8 SUPERVISION, MENTORING, AND COACHING

Methods for Supporting Personnel Development

Kathleen Gallacher

The need for supervision, mentoring, and coaching is driven by several issues related to personnel development in early intervention. First, because of the demand for early intervention personnel in many states (Burke, McLaughlin, & Valdiviesco, 1988; Meisels, Harbin, Modigliani, & Olson, 1988; U.S. Department of Education, 1992; Yoder, Coleman, & Gallagher, 1990), professionals are often faced with the challenge of acquiring or refining the competencies needed to deliver early intervention services. Key features of IDEA, specifically of Part H, directly influence the specific competencies that professionals must possess. Many of these competencies (e.g., building relationships, collaboration, teamwork, service coordination) are required across a range of early intervention roles, settings, and tasks (Kontos & File, 1992).

Second, the delivery of early intervention services is a complex task requiring problem solving, divergent thinking, creativity, and critical thinking. Practitioners are required to make informed judgments and perform complicated tasks in complex environments (Howey, 1988). Fenichel and Eggbeer (1990) argued that early intervention professionals are competent when they possess a combination of knowledge, skills, and experience that enables them to analyze a situation, consider alternative approaches, select and skillfully use the best intervention techniques, evaluate the outcome, and articulate their rationale. Other fundamental competencies required to deliver early intervention services include communication, advocacy, problem solving (Able-Boone, Sandall, & Loughry, 1989; McCollum & McCartan, 1988; Thurman et al., 1992), reflection (Brown, Hanft, & Browne, 1993; Fenichel, 1991; McCollum & McCartan, 1988), and self-direction (Division for Early Childhood Task Force on Recommended Practices, 1993; McCollum & McCartan, 1988; Reid & Bross, 1993; Rowan, Thorp, & McCollum, 1990).

Third, personnel demands are likely to continue (Bogenschild, Lauritzen, & Metzke, 1988; Howey & Zimpher, 1987; Kontos & Dunn, 1989; Lawrenson & McKinnon, 1982; Mark & Anderson, 1985; Palsha, Bailey, Vandiviere, & Munn, 1990; Schlechty & Vance, 1981; Seyforth & Bost, 1986). In early intervention, low salaries, lack of opportunity for career advancement, and lack of benefits contribute to the attrition rates (Kontos & File, 1992; Palsha et al., 1990). In education, the high attrition rates are also linked to difficult work assignments, unclear expectations, inadequate resources, isolation, role conflicts, and

''reality shock'' (Gordon, 1991; Morey & Murphy, 1990). The factors that influence attrition rates of new teachers also may affect attrition in early intervention.

Finally, the field continues to evolve in terms of those techniques, processes, and strategies that can be considered recommended practice. Early intervention practitioners must consider which attitudes, behaviors, and skills facilitate learning within new models of service delivery. Daloz and Edelson (1992) articulated that ''in today's work place what matters is not so much the skills and attributes that a person already brings to the job but rather those that they will need to learn and develop'' (p. 31).

To address these personnel challenges, a variety of strategies for continued personnel development must be considered. Although personnel development typically has been provided through short-term conferences, workshops, consultations with visiting experts, or other episodic events, the effectiveness of these strategies has been questioned (Burke et al., 1988; Campbell, 1990; Guskey, 1986). Alternatively, supervision, mentoring, and coaching have been described in the literature as strategies for building or refining specific early intervention skills, providing support, and encouraging continued professional growth. For example, Fenichel and Eggbeer (1993) suggested that supervision and mentoring relationships that allow individuals to reflect on all aspects of work with young children with disabilities, their families, and colleagues are an essential element of becoming competent infant and family practitioners.

This chapter summarizes the extensive information available on supervision, mentoring, and coaching. It includes a description of each of these processes, practical information and strategies for administrators and professionals who want to explore these supports for staff development, and an overview of the challenges these approaches present for individuals and organizations. Finally, this chapter reviews features of particular mentoring and coaching models.

