills, knowledge and attitude with the objective of development and growth of the mentee (and invariably the mentor) (Bilesamni, 2011).

92. Commonly used definitions of mentoring are provided below:

'A high-ranking, influential member of your organization who has advanced experience and knowledge and who is committed to providing upward mobility and support to your career' (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990 p. 321).

'a voluntary, intense, committed, extended, dynamic, interactive, supportive, trusting relationship between two people in which one is experienced and the other a newcomer, which is characterised by mutuality' (Hayes, 1998).

'a trusted and experienced supervisor or advisor who by mutual consent takes an active interest in the development and education of a less experienced individual' (Crosby, 1999).

93. The definition, which is offered as most suitable for social work, is that which is used by the NHS Introduction to Mentoring (NHS, Connecting for Health 2009) which defines mentoring as

'...offline help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking' (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995).

94. Across the literature mentoring is seen to combine a range of activities: guiding, teaching, advising, protecting, sponsoring, supporting, and passing on knowledge and experience with the aim of accelerating the development of a less experienced individual. Most commonly, the mentoring role is undertaken by someone in a position of authority in a professional context (Chao *et al.*, 1992; Fagenson, 1989). The activities involved in mentoring are summed up in a mnemonic devised by Taherian and Shekarchian (2008) following a study carried out into the use of mentoring in medicine:

- **Motivate**
- **Empower and Encourage**
- **Nurture self-confidence**
- **Teach by example**
- **Offer wise counsel**
- **Raise the performance bar.**

Mentoring Processes

95. While an agreed upon definition of mentoring remains elusive, there does appear to be general consensus in the literature regarding the common processes that are integral to mentoring (Ragins and Kram 2008, Bilesanmi 2011, Harrington 2011, Cooper & Wheeler, 2010). This throws light on what is generic and distinctive about mentoring, including:

1. Establishing the **relationship** of trust, respect and confidentiality between mentor and mentee
2. **Facilitating** the exploration of ambition and goals, as well as clarifying developmental needs
3. Using a range of **skills** particularly questioning, listening, challenge and support to facilitate the mentee's thinking and maturation
4. **Support** to set goals and develop plans, networks, relationships and approaches to achieve these
5. Passing on **experience** and **knowledge** to accelerate the mentee's development.

96. Other studies (Cooper & Wheeler 2010, Biliesnami 2011) describe common phases in the mentoring relationship as set out below:

1. Determining the **purpose** of the mentoring e.g. what is the mentee seeking from the mentor
2. **Agreeing** how to work together, including determining practical logistics and defining the 'ground rules' for the relationship
3. **Goal setting**, exploring the mentee's ambitions and aspirations
4. **Assessment** of needs and planning strategies for achieving goals
5. Evaluation of **impact**, review of the learning and integrating emerging knowledge and new insights
6. **Completion** of the relationship and closure.

97. As with any developmental relationship, these steps may not always be sequentially followed depending on the nature of the mentoring relationship (formal or informal), the impact of external developments and opportunities, and the duration of the relationship – time limited or open ended.

98. Mentors may be matched to mentors in a formal agreement or they may be matched in a more informal, or organic way (Ragins & Kram, 2007) for example when an individual seeks out and engages a mentor independently of a formal scheme. Following this matching, the relationship may follow the phases described above and move through four main time frame phases:

1. **Initiation:** the relationship building, exploration of goals and needs in regard to psychosocial or career advancement, contracting
2. **Cultivation:** progress and development of the mentees in having their psychosocial and or career advancement goals and needs
3. **Separation:** ending or termination due to either party's changed situation or the mentee having outgrown the relationship.
4. **Redefinition:** the relationship is redefined for example into friendship or peer support particularly if the psychosocial aspect of the relationship has been strong.

99. There are many examples of formal mentoring schemes in which there are processes through which mentees request a mentor and are matched with a pool of internal and sometimes external mentors. Characteristically, such approaches involve formal training of the mentor and mentee as well as formal objectives, programme activities and organisational tracking of impact.

100. For example, there are formal mentoring schemes in the NHS England with established networks in the East Midlands, London, the North West, Yorkshire and Humber. The NHS *Connecting for Health* has developed a mentoring toolkit to support the growth of mentoring in the NHS Informatics function.

101. The College of Social Work in England has introduced a mentoring scheme for its members. Mentors are recruited and provided with training, [Institute of Leadership and Management](#) (ILM) accreditation, and ongoing support throughout the mentoring process. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) certificates are issued following all its training and mentoring activity.

102. The cross border CAWT *Connect Mentoring* programme was set up in 2013 and consists of a panel of 25 senior managers who have undergone mentor training and whose assistance can be requested online using the website [hseand.ie](#). A governance system has been designed and put in place to set out to support the overall operation of the service and ensure it adheres to quality standards, with relevant standard information templates as well as performance reporting so that the scheme can be evaluated in the future.

103. While organisational mentoring schemes such as the examples above formally match mentors and mentees, in many instances mentees seek out a mentor informally and approach someone whom they believe has the experience and characteristics they require.

104. The informal and sometimes implicit nature of many mentoring relationships poses a challenge for evaluation, not only in terms of identifying outcomes, but the impact of duration. It is possible that some informal mentoring relationships continue for a long period of time.

Mentoring Models and Approaches

105. This section gives examples from the literature of the different types of mentoring models and approaches which are used.

106. Mentoring is generally conceptualised as a learning process in which helpful, personal, and reciprocal relationships are built. Within such relationships mentees learn and develop through conversations with more experienced mentors who share their knowledge, experiences and skills. Mentees then incorporate this learning into their approach to their work.

107. Three models have been put forward to aid in the conceptualization of role of the mentor:

- The **apprentice model** conceives of the mentee as learning from the mentor through observation.
- Under the **competency model** mentors give mentees systematic feedback about performance and progress.
- Within the **reflective model** the mentor helps the mentee to become a more reflective practitioner.

108. The Institute for Clinical Research Education at the University of Pittsburgh (<https://www.icre.pitt.edu/mentoring/models.html>) categorises models of mentoring according to the nature of the mentoring relationship:

- In **one-on-one mentoring** one mentor interacts with one mentee. The process is individualised and personal and is conducive to developing a close relationship. However, the model may not address the needs of the mentee if the mentor is not experienced in the mentee's areas of interest.

- **Team mentoring** applies when a mentee has multiple mentors who meet jointly to provide mentorship. Under this model, mentors can identify new colleagues with whom to collaborate, mentees can access different points of view and can negotiate issues regarding conflicting advice or demands without feeling pulled in different directions.
- A mentee can have **multiple mentors**, and the mentors meet individually with the mentee. This approach gives ready access to multiple mentors and can be a rich source of advice and guidance for a mentee on complex issues.
- **Peer mentoring** involves mentoring by colleagues who are at a similar point in their career or are maybe a year or two ahead of the mentee. The peer mentoring model tends to be less formal and therefore potentially less inhibiting than other mentoring models. There are positive examples of peer mentoring as an approach: (Bryant and Teeborg 2008, Hu *et al.*, 2008) with groups such as junior doctors, nurses, and educators and outcomes show increased productivity, enthusiasm and leadership.
- **Distance mentoring** encompasses mentoring via e-mail, supplemented by telephone calls and occasional visits. This approach can be highly effective for mentees with mentors at different locations. This can broaden networking possibilities and increase contacts with others in the field. For example, Stewart and Carpenter (2009) conducted an action research investigation into an e-mentoring approach for physical therapists working in isolated rural areas. Their key findings related to the effectiveness of e-mentoring as a means of overcoming professional isolation and improving staff retention.