Supervision, mentoring, and individualized personnel development strategies such as coaching are processes that share foundations and whose purposes, elements, and competencies overlap. The lines between these processes are often blurred. Throughout this chapter, the following distinctions are used. All three support personnel development; however, supervision is broader in scope, incorporates administrative functions, and may entail performance evaluation. Mentoring often is an informal process, narrower in scope than supervision, and does not include the evaluative function. Although it may be one strategy by which the organization accomplishes professional development and promotes assimilation of new practitioners, a supervisor typically is not an individual's mentor. Both a supervisor and a mentor may employ coaching to help a practitioner refine his or her technical competencies or extend the professional's knowledge base. Coaching is narrower in scope than either supervision or mentoring because its primary purpose is refining specific practices. Coaching is conceptualized in this chapter as a process that occurs between peers or colleagues and is typically more structured and systematic than mentoring. Each of these processes is discussed separately in this chapter. However, as organizations adopt more structured approaches such as facilitated mentoring, mentoring and coaching may appear similar.

SUPERVISION

In the education and organizational theory literature, supervision is the process of directing or guiding people to accomplish the goals of the organization in which they work (Daresh, 1989), the ultimate objective of supervision is offering the agency's service to the consumer in the most efficient and effective manner possible (Kadushin, 1985). Effective supervision

accomplishes three broad purposes (Sergiovanni, 1991): 1) quality control in which the supervisor is responsible for monitoring employee performance; 2) personnel development in which the supervisor is responsible for helping practitioners refine their skills and elaborate both their discipline-specific knowledge and their technical competencies; and 3) promoting commitment to the field and position, which, in turn, enhances motivation. To accomplish these purposes, supervision involves defining and communicating job requirements; counseling and coaching for improved performance; providing job-related instruction; planning, organizing, and delegating work; evaluating performance; providing corrective and formative feedback; providing consequences for poor performance; and arranging the environment to support performance (Professional Development Center, 1994). For personnel development, Arredondo, Brody, Zimmerman, and Moffett (1995) added that effective supervision helps professionals construct meaning by using what they already know to learn new strategies and techniques. It establishes an environment that is conducive to learning and supports practitioners' acquisition of both skills and knowledge.

Different models of supervision can be found across disciplines, including education, social work, counseling, and psychotherapy. Some of the models of supervision relevant to early intervention settings are shown in Table 8.1. Several themes are evident across these models of supervision. First, several of the functions of supervision are similar: improving service delivery or instruction, supporting personnel development, and accomplishing administrative tasks to achieve organizational goals. Second, the leadership and interpersonal skills needed for effective supervision are evident; many models also incorporate specific technical skills and procedures needed to accomplish intended outcomes of a particular model. The leadership practices outlined in many models include recognizing and being sensitive to the needs of others, building trust, articulating a vision based on shared values, and demonstrating various methods to accomplish the vision (Sergiovanni, 1991). Other important leadership practices include building a supportive climate that empowers others, fostering collegiality, and enabling practitioners to function independently while achieving shared purposes (Sergiovanni, 1991). Interpersonal skills emphasized include listening, paraphrasing, giving descriptive feedback, reflecting, clarifying, encouraging, problem solving, managing conflict, and providing direction (Acheson & Gall, 1987; Garmston, 1989; Glickman, 1985).

Several challenges for supervisors are also outlined in the literature. Acheson and Gall (1987), Carter and Curtis (1994), and Fenichel (1992) described the fundamental concern that individuals must have instructional support and practice to execute effectively the roles and functions of supervision. In some states supervisors are now required to obtain specific instruction in supervisory models, performance evaluation, staff development, and analysis of instruction (Borders et al., 1991; Daresh, 1989). However, many supervisors were promoted to a supervisory position because of their technical skills and experience; many were clinicians who made the transition to supervisor after providing direct services. Most have not received specific instruction and coaching on how to supervise effectively (Robiner & Schofield, 1990). This may represent a challenge if early intervention programs have chosen a clinical supervision model from the social work literature (e.g., Fenichel, 1992). Unlike clinical supervision as defined in the education literature, in which the focus is on fostering self-reflection and self-growth in relation to professional skills, the more therapeutic clinical supervision model focuses on fostering self-reflection in relation to one's understanding of self and the use of self as a tool in the intervention process. Thus, this approach to clinical supervision is much less concrete in the skills required for its implementation.

TABLE 8.1. Supervision models

Author	Model	Focus
Sergiovanni (1991)	Organizational supervision	A human resources approach that addresses the following: • Administrative and supervisory organizational style • Organizational style, climate, and systems • Approaches to organizational change
Glatthorn (1990)	Differentiated supervision	An approach that offers practitioners choices in the type of supervision they prefer: • Clinical supervision • Collegial supervision • Self-directed supervision
Glickman (1985)	Developmental supervision	An individualized approach in which the supervisor selects techniques to match the developmental stage of a professional: • Directive supervision • Collaborative supervision • Nondirective supervision
Cogan (1973); Goldhammer (1969); Krajewski (1993)	Clinical supervision	A process that offers practitioners feedback regarding their skills and practices through a cycle of several steps: • Preobservation conference • Observation of teaching • Analysis and strategy • Postobservation conference • Postconference analysis
Glatthorn (1987)	Peer supervision/ collegial supervision	Cooperative professional development in which teams of teachers serve as informal observers and consultants for each other; techniques range from those employed in clinical supervision to informal discussion and feedback

(*continued*)

TABLE 8.1. *(continued)*

Author	Model	Focus
Anderson (1993); Hersey and Blanchard (1988)	Contingency supervision	A situational leadership approach that matches the supportive or directive behaviors of a supervisor to the maturity level, style, and level of experience of the practitioner being supervised
Hunter (1984)	Skills-focused supervision / scientific supervision	An approach emphasizing review of teacher–student interactions and the process of designing lessons
Costa and Garmston (1985); Garman (1986)	Cognitive-based supervision	Specific models of clinical supervision that stress refinement of a practitioner's thinking: • Costa and Garmston's model is designed to enhance teachers' perceptions, judgments, and decision making • Garman's model is designed to promote the practitioner's reflection and individual construction of knowledge
Glatthorn (1984)	Self-directed supervision	An individualized process in which the practitioner sets his or her own targets or goals, plans and implements activities, and evaluates progress with a supervisor through review of a portfolio, classroom artifacts, or videotaping
Kadushin (1985)	Social work supervision	An eclectic approach that incorporates a variety of techniques to address the administrative, supportive, and educational components of supervision
Munson (1993)	Clinical social work supervision	An interactional approach to supervision based on the styles that emerge from interaction and that incorporates personality, situational, and organizational perspectives regarding supervision

Another challenge is the frequent need for supervisors to fulfill roles involving both education and evaluation. Because the supervisor is involved in making decisions about a practitioner's performance, promotion, or retention, it is difficult to separate the evaluative role and its related function of quality control from the educational role of promoting personnel development. In supporting personnel development, establishing trust and an atmosphere of collegiality is particularly important (Arredondo et al., 1995). Supervisors must be aware of their own beliefs, be consistent in their behavior, observe and analyze

patterns of behavior, consider alternative perspectives and approaches, understand their organization, and recognize that supervision is ongoing rather than periodic (Daresh, 1989).

A third challenge for supervisors is accomplishing supervision within diverse programs in diverse settings. Frequently, practitioners in early intervention operate autonomously in delivering services, and finding time for supervision is difficult. Both administrators and practitioners resist devoting resources, including time, to supervision, even though they recognize the value of regular supervision (Fenichel, 1991). In addition, supervision of and by staff from multicultural backgrounds requires establishing a safe and accepting climate for supervision (Bernard, 1994). To be effective, a supervisor in a multicultural setting must interact with supervisees with respect, support, and openness to cultural issues (Fukuyama, 1994).

Individualizing methods of supervision to match the needs of novices and experienced practitioners is another challenge. Some supervisory models may be more appropriate for practitioners with particular qualities. For example, developmental or contingency models of supervision suggest that more directive styles may be appropriate with less mature or less experienced practitioners and with individuals whose thinking is more concrete. Clinical supervision (Cogan, 1973) may be more effective when professionals are experienced, reflective, and generally competent (Daresh, 1989). Furthermore, experienced and competent practitioners may benefit from increased opportunities to direct their own learning and from having more options in the supervision they receive (Glatthorn, 1990). Selecting a model of supervision that matches the experience and needs of paraprofessionals or paraeducators is a challenge as well. Developmental or contingency models of supervision may offer flexible alternatives in addressing supervision issues with paraprofessionals and novice professionals.

Effective supervisors in early intervention also must facilitate organizational change and support staff during the change process. Continued improvement in methods of delivering services to families and young children with disabilities requires that organizations devote resources to adopting innovations and infusing them throughout the organization. Successful implementation of new processes and procedures requires commitment of time, personnel, and material resources, as well as attention to individuals' concerns regarding what the change means for them. Supervisors play a key role in providing information and instruction that will enable practitioners to implement innovations. Providing support and assistance that matches the concerns of professionals necessitates that supervisors understand the change process, models for facilitating change, and their own change facilitator style (Hall & Hord, 1987; Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1991). Gordon (1992) argued that, in the 1990s, the paradigm in supervision is shifting to one that empowers practitioners, integrates the functions and activities of supervision, and recognizes the diversity of practitioners (i.e., their unique levels, needs, interests, and abilities). The new paradigm supports the development of collegial networks, encourages inquiry, and compares organizational change to the growth and development of a complex organism. Some models of supervision (e.g., Glatthorn, 1990; Glickman, 1985) offer multifaceted approaches that will be useful as the paradigm for supervision evolves; however, new models of supervision also will be necessary.