109. Other examples are where mentoring was incorporated into formal leadership or professional training and show similar benefits. Melnyk (2007) completed a number of well-designed studies in the health sphere with nurses, occupational therapists and doctors. Results indicated benefits such as career advancement, self-confidence, productivity, resilience, staff retention and integration of evidence into practice. This study highlighted that the lack of a mentor was seen as a barrier to career progression and the importance of mentors for minority groups e.g. defined by different gender or ethnicity.

110. Thorndyke et al (2008) present the learning from a **functional mentoring** programme for continuing medical education. Functional mentoring is where the mentor is chosen because they possess specific skills and knowledge required by the mentors for the completion of a specific project. The evaluation of effectiveness involved an 18 month follow up and a longitudinal tracking of career progression for up to 5 years following the programme. High levels of satisfaction (90%) were reported for both mentors and mentees, who saw the results of their project as having both career benefits for them as individuals as well as organisational benefits for their institution.

111. A study into the use of mentoring in the information technology sector highlighted its important role in knowledge transfer and its importance in knowledge intensive industries where there is a premium on technical competence and job related knowledge (Bryant & Terborg, 2008). The use of peer mentoring demonstrated benefits in:

- Creating knowledge from experience and practice
- Sharing knowledge
- Exploiting knowledge to increase productivity and performance.

112. The framework below is adapted from work by Mertz (2004) who developed a conceptual model which distinguished mentoring using the existing roles and functions available in the current literature. The framework is a pyramid to reflect the different purposes of the mentoring relationship as it moves from the base to the apex. The framework categorises three types of purpose which are all associated with mentoring as forms of support: psychosocial development, professional development and career advancement. These can be linked to the stage of development of the mentee i.e. formative practitioner, experienced practitioner and then management.

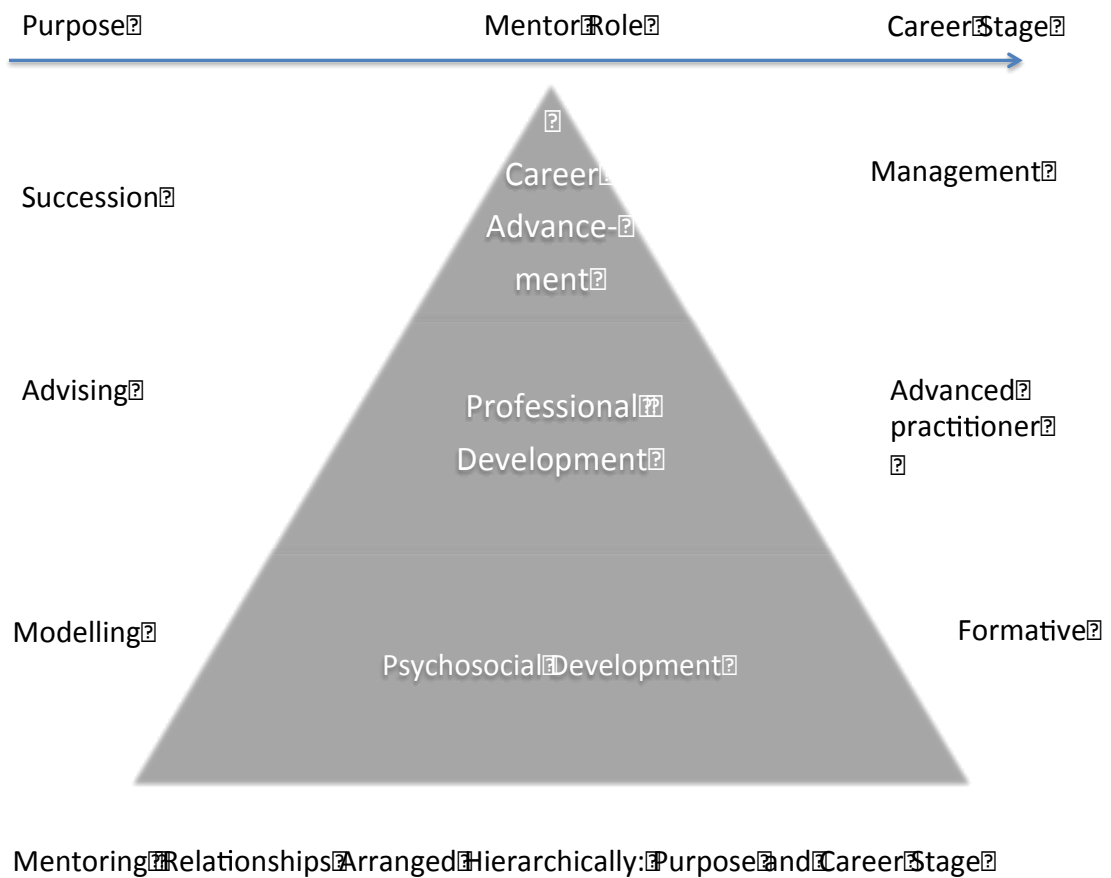


Figure 4. Mertz (2004) Mentoring Relationship Framework

113. The Framework can be used to match the purpose of mentoring to the current and future career stage of the individual mentee.

114. The literature also highlights a number of issues to be considered in regard to mentoring:

1. The **gender** of the mentor – there is some evidence that male mentors are more effective for female mentees in male dominated occupational roles (Dougherty *et al.*, 2013).
2. The **respect** the mentee has for the mentor and the quality of their **communication** is a determinant of the success and satisfaction of the mentoring relationships (Finkelstein *et al.*, 2012).
3. **Clarity** about roles, boundaries, confidentiality, the contract or agreement between the mentor and mentee; mentor style and approach particularly avoiding being patronizing or too directive (Taherian & Shekarchian, 2008).
4. Importance of **resourcing, organisational support** and **infrastructure** (Gibson & Heartfield, 2005).

Mentoring Outcomes

115. Mentoring has been identified in the literature as a means to build social capital (i.e. networks), which in turn is shown to have a positive effect on longer term career success (Eby *et al.*, 2006). In line with this, Ragins and Kram (2007) have included professional socialisation as a key mentoring function, in addition to career advancement and psychosocial maturation (Kram, 1985).

116. A recent study on the impact of mentoring across the diverse disciplines of nursing, anthropology, business, education, psychology and social work reported that mentoring can improve job satisfaction and confidence, job retention, and facilitate learning through role-modelling, guidance and sharing experience (Mijares *et al.*, 2013). This echoed the findings of a large scale Chinese study with 462 small enterprises which found that a significant positive relationship between receiving mentoring, personal learning and career development (Gong *et al.*, 2011).

117. A meta-analysis reported that career success is a function of two factors: working hard and receiving mentor sponsorship (Ng *et al.*, 2005). It was argued that mentoring is important for political aspects of career success such as social capital, exposure and visibility.

118. Unlike coaching, there are a greater number of studies into formal mentoring initiatives, particularly with nurses. Wallen *et al* (2010) assessed the effectiveness of a structured multifaceted mentorship programme to implement evidence-based practice in a nursing context. The results showed that having a mentor led to stronger beliefs about evidence based practice and greater implementation by nurses as well as greater group cohesion, which is a potent predictor of staff turnover rates.

119. Baranik *et al* (2010) conducted a large scale (over 900 participants) quantitative study which reported a statistical significance in how mentoring was associated with perceived organisational support. This is important not just in terms of how it reflects on the organisation itself, but because perceptions of organisational support are often associated with favourable outcomes such as job satisfaction and reduced staff turnover.

120. Finally, not only are the benefits of mentoring demonstrated for mentees, but there is evidence of benefits for mentors. Mentors report benefits such as satisfaction and fulfilment; technical support and knowledge exchange from mentee; organisational recognition and reward for developing talent; rejuvenation and sense of purpose and enhancement of own performance (Eby *et al.*, 2006).

Mentoring and Social Work

121. Thirty relevant studies were identified concerning mentoring and social work (or related disciplines) published during 2004-2014 i.e. the ten year period applied to this Review. Over half of the studies were from the USA (16), 3 from the UK, 3 from Australia, 2 from Canada, 2 from New Zealand, 1 from Nigeria, 1 from Sweden, 1 from Finland and 1 from Barbados.

122. The methodologies applied across the studies varied: 10 used qualitative designs (with data collected through interviews or focus groups for example), 5 used mixed methods (e.g. interviews and surveys), 10 used survey-based correlational designs, and 5 were Case Studies of particular initiatives. As with the review on coaching, various populations were covered in the identified studies including social work practitioners, social work researchers, social work students, social work educators, early childhood educators, child welfare supervisors, domestic violence advocates, mental health supervisors, child protection managers, graduate nurses, hospital staff, midwife mentors, and graduate nurses.

123. The limited number of studies used a wide range of approaches. This research evidence does not allow for definite conclusions to be drawn regarding the mentoring approaches which work best in a social work context but allow for inferences to be drawn concerning impact and outcomes for professionals.

Findings

124. The studies identified combine to give an emerging picture of the outcomes associated with mentoring for both mentors and mentees, as well as the factors that facilitate or hinder the mentoring process. These include enhancing education and training, increased confidence, knowledge transfer and application to work, reduction of isolation and job retention as well as leadership development. Examples of relevant studies are summarised in the next section.

Outcomes

125. The Review pointed to a range of positive outcomes associated with mentoring for mentees. These outcomes included work-related outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, productivity and perceived competence) and personal outcomes (such as self-esteem and self-confidence). Importantly, the Review also found that generally individuals desired mentoring and felt positively about the process when they were mentored.

The desire for and satisfaction with mentoring

126. Participants in the included studies tended to desire mentoring and felt they benefitted from it when they were mentored. For example, evidence of a high demand for mentoring among undergraduate and graduate social work students was reported by Brown et al (2008), who identified mentoring as an important source of intentional guidance on career development. Indeed, a qualitative study conducted with social work managers by Collins-Carmargo and Kelly (2006) indicated that most had one or more mentors over the course of their careers and 77% had served as a mentor for others.

127. The Review also indicated that, as well as being desirable, mentoring was positively valued by those who were mentored (e.g. Hughes *et al.*, 2012; Bourn and Bootle, 2005). For instance, Beecroft et al (2006) presented research with new graduate nurses which suggested that among those who met with their mentor on a regular basis, more than 90% found that mentors provided guidance and support, and most mentees felt that mentoring facilitated stress reduction.

128. Mentoring may be particularly desirable and relevant for practitioners who work in high stress or isolated areas. Research conducted by Aira et al (2010) found that mentoring reduced professional isolation among Finnish GPs working in rural settings. Further, formalised mentoring was recommended by Babin et al (2012) who investigated the factors leading to burnout among domestic violence advocates. Mentoring for new workers helped them to combat those factors that contribute to emotional exhaustion and a reduced sense personal accomplishment, which is commonly experienced in this field of work.

129. Hafford-Letchfield and Chick (2006a) found that mentoring was associated with management development: career progression was enhanced by mentoring as a way of developing management potential in staff from minority or disadvantaged backgrounds. Within 6 months of completion of the programme just under half had been appointed into management positions. However, research by McAllister et al (2009) points to the need to ensure that mentees from potentially marginalised groups receive the type of support and guidance they seek. They investigated 'targeted mentoring' with social work doctoral students who identified as Lesbian Gay Bi-Sexual or Transgender (LGBT) and found that mentors were more satisfied with the mentoring relationship than mentees. The mentees were looking for more instrumental and psychological types of support than they received.

Outcomes for Mentees

130. Mentoring in support of professional education and training was demonstrated by Hughes et al (2012) who found that the social work students engaged in faculty-mentored research projects perceived mentorship as beneficial. Most participants reported improved research skills, increased understanding of research and a stronger connection to the social work research community. Further mentorship was associated with increased student learning and self-efficacy; and positive feelings about the experience. Similarly, Salami (2010) found that positive work attitudes were related to mentoring and the availability of social support among nurses in Nigeria. Harris et al (2007) found that career mentoring and task support were identified as the types of social support most predictive of job satisfaction. On the other hand job tenure was more associated with coaching and task support.

131. These findings echo the results of Bourn and Bootle (2005) who found that among students of a distance learning, post-graduate certificate programme for front-line managers and supervisors in child and family social work, the outcomes associated with studying on the programme included increased self-confidence, enhanced supervisory practice, greater involvement of service users in service provision, and increased attention given to service-user feedback, although the impact of mentoring could not be distinguished from the impact of the programme as a whole.

132. Lee et al (2011) found that practitioners who perceived that they were in mentoring relationships with mental health supervisors were more satisfied with their jobs than those who did not. Job satisfaction was related to the mentoring functions of sponsoring, assigning challenging tasks, and demonstrating trust. The authors recommended including these types of mentoring functions in supervisory training to increase job satisfaction among mental health professionals.

133. There is no clear indication in the literature that there is a particular type of person who will 'do well' through mentoring. Rather, the importance of contracting at the outset to agree purpose and goals is seen as critical to achieving positive outcomes from the mentoring process. This will clarify the mentee's level of commitment to the process and their own development as well as their trust and confidence in the mentor which is regarded as essential to mentoring success.

Outcomes for Mentors

134. The Review indicated that the mentoring process impacted on mentors as well as mentees. For instance, in a case study of a formal mentoring programme in a state public child welfare agency in the US, Strand and Bosco-Ruggiero (2009) found that mentees had more confidence, their networks had grown, and their investment in their job and the agency had increased. In addition, mentors identified increased personal satisfaction and a renewed sense of purpose in their role as a positive outcome of participating in mentorship.