MENTORING

Mentoring may be defined as a caring and supportive interpersonal relationship between an experienced, more knowledgeable practitioner (mentor) and a less experienced, less knowledgeable individual (protégé or mentee) in which the protégé receives career-related

and personal benefits (Henry, Stockdale, Hall, & Deniston, 1994). Mentoring facilitates the transfer of knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, and values between an experienced and a less experienced practitioner. The essence of the relationship is that the experienced practitioner takes a direct and personal interest in the education and development of the younger or less experienced individual (Krupp, 1985).

Some early intervention programs have made efforts to facilitate the development of formal mentoring relationships. In Colorado, graduate students in speech, language, and audiology training programs are matched with mentors in public school settings (S.M. Moore, personal communication, October 8, 1995). The mentor models professional practices, shares resources, and supervises the graduate student's internship. Mentors meet together in a collegial group to obtain instruction on and support for issues of mentoring and supervision. They receive honoraria, provided through federal funding of personnel preparation projects, as an incentive. This federal funding also helps support other mentoring activities.

Professionals in the Colorado Speech and Hearing Association (CSHA) also are encouraged to pursue mentoring opportunities (CSHA, n.d.). In this informal mentoring model, practitioners are matched on the basis of similar aspirations and interests. Contact between the mentor and protégé occurs face to face at specifically arranged meetings or at other events and through telephone contact, correspondence, audio- or videotape, computer networks, or fax transmission. The CSHA vice president for education and the vice president for membership coordinate the association's mentoring activities. The American Occupational Therapy Association's publication *Find a Mentor or Be One* (Robertson, 1992) provides a framework for professionals interested in becoming mentors or protégés. The mentoring subcommittee also offers additional information on mentoring principles, strategies, and challenges to members of the CSHA. Expectations for participants, roles, and procedures for developing a mentoring agreement are described in writing for prospective mentors and protégés. Another resource, *The Early Childhood Mentoring Curriculum* (Bellm, Whitebook, & Hnatiuk, 1997), has been developed by the National Center for the Early Childhood Workforce, with strategies and materials targeted to both mentors and trainers. (See Chapter 3 for an example of a higher education mentoring project in North Carolina.)

The Partnership Project in Illinois (McCollum, Yates, & Lueke, 1995) provides an opportunity for practicing early intervention professionals to obtain mentoring as one method for completing state credentialing requirements. In this program, mentors and protégés are matched based on the topic of the protégé's request. The mentor and protégé interact across approximately 8 hours by telephone and face to face at the protégé's site. Their interaction is designed to accomplish individualized learning objectives that have been specified in an instructional action plan. Benefits for the protégé include individualized instruction and technical assistance, as well as credit earned toward credentialing. Benefits for the mentor include development of a reciprocal collegial relationship and direct reimbursement.

As demonstrated by these examples, the goals of mentoring may include assimilating new practitioners into an organization; maximizing the effectiveness of the practitioner's first year; facilitating continued professional growth and development; improving professional practices and, thus, benefiting consumers of services through improved programs or products; and increasing the retention of promising new practitioners (Huling-Austin, 1989; Murray, 1991).

Many benefits for both the protégé and the mentor result from the mentoring process. The mentoring relationship offers a protégé the opportunity for support, protection, and guidance (Henry et al., 1994). Specifically, the benefits for the protégé include improved

performance and productivity, development of new skills, increased likelihood of promotion and success on the job, greater likelihood that the protégé will be directed to positions in the organization that match his or her interests and skills, increased social and emotional support, and increased awareness of the organization (Gordon, 1991; Murray, 1991). Mentoring improves the protégé's discipline-specific competencies, increases knowledge, encourages risk taking, promotes leadership skills, enhances communication skills, and increases experience (Kasunic, 1993).