135. The impact of mentoring on mentors can also sometimes be emotional, as highlighted in the study by Riebschleger and Cross (2011). This small-scale qualitative study drew attention to the loss and grief experiences that could be experienced by mentors over the course of mentoring relationships. Further, in a study with supervising mentors from nursing, teaching and social care for students in training, Löfmark et al (2009) drew attention to the fact that mentors, as well as mentees, need support to operate effectively. They found that mentors in the field needed more communication with university personnel to strengthen their motivation and to give support. Similarly, in their study McGeorge and Stone-Carlson (2010) found that mentoring can inflict an emotional cost on the mentor, they discuss the need for monitoring to ensure mentoring does not shift to therapy. Organisational level monitoring of such mentoring such as anonymous staff surveys to collect feedback from mentors, or supervision for mentors themselves could mitigate this issue.

Organisational Outcomes

136. The Review suggested a number of ways in which mentoring could facilitate organisational goals. Such as through incentivising recruitment and job retention (as in Gillham & Ristevski's 2007 study with health professionals including social workers in rural areas to attract skills supply), through developing and transferring tacit and explicit knowledge in an organisation (as in the study by Hafford-Letchfield & Click, 2006b, which explored an interagency management mentoring scheme which was developed across health and social care organisations in the south-east region of the UK) and through encouraging greater management effectiveness (as in the study by Wilson & Tilse, 2006, who presented a case study where 14 mentoring participants reported significant benefits of mentoring, with many experiencing fundamental shifts in their management approach).

137. Boddy et al (2012) found that a writing group for social worker clinicians, analogous to peer mentoring, enhanced academic outputs, indicating that from an organisation's perspective mentoring is desirable as it can increase productivity. Further, Blackman and Schmidt (2013) found that mentoring is one of the most important elements in developing supervision and leadership skills in social workers and supervisors (along with training, professional development and acting leadership opportunities), which in turn has benefits for the organisation.

Process

138. This Review has indicated a number of factors which impact on the mentoring process and the mentor-mentee relationship. These factors include not only characteristics of the mentor, but also characteristics of the mentee and characteristics of the mentoring relationships.

Characteristics of the Mentor

139. Four of the included studies pointed to characteristics of the mentor which can impact positively on the mentoring relationship and associated outcomes. These characteristics relate not only to how they enact the role of mentor, but also innate characteristics (eg. gender or cultural background) which impact on their relationship with mentees.

140. The Review indicated that mentees desire particular characteristics in potential mentors. For example, in an exploratory study by Ellison et al (2014) with field directors in social work education the most helpful aspects of mentoring identified included having a mentor who acted as a sounding board, gave advice on administering the field programme and provided strategies for success.

141. The Review also indicated that mentoring can be a useful strategy to reach underrepresented and potentially marginalised staff. For example, in a qualitative study in Barbados with male social workers, Bolden et al (2008) found that participants sought mentorship from males who could direct them, regardless of whether they were social work trained or not.

142. In relation to cultural background, the benefit of integrating cultural constructs in an academic mentor-mentee relationship was demonstrated in a qualitative study by Cross and Day (2013). This study with an American Indian mentor and four student mentees explored how American Indian cultural constructs were utilised to support learning.

143. Similarly, Schwan et al (2013) presented an innovative mentoring program for Latina social work professionals. The program matched a Latina master's in social work graduating student with a senior Latina social work professional. The model of the mentoring program incorporated a coordinator, a liaison to each mentor-mentee dyad, a mentor-mentee developmental relationship, and group gatherings. A key aspect of the model was the attention to and inclusion of Latina cultural values of familismo, personalismo, confianza, and colectivismo, to foster the development of a sense of community.

Characteristics of the Mentee

144. The Review also indicated that it is not only the mentor who can influence the mentoring relationship, the mentee must also engage with the process. For example, in a qualitative study of the school-to-work transition in social work (Paré and La Maistre, 2006) newcomers who proactively engaged with the new workplace setting and sought the expertise of those besides their supervisor led to the most successful inductions to work. Proactive newly qualified social workers had more gratifying experiences than passive newcomers. This suggests that co-participation in initiating and contracting the mentoring relationship should be seen as important in helping individuals to develop their proficiency and realise the potential benefits with regard to professional socialisation and development.

Characteristics of the Mentor-Mentee Relationship

145. The Review suggests that the mentor-mentees relationship is dynamic and a function of the interaction between the particular mentor and mentee. For example, in a study with mentors of early childhood educators and their mentees Peterson et al (2010) found that building a trusting, emotionally supportive relationship was seen as important by both mentors and mentees. In addition mentors highlighted the challenges associated with negotiating the often ambiguous role of the mentor. Mentors identified differences across mentees readiness to change as impacting on how they negotiated the mentor-mentee relationships. Mentors also engaged in ongoing reflection on their own interpersonal skills through interaction with their supervisors and other mentors. In their research with family therapy students, McGeorge and Stone-Carlson (2010) found that when a mentor has more than one role to a mentee it can blur professional boundaries.

146. Further, when and where mentor-mentee relationships emerge and develop cannot always be predicted. For example, Lunt and Fouché (2009) describe an action research project for mentoring research capacity amongst social work practitioners. Within this project, workshops, academic mentoring, peer mentoring and written resource and supports were offered to eight small teams of potential practitioner researchers. In the process of implementing this initiative a range of mentoring relationships emerged, some planned for and other occurred naturally. For example, practitioners acted as co-mentors and others availed themselves of appropriate forms of support from within their groups. Invited presenters engaged in mentoring-style relationships with groups.

Implications for Social Work

147. The Social Work Reform Board (2012) stated that continuing professional development should support social workers to become more confident, resilient and adaptable to changing demands. In a context of staff turnover, burnout and the constant influx of new workers as well as the loss of more experienced members, the findings of this Review suggest that mentoring is an intervention which can equip the social work workforce with the confidence, knowledge and skills sets to undertake their role.

148. The studies reviewed also suggested that mentoring was generally valued by mentees, and associated with positive work- and wellbeing-related outcomes. In addition, the Review pointed to a number of factors which may facilitate or impede the mentoring process, and should therefore be attended to when implementing a mentoring programme:

- **Lack of time** of mentor or mentee
- **Scheduling** constraints
- **Logistics** such as travelling or ease with using technology to communicate
- Lack of mentor commitment
- **Lack of recognition** of the value of mentoring by senior management
- **Emotional toll** on the mentor (McGeorge & Stone-Carlson, 2010)
- Ability to **find** a mentor
- **Perception** of mentoring in the organisation (Murphy & Goodson, 2007)

149. The evidence suggests that mentoring is likely to increase emotional resilience, job retention, minority integration, role confidence, reduce isolation and enhance the application of evidence and knowledge as well as to aid the ‘passing on of practice wisdom’. Interestingly, it also suggests that key functions of mentoring as highlighted in the literature: career advancement, professional socialisation, knowledge transfer, professional development, job satisfaction, and increased confidence are relevant to the challenges facing social work and the types of intervention and support that are recommended (Croisdale-Appleby 2014, Research in Practice, 2013).

150. However, as with the discussion of the implications of coaching for social work, there are a number of caveats which should be borne in mind when interpreting the findings presented in this Review. The identified studies generally had small sample sizes and were mainly correlational in nature and so causality cannot be inferred. As well as generally having small sample sizes, many studies used qualitative methods which can hamper the generalisability of findings. Also, the majority of the studies in this Review were from the US based, further limiting generalisability to the Northern Ireland context. As discussed previously, the educational requirements for social workers in the US vary not only by state but also region.

151. Overall, the Review has indicated that the empirical literature on mentoring and social work is currently limited. However, the results point to many potential benefits of the use of mentoring as an intervention with social workers and organisations. These benefits can potentially be felt by mentors, mentees, organisations and ultimately service users.

152. Taken together with the findings from the general mentoring literature, the evidence base indicates that mentoring is a beneficial and desirable professional development intervention. Nevertheless, more research is needed in social work settings with larger samples and more rigorous research designs to demonstrate reliably the impact of mentoring for social workers and their clients.

3. Contrasting Coaching and Mentoring

153. A requirement for this Review was to provide a distinction between coaching and mentoring. For the purposes of their application to social work, and in the light of current recommendations about social work development (Munro, 2011), the Northern Ireland Social Work Strategy (2012-2022) and social work education (Croisdale-Appleby, 2014), the table below shows how coaching and or mentoring offer an individualised approach to personal, professional and career development for social work **compared to traditional training approaches.**

Table 2: Coaching and Mentoring versus Traditional Training

Traditional forms of training in continuing professional development	Coaching or Mentoring in continuing professional development
Generic design and wholesale transfer of new skills or knowledge, e.g. change in procedures, new systems (e.g. software application training), new job function	Development activities are designed to suit client's personal needs (whether aspiration or performance related) and learning style
Programmes are mostly generic, delivered in a group setting and not tailored to individual needs	Fine tune and develop an individuals' existing skills. Can focus on interpersonal skills, which cannot be readily or effectively transferred in a traditional training environment
Training environment is not always sufficiently similar to the 'live' working environment to ensure effective skills transfer.	Performed in the 'live' environment or off-line. Coaches and mentors foster development 'with' the client rather than doing it 'to' them.
Delegates generally have to complete standard modules, so there is little room for tailoring the programme to account for existing knowledge, skills or preferences.	Provides the individual with contacts and networks to assist with furthering their career or life aspirations.
Best suited to transfer of knowledge and certain skills rather than the development of personal qualities or competencies.	Highly effective when used as a means of supporting training initiatives to ensure that key skills are transferred to the 'live' environment.

154. The table is intended to show where the use of formal training and education has advantages and where coaching or mentoring offer alternative methods for professional development. Formal training and education are 'off the job' approaches where the individual receives learning away from the real work setting. Coaching targets 'on the job' development as its aim is to improve performance in the immediate short term. Mentoring focuses on developing the individual's future potential in their professional or organisational context.

155. As indicated in the literature, coaching or mentoring can effectively be used to support the knowledge transfer from the training classroom to the workplace.

156. These approaches are differentiated from the role of social work supervision which has been discussed earlier in this Review.

157. Based on the literature findings, the table overleaf contrasts coaching and mentoring as individual approaches to professional development:

Table 3: Contrasting Coaching and Mentoring

Feature	Coaching	Mentoring
Level of Formality	More formal: contract or ground rules set, often involving a third-party client	Less formal: agreement, most typically between two parties i.e. mentor and mentee
Length of Contract	Shorter term: typically between 4 and 12 meetings agreed over 2 to 12 months	Longer term: typically unspecified number of meetings with relationships often running over 3 to 5 years
Purpose	More performance-focused: typically a greater focus on short-term skills and job performance	More career-focused: typically a concern with longer-term career issues, obtaining the right experience and longer-term thinking
Level of sector knowledge	A coach may have limited sector knowledge but is distinguished by having highly developed coaching skills and techniques.	More sector knowledge: typically mentors are experienced and have knowledge of organisation or business sector
Training and experience	More relationship training: typically coaches have a background in human development	More management training: typically mentors have a background in senior management
Client focus	Dual focus: more typically a dual focus on the needs of the individual and the needs of the organisation	Single focus: more typically a single focus on the needs of the individual

158. [The Coaching and Mentoring Network](#) provides information about the skills and approaches that are common to coaching and mentoring as well as highlighting what differentiates the two approaches:

'Mentoring, particularly in its traditional sense, enables an individual to follow in the path of an older and wiser colleague who can pass on knowledge, experience and open doors to otherwise out-of-reach opportunities. Coaching on the other hand is not generally performed on the basis that the coach has direct experience of their client's formal occupational role unless the coaching is specific and skills focused.'

159. It has been argued that the incorrect use of the terms of coaching and mentoring can be detrimental to their effective application in social work, and it is crucial that there is clarity on how these approaches are deployed and that systems are put in place for the training, development, governance and access to coaching and mentoring as professional development methods.

4. Discussion

160. The interchangeable use of the concepts of coaching and mentoring in relation to social work and indeed other areas has resulted in some misinterpretation in the literature. This represents a challenge when making recommendations for a specific coaching or mentoring approach or model. The empirical research indicates that coaching and mentoring are beneficial interventions for capacity building in social work, and other sectors.

161. However, while more research might be considered necessary before one can recommend a particular model, the search for such a model may prove elusive. This is due to the complex nature of social work as described by Croisdale–Appleby (2014), where practitioners are continuously collecting and analysing ‘partial and contradictory fragments of information’ within a dynamic, changing and multi-faceted environment.

162. The use of either coaching or mentoring as methods of support and professional development must be flexible enough to meet the needs and the context of the individual practitioner. Social workers need to be able to ‘sense make’, determine a plan of action which balances the need to reduce risk, while empowering clients and complying with their statutory responsibilities.

163. The literature in relation to the application of coaching to social work highlights its benefits for activities such as: the education of social workers; aiding the implementation of new practices; and in the supervision process both for social workers and social work supervisors. A potential limitation to its implementation in supervision may be the front line social work manager’s accountability for the quality and governance of the service delivered. In the context of social work supervision, the relationship between team leader and practitioner may be more hierarchical than in other sectors where coaching is used by line managers such as in business.

164. The literature regarding mentoring suggests that there is a desire among social workers and those in related disciplines to be mentored, that those who have been mentored evaluate the experience positively, and that mentoring is associated with positive outcomes for the mentor, the mentee and the organisation. However, particular factors need to be taken into account to enhance the mentor-mentee relationship, including the characteristics and needs of the mentee, the characteristics and capacity of the mentor and the organisational culture and context in which the mentoring relationship is forged. Given that mentoring relationships often occur organically, it can be a difficult process to regulate. Care should be taken that mentors are not over-burdened by the process in addition to their other workload.

4.1 Strengths and Limitations of the Evidence

165. It is imperative that the findings and accompanying recommendations emerging from this Review are interpreted in the context of strengths and limitations of the evidence base. A strength of the evidence is the consistency of positive findings in relation to the use of both coaching and mentoring across a diverse range of methodologies, including experimental methods, quasi-experimental methods, surveys, focus groups and mixed method designs. In addition, the scoping review of the general literature, alongside the review of the literature in relation to social work, illustrate a consistency in findings from a wide variety of disciplines including the private sector, healthcare, academia, education and occupational therapy.

166. The majority of these studies were cross-sectional in nature, and many used self-report from coaching and mentoring recipients as opposed to the use of standardised measures to assess outcomes such as confidence and self-efficacy. Nonetheless, a coachee or mentee who perceives positive outcomes for themselves and their work as a result of an intervention is still a favourable result.