Mentoring also provides a variety of intrinsic rewards and benefits for mentors. These include a recognition of the value of the mentor's experience, creation of a close relationship with the protégé, a renewed interest in work resulting from the opportunity to review and reflect on his or her own professional practices, an opportunity to learn new skills, more perceived control of the work environment, and personal satisfaction from aiding a colleague (Graham, 1994; Hutto, Holden, & Haynes, 1991). Although mentors derive intrinsic benefits from the mentoring relationship, most organizations use additional strategies to retain mentors (Gordon, 1991; Murray, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992). Typically, mentors are given time to participate in the mentoring process and are afforded ongoing learning opportunities to refine their own skills. Public recognition of the mentor's efforts and an opportunity to shape the organization's culture and practices frequently are offered. The protégé's assistance with work projects also furnishes increased resources for the mentor. Finally, many organizations provide financial rewards or incentives to mentors, such as bonuses or differential compensation, awards for innovative projects, or stipends for travel or personal development.

The mentoring relationship typically unfolds across three or four stages (Kram, 1983; Newby & Heide, 1992). The first stage is the *initiation* stage, during which the protégé recognizes the mentor as a competent individual from whom he or she would like support and assistance. Concurrently, the mentor notices the protégé as someone deserving of encouragement and special attention. As the individuals develop a rapport and establish a relationship, they consider what support and guidance the protégé desires. During the second stage, the *cultivation* stage, the protégé and mentor become better acquainted, and the mentor provides the bulk of his or her assistance to accomplish the protégé's specific career goals. As the relationship develops, the mentor provides increased social-emotional support for the protégé. During the third stage, the *separation* stage, the protégé becomes more independent and autonomous, although the mentor still offers some assistance. Separation may occur as the protégé moves to a different position or when the relationship no longer meets his or her psychosocial needs. The last stage is the *redefinition* stage, during which the relationship between the protégé and the mentor evolves into a more collegial relationship. The individuals relate to each other as peers or as friends, and the former mentor no longer influences the protégé's career directly. The mentor advances the protégé's career through various functions or activities that are summarized in Table 8.2 (Geiger-DuMond & Boyle, 1995; Kram, 1983; Wright, 1992).

The characteristics, qualities, and skills of effective mentors are consistently described in the literature (Daresh & Playko, 1991; Hutto et al., 1991; Murray, 1991; Stott & Walker, 1992; Wildman, Magliaro, Niles, & Niles, 1992). The most fundamental attribute is the willingness to serve as a mentor. However, effective mentors also are encouraging and supportive, committed to their protégé, sensitive, helpful but not authoritative, flexible, respectful, enthusiastic about the profession, diplomatic, patient, willing to share information, willing to share credit or recognition, and willing to take risks. Successful mentors generally are experienced practitioners who are knowledgeable about the organization, are effective leaders in the organization, reflect the organization's culture and values, and are

TABLE 8.2. Mentoring functions

Function	Action
Coaching	• Teaching technical skills
	• Helping clarify performance goals and learning objectives
	• Suggesting strategies for achieving goals and objectives or meeting job performance requirements
	• Reinforcing effective on-the-job performance
Increasing exposure and visibility	• Providing opportunities for the protégé to demonstrate competencies and special talents
	• Representing the protégé's competencies and concerns to higher-level administrators
Protecting	• Minimizing the protégé's involvement in controversial situations
	• Helping the protégé avoid costly career mistakes
	• Offering warnings of various pitfalls in the organization
Sponsoring	• Nominating the protégé for promotion, specific positions, or special assignments
	• Expanding the protégé's network of professional contacts
	• Linking the protégé with educational opportunities
Role modeling	• Stimulating growth and development of the protégé
	• Demonstrating successful professional behaviors
Encouraging	• Providing acceptance, validation, confirmation, and friendship
	• Bringing together several protégés who may help each other
Advising	• Helping the protégé clarify and achieve career goals
	• Helping the protégé evaluate career options
	• Recommending strategies for career development
Explaining	• Providing the protégé with information on policies and procedures in the organization
	• Clarifying organizational goals and objectives
	• Identifying resources to help with specific problems

Adapted from Geiger-DuMond & Boyle (1995).

high performers. To accomplish desired outcomes and execute their roles, mentors employ a variety of skills, including interviewing, observing, communicating effectively (e.g., listening, paraphrasing, clarifying, reflecting, summarizing, validating), coaching, problem solving, consulting, negotiating, maintaining trust, and developing rapport. In addition, mentors adapt their support behaviors to the protégé's developmental stage, learning style, and personal (behavioral) style. Finally, mentors encourage and promote protégé inde-

pendence so that the mentoring relationship can be concluded successfully (Henry et al., 1994).