167. As research on the efficacy of coaching and mentoring are domains very much in development, there is no agreed research standard like the use of randomised control trials in psychotherapy outcome research (Norcross, 2011, as cited in De Haan *et al.*, 2012). For a more robust demonstration of efficacy, it would be helpful if, going forward, professional coaching and mentoring bodies established an agreed upon rigorous methodological approach so, as interventions, they can be compared more reliably against others.

4.2 Coaching and Mentoring across the Career of a Social Worker

168. Coaching and mentoring have been shown to be effective for capacity building of social workers, and help practitioners to take control of their own professional development. It has been argued in the literature that due to the more specific goal and performance focused nature of coaching, it is more suited to social workers still in education or in the formative stages of their careers (Engelbrecht, 2012).

169. However as shown in this Review, mentoring is an effective form of 'professional socialisation' and passing on of 'practice wisdom' and tacit knowledge. Functional mentoring is also shown to be an effective enhancement to education and research for time-limited projects. Peer mentoring may be effective for more experienced managers and professionals as a way of providing mutual support and learning transfer. Finally, being a mentor has developmental benefits for leadership and people management.

170. Based on the evidence of how coaching and mentoring are used in social work, and their potential use based on experience in other fields, the table below shows how they may be applied as professional development and support methods across the social work career trajectory.

171. Table 4 below is based on the evidence presented. It is a guide as to where to target coaching or mentoring at different stages in a social worker's career from practice education through to senior management.

Table 4: Use of Coaching and Mentoring at Different Stages of the Social Work Career

Stage of Career	Coaching	Mentoring
<p>Practice Education (Student, Assessed Year In Experience, Newly Qualified Social Worker)</p>	<p>Knowledge transfer, Personal development, self-awareness, self-confidence, skills development, Reflection through a 'learning partnership'.</p>	<p>Induction to the role, Professional socialisation, Functional mentoring, Apprentice mentoring.</p>
<p>Continuing Professional Development (Social Work Practitioner, Senior practitioner, Team Leader)</p>	<p>Knowledge transfer from professional training, Implementation of new methods, Development of evidence based practice, Resilience and stress management, Supervision.</p>	<p>Professional Development, Post qualifying training Role development, Isolation support, Network development, Organisational context, Peer mentoring</p>
<p>Management and leadership development (Service manager, senior manager, executive director)</p>	<p>Leader as Coach, Leadership development, Task specific challenges, Innovation and change implementation, Executive coaching, Self awareness, Psychometric assessment and development planning</p>	<p>Career advancement, Succession planning, Transfer of tacit knowledge, Mentoring others.</p>

172. From this Review it can be concluded that there are general success factors which are necessary for positive outcomes from both coaching and mentoring:

- motivation and pro-activity of the target individuals to be coached or mentored,
- training in coaching or mentoring skills is required
- contracting and agreement of goals,
- trust and empathy in the relationship
- role clarity and boundary management,
- cultural fit and organisational support,
- perception of coaching or mentoring as a valued form of organisational support for staff
- selective usage.

173. Factors that may mitigate against the effective deployment include staff workloads, lack of organisational support for all parties to make the necessary time commitment as well as an adequate supply of trained and skilled coaches or mentors, internally or externally.

174. Other forms of professional development and support remain important including formal training and education, supervision and staff counselling or therapeutic support.

Conclusion

175. To conclude, the evidence base on the use of coaching and mentoring with social workers and social work organisations indicate positive outcomes for individual professionals and the working environment. More research is required to indicate the impact of these interventions with social workers on service users.

176. The Review of the research related to coaching and social workers has highlighted the positive contribution it can make to initial and ongoing education of social workers, implementation of new practices at the practitioner and organisational level, and in the supervision process.

177. The Review of the research relating to mentoring has pointed to both the job-related and personal benefits that both mentors and mentees derive from the process, in addition to the benefits of mentoring to organisations in terms of having more confident, productive and satisfied workers.

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6. Appendices

Appendix A: Search terms used for Phase 1 – Scoping review

Appendix B: Critical Appraisal Scoring Sheet

Appendix C: Papers included in systematic review – Coaching and Social Work

Appendix D: Papers included in systematic review – Mentoring and Social Work

Appendix A

Electronic Search Strategy for EBSCO – Phase 1

1. Coaching NOT Sport
2. Mentoring
3. #1 AND #2 AND Review
4. #1 OR #2 AND Review
5. #1 OR #2 AND Synthesis
6. #1 AND #2 AND Synthesis
7. #1 OR #2 AND Systematic Review
8. #1 AND #2 AND Systematic Review
9. #1 OR #2 AND Learning
10. #1 OR #2 AND Development
11. #1 OR #2 AND Implementation
12. #1 OR #2 AND Outcomes
13. #1 OR #2 AND Impact
14. #1 OR #2 AND Employees AND Outcomes
15. #1 OR #2 AND Individual AND Outcomes
16. #1 OR #2 AND Peer AND Outcomes
17. #1 OR #2 AND Professional Development AND Outcomes
18. #1 OR #2 AND Organisation AND Outcomes
19. #1 OR #2 AND Performance AND Outcomes
20. #1 OR #2 AND Approaches
21. #1 OR #2 AND Models
22. #1 OR #2 AND Frameworks
23. #1 OR #2 AND Theory OR Theories
24. #1 OR #2 AND Practice
25. #1 OR #2 AND Evaluation
26. #1 AND #2 AND Evaluation

Filters and Limits

Also search within the full text of articles

Peer-Reviewed

Language: English

Appendix B

Critical Appraisal for Review on Coaching and Mentoring

Weight of Evidence A: Trustworthiness	Generic on quality of execution of study		
Transparency - clarity of purpose	Low	Medium	High
Accuracy – accurate	Low	Medium	High
Accessibility – understandable	Low	Medium	High
Specificity – method specific quality	Low	Medium	High
<i>Overall Score for A</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>
Weight of Evidence B: Appropriateness of study design	Review specific on appropriateness of method		
<i>Purposivity- fit for purpose method</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>
Weight of Evidence C: Topic relevance to the review question	Review specific on focus / approach of study to review question		
Utility – provides relevant answers	Low	Medium	High
Propriety – legal and ethical research	Low	Medium	High
<i>Overall Score for A</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>

3 High = High

3 Medium = Medium

3 Low = Low

In cases where different grades are awarded for each section an average is awarded, indicated by the use of a hyphen with the first grade indicating an overall average and the second qualifying weighting.

E.g.

2 High + 1 Medium = High-Medium

1 High + 2 Medium = Medium-High

1 Low + 2 Medium = Medium-Low

Rating: _____

Reason for exclusion if appropriate: _____

Appendix C – Coaching and Social Work

Author/s and Country	Year	Details
Taxman, Henderson, Young & Farrell (USA)	2014	<p>Participants: Juvenile Justice Caseworkers.</p> <p>Methodology: Experimental</p> <p>Findings: External coaching targeting the social climate of the juvenile justice office improved organisational readiness to change, and was more effective than traditional management directives.</p>
McBride (Canada)	2010	<p>Methodology: Literature review and discussion.</p> <p>Findings: This article outlines the clinical and ethical issues associated with providing supervision involving family violence cases. Relevant to this review, it highlights the need to coach supervisees on documenting trauma-based sessions in a way that caters to ethical and legal responsibilities.</p>
Engelbrecht (South Africa)	2012	<p>Methodology: Literature review and discussion.</p> <p>Findings: This literature review reports that coaching, mentoring and consultation are often used interchangeably which can result in misinterpretation and confusion. The author highlights the similarities and differences in coaching, mentoring and consultation as distinct supervision activities which have relevance at different developmental stages in a social workers' career.</p>
Larsen. Sanders, Astray & Hole (Europe)	2008	<p>Participants: Social Work e-teachers</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed methods.</p> <p>Findings: This article analysed how technology used by the Virtual Classroom for Social Work in Europe (VIRCLASS) helps the learning and development and learning of both students and teachers. The skills of facilitating, ICT, Supervision and Coaching and Collaboration emerged as e-teacher competencies needed in creating a good virtual learning environment in social work.</p>
Fischer, Craven & Heilbron (USA)	2011	<p>Participants: Youth workers</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed Methods</p> <p>Findings: Providing youth workers with one-to-one coaching and feedback resulted in reported benefits of growth as a professional, leadership skills and confidence, and applications of the concepts of resilience.</p>

Perrault, Heather & Coleman (Canada)	2004	Methodology: Literature Review Findings: This review discusses the contribution coaching can make within social work field education, both for students and professionals in practice. This review proposed that supervisors and field educators be educated in coaching methods to integrate coaching into educational supervision.
McCrae, Scannapieco, Leake, Potter & Menefee (USA)	2014	Participants: Child Welfare Staff Methodology: Mixed Methods Findings: Implementation specialists were applied as coaches to support the implementation of an organisational innovation in child welfare. Results indicated that implementation progress was higher among smaller agencies, and agencies with lower job stress.
Moyes (UK)	2009	Methodology: Literature Review Findings: This literature review outlines the importance of supervision for coaching themselves, and how supervision has borrowed from the model used in social work.
Busse (Germany)	2009	Methodology: Literature review and case studies Findings: Relevant to this review, part of the evidence reviewed refers to the distinction between coaching and traditional social work supervision, with the latter being more reflective and coaching being more target driven.
Snyder, Lawrence, Weatherholt & Nagy (USA)	2012	Participants: Social Workers Methodology: Qualitative Findings: This study with a small sample of child welfare social workers reported that coaching was a useful intervention in helping them implement Motivational Interviewing with the families they worked with.
Strand & Badger (USA)	2007	Participants: Child Welfare Supervisors Methodology: Mixed Methods Findings: A Clinical Consultation model which was developed to help social work supervisors in their role as educators, mentors and coaches was perceived to help supervisors in their role.
Harlow (UK)	2013	Methodology: Literature review and discussion. Findings: With reference to the Local Authorities in England, this paper refers to the increasingly managerial nature of social work supervision. Coaching of front-line managers is put forward as a tool to encourage relationship-based supervision.

Appendix D – Mentoring and Social Work

Author/s and Country	Year	Details
Peterson, Valk, Baker, Brugger, & Hightower (USA)	2010	<p>Participants: Early childhood educators and their mentors</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Both mentors and mentees found building a trusting, emotionally supportive relationship important. Mentors discussed the ability to negotiate the ambiguous role of the mentor. The mentees readiness to change and the reasons some were resistant to change were found to be salient. Mentors emphasised reflection and personal growth.</p>
Hughes, Ortiz, & Horner (USA)	2012	<p>Participants: Bachelor of Arts in Social Work Students engaged in faculty-mentored research projects</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed Methods / survey</p> <p>Findings: Research mentorship was perceived as beneficial with most mentees reporting improved research skills, increased understanding of research, and a stronger connection to the social work research community. Mentorship was associated with increased student learning and self-efficacy; positive feelings about the experience; and an increased sense of connection to the social work community; but there were time management challenges reported and a desire for more structure.</p>
Lunt & Fouché, (New Zealand)	2009	<p>Participants: Social work practitioners</p> <p>Methodology: Action Research</p> <p>Findings: The authors describe and reflect on an action research process implemented to assist the development of a culture of research among practitioners. The ripple effects of the initiative, and the development of 'networked mentoring' within the project are outlined.</p>
Paré & Le Maistre, (Canada)	2006	<p>Participants: Social workers transitioning from school-to-work</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative study</p> <p>Findings: Proactive newcomers had more gratifying experiences than passive newcomers. Co-participation was seen as important in helping individuals to gain proficiency in skills.</p>
Bolden, Phillips, & Marshall (Barbados)	2008	<p>Participants: Male social workers in Barbados</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Students expressed that they would have liked more instructors who could serve as mentors. They sought mentorship from males who could direct them whether they were social work trained or not. The authors suggest a need to secure mentors who are aware of the sensitivities of gender in social work education and practice.</p>

Babin, Palazzolo, & Rivera (USA)	2012	<p>Participants: Domestic violence advocates</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: The combination of communication anxiety, communication competence, perceived emotional support, and perceived informational support accounted for approximately 13% of the variance in advocates' emotional exhaustion and 21% of the variance in their experiences of reduced personal accomplishment. A formalised mentoring programme was recommended as a means to support new workers.</p>
Cross, Day, Proctor, Harding, & Morford (USA)	2013	<p>Participants: An American Indian Mentor and four student mentees</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Two American Indian cultural constructs were utilized within the academic mentor-mentee relationship with four students. The first construct was learning from an individual who is considered an elder and mentor in the context of American Indian culture. Elders are viewed as teachers, guides, counselors, and supporters of mentees. This construct allows the mentee to experiment and learn by doing, which can be more demanding of the mentor's time. The second construct is the traditional American Indian worldview of everyone having skills and abilities to share. Therefore, all are able to learn from one another. This construct facilitated opportunities for all four students to learn from each other's cross-cultural and inter-cultural differences between tribal life and the mainstream dominant culture.</p>
Schwan, Negroni, & Santiago-Kozmon (USA)	2013	<p>Participants: Latina social work professionals</p> <p>Methodology: Case Study</p> <p>Findings: The program matches a Latina master's in social work graduating student with a senior Latina social work professional. The model of the mentoring program incorporates a coordinator, a liaison to each mentor-mentee dyad, a mentor-mentee developmental relationship, and group gatherings. A key aspect of the model is the attention to and inclusion of Latina cultural values of familismo, personalismo, confianza, and colectivismo, to foster the development of a sense of community.</p>
Bourn & Bootle (UK)	2005	<p>Participants: Students of a distance learning, post-graduate certificate programme for first-line managers and supervisors in child and family social work</p> <p>Methodology: Survey (postal questionnaire)</p> <p>Findings: More than half rated as good or very good the support provided by their mentors. Reported outcomes of studying on the programme included increased self-confidence, enhanced supervisory practice, greater involvement of service users in service provision, and increased attention to gaining service user feedback.</p>

Strand & Bosco-Ruggiero (USA)	2010	<p>Participants: Formal mentoring program in a state public child welfare agency</p> <p>Methodology: Case Study - Process and outcomes evaluation</p> <p>Findings: Mentees had more confidence, their network had grown, and their investment in their job and the agency had increased; mentors identify increased personal satisfaction and a renewed sense of purpose in their role as a positive outcome of participating.</p>
Riebschleger & Cross (USA)	2011	<p>Participants: 2 social work educators</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: The authors reflected on their long careers and the role of the mentor. Loss and grief experiences of mentors were identified.</p>
Salami (Nigeria)	2010	<p>Participants: Nurses in Southwestern Nigeria</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: Mentoring, satisfaction with mentoring and social support predicted work attitudes and social support moderated the relationships but gender did not. The relationships were stronger for nurses who scored high on social support than for nurses who scored low on social support.</p>
Ellison & Raskin (USA)	2014	<p>Participants: Field directors in social work education</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: The most helpful aspects of mentoring include having a mentor who acted as a sounding board, gave advice on administering the field program, and provided strategies for success.</p>
Wilson & Tilse, (Australia)	2006	<p>Participants: Child protection managers</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: The 14 mentoring participants reported significant benefits of mentoring, with many experiencing fundamental shifts in their management approach.</p>
Fouché & Lunt (New Zealand)	2010	<p>Participants: Practitioners from eight social service agencies, a practitioner advisor, four academics from two universities, all logistically managed by a programme manager and supported by three funding bodies</p> <p>Methodology: Case Study</p> <p>Findings: This article provides a new perspective on mentoring relationships by reflecting on a practice project that involved what we identify as 'nested mentoring'. The insights emerged from a series of consultations during 2004, followed by developmental work during 2005, and then the project proper, which was funded during 2006—07.</p>

Beecroft, Santner, Kunzman, Dorey, & Frederick (USA)	2006	<p>Participants: New Graduate Nurses</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: For participants who met with their mentors on a regular basis (54%), the mentor provided guidance and support for more than 90% and facilitated stress reduction for the majority. Several concerns that apparently contributed to lack of connection between mentor and mentee were noted. These included possible lack of commitment and time, and scheduling constraints of mentor and mentee. Inadequacy of both mentor and mentee in their roles was also apparent, especially in relation to socialization and career advice. Diversity of new graduates, including educational level, age and choice of nursing unit, were shown to add or decrease stress and influence the mentoring relationship.</p>
Aira, Vehviläinen, & Kumpusalo, (Finland)	2010	<p>Participants: GPs in Finnish primary health care centres</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Isolation consisted of many factors. These included the necessity of making decisions alone without the possibility of consulting, feelings of not being a team member in the health centre and in the health care system, a lack of collaboration with other workers and a lack of feedback and mentoring. On the other hand, GPs also appreciated autonomy in doing their work.</p>
Boddy, Daly & Munch (Australia)	2012	<p>Participants: Health social workers</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: This descriptive study outlines a programme, including a mentoring component, which was delivered to health social workers. Feedback from social workers showed that there was a need for the programme but lack of time for scholarly writing pursuits was a significant challenge. The provision of mentoring in academic writing and conference presentations was reported to enhance outputs.</p>
Harris, Winskowski & Engdahl (USA)	2007	<p>Participants: Hospital staff</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: This survey of a wide range of hospital staff reported that social support in the workplace accounted for approximately 17% of the variance in job satisfaction and 9% of the variance in job tenure. Career mentoring and task support were the types of social support most predictive of job satisfaction. Coaching and task support were the types of social support most predictive of job tenure.</p>
Gillham & Ristevski (Australia)	2007	<p>Participants: Health Professionals (including social workers)</p> <p>Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Interviews with health professionals reported that career progression, mentoring and opportunities for professional development were perceived incentives for recruitment and retention in rural areas.</p>

Murphy & Goodson (USA)	2007	<p>Participants: Social Worker and Supervisors</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed methods/longitudinal</p> <p>Findings: In surveys social workers reported that that had a high regard for the mentoring received, a satisfaction with a supportive culture, and a strong sense of self-efficacy. Challenges to the implementation of a mentoring programme were discussed, with some supervisors seeing selection for mentoring training as a suggestion they were poor supervisors.</p>
Lee & Muntiel (USA)	2011	<p>Participants: Mental Health Supervisors and Practitioners</p> <p>Methodology: Quantitative</p> <p>Findings: Practitioners who perceived they were in mentoring relationships with their supervisors had higher job satisfaction than those who perceived they were not in mentoring relationships. Aspects of mentoring such as sponsoring, assigning challenging tasks and demonstrating trust predicted job satisfaction.</p>
Blackman & Schmidt (Canada)	2013	<p>Participants: Social workers and supervisors</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed methods</p> <p>Findings: This study investigates supporting supervisors and preparing practitioners to become supervisors themselves. Results indicated that training, professional development, mentoring and acting leadership opportunities were considered the most important elements in developing supervision and leadership skills.</p>
Hafford-Letchfield & Chick (UK)	2006	<p>Methodology: Case study</p> <p>Findings: This article presents the learning form the development of an interagency management mentoring scheme which was developed across health and social care organisations in the south-east region of the UK. It highlights of mentoring for management development and how mentoring can assist the development and transfer of tacit and explicit knowledge in an organisation.</p>
McAllister, Ahmedani, Harold & Cramer (USA)	2009	<p>Participants: Social work teaching faculty and social work doctoral students</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: This study investigated 'targeted mentoring' with social work doctoral students who identified as LGBT. Results indicated that mentors were more satisfied with the mentoring relationship than mentees, who were looking for more instrumental and psychosocial types of support.</p>
Lofmark, Morberg, Ohlund & Ilicki (Sweden)	2009	<p>Participants: Field/practical Supervising mentors from nursing, teaching and social care for students in training. Methodology: Qualitative</p> <p>Findings: Findings indicated that mentors in the field need more communication with university personnel to strengthen the motivation of mentors and give support.</p>

Collins-Camargo & Kelly (USA)	2006	<p>Participants: Social work managers</p> <p>Methodology: Interviews</p> <p>Findings: Interviews with social work managers indicated that 92% of the managers themselves had one or more mentors over the course of their careers and 77% had served as a mentor for others.</p>
MacGeorge & Stone-Carlson (USA)	2010	<p>Participants: Family therapy graduate students</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed methods</p> <p>Findings: This article reviews the literature on preparing family therapy students for social justice advocacy work. Relevant to this review, it also presents challenges to mentoring students in this type of work, for example when a mentor has more than one role to a mentee it can blur professional boundaries. In addition, mentoring can inflict an emotional cost on the mentor, and the need for monitoring to ensure mentoring does not shift to therapy.</p>
Brown, Dilday, Johnson, Jackson, & Brown (USA)	2008	<p>Participants: Undergraduate and graduate social work students</p> <p>Methodology: Survey</p> <p>Findings: This study reported that over half of the sample (albeit small sample) had a mentor. And for those that did not have a mentor, the majority wanted one. Students with mentors reported receiving intentional guidance on career development.</p>
Hafford-Letchfield & Chick (UK)	2006	<p>Participants: Staff and mentors in a Local Authority social services department</p> <p>Methodology: Mixed methods</p> <p>Findings: This study presents the learning from a best-practice initiative to develop management potential in staff from minority or disadvantaged backgrounds. The initiative involved training and formal mentoring. Within 6 months of completion of the programme just under half had been appointed into management positions.</p>