The program administrator also must attend to the characteristics of potential protégés. Protégés must be willing to assume responsibility for their own growth and development (be self-directed), be receptive to feedback and ideas, recognize that professional development requires an enduring commitment, and ask questions or seek guidance to better understand professional practices and their impact. Furthermore, mentoring relationships require that protégés demonstrate many of the same characteristics, attributes, and skills that effective mentors possess, such as a willingness to take risks, flexibility, enthusiasm, effective communication skills, a systematic approach to problem solving, a positive attitude, and a collaborative style (Henry et al., 1994; Hunton et al., 1993; Hutto et al., 1991).

Components of a Mentoring Program

Although a mentoring relationship ordinarily evolves gradually, mentoring incorporates several systematic steps: 1) identifying the protégé's interests and needs, 2) developing a mentoring plan or agreement, 3) providing assistance as the mentoring plan is executed, and 4) evaluating the mentoring plan's effectiveness. Identification of the protégé's interests or wants occurs through informal discussion, self-assessment, semistructured interviews, observations, or written questionnaires (Gordon, 1991). Because each method has advantages and disadvantages, a comprehensive approach incorporates a variety of techniques. However, an organization may select a specific method(s) based on the goals of the organization's mentoring program, the degree of structure or formality the organization adopts for mentoring, and the scope of mentoring in the organization.

A clear agreement between the protégé and the mentor about the goals of the relationship is an essential foundation for a good mentoring relationship. The agreement can be delineated formally in a short, written ''contract'' or plan, or it may be simply outlined during an informal discussion that culminates with a joint verbal agreement. The protégé and mentor agree what support and assistance is desired, formulate realistic expectations for the relationship, and pinpoint the concrete skills and information that the protégé hopes to learn as well as the intangibles he or she would like to be exposed to or receive (Bozarjian et al., 1993). As with other planning processes, the protégé and the mentor consider what specific actions are needed to accomplish the protégé's goals, time lines for each targeted action, and the resources needed to accomplish desired goals. They also agree to maintain confidentiality and discuss the duration of the mentoring relationship, the frequency of meetings or contact by telephone, the time commitment each will invest in the relationship, and the roles of the protégé and the mentor (Murray, 1991).

Challenges to the Mentoring Process

Although mentoring and facilitated mentoring programs have gained widespread acceptance since the 1980s, some challenges have been documented (Fenichel, 1992; Graham, 1994; Murray, 1991; Smith, 1993; Stott & Walker, 1992; Wildman et al., 1992). First, finding the time necessary to accomplish mentoring activities frequently is difficult. Both mentors and protégés feel guilty about taking time from their regular positions for mentoring (Fenichel, 1992; Wildman et al., 1992). Mentors ordinarily have numerous other responsibilities and demands that create conflict with the time required for mentoring. Likewise, as new professionals, protégés often are overwhelmed by accomplishing the basic tasks of their position and believe they have little time for mentoring. In some cases protégés neither maintain regular contact nor actively pursue mentoring relationships.

Many programs deal with the challenge of time by building mentoring into work schedules (B. Quackenbush, personal communication, September 15, 1995). Others encourage telephone contact or dialogue journals as an alternative to face-to-face meetings (Killion & Todnem, 1989; McCollum et al., 1995).

Second, role confusion presents a challenge, especially if the roles of supervisor and mentor are not separate (Graham, 1994). If dual roles occur, particular attention must be directed to separating the performance appraisal functions of supervision from the support functions of mentoring.

In some programs the selection of mentors and matching of protégés and mentors have proved problematic. Systematic screening processes and clear criteria are necessary for successful selection of mentors. Matching that occurs through consideration of the needs and strengths of protégés, mentors, and the organization has been recommended (Daresh & Playko, 1991; Stott & Walker, 1992).

Third, mentors and protégés who are involved in successful mentoring relationships or programs sometimes receive negative feedback from other practitioners who have not been involved in mentoring (Hutto et al., 1991; Murray, 1991; Smith, 1993). Strategies for minimizing negative feedback include widely disseminating information about mentoring or the mentoring program, making parameters for the program and selection criteria clear, and encouraging many individuals to become involved.

Finally, many mentors are apprehensive about the mentoring role and the necessary skills. Frequently, the amount of instruction and support provided to mentors is correlated with their satisfaction with mentoring (Smith, 1993). Specific instruction and continued support help mentors refine their skills to create effective mentoring relationships and assist them in problem-solving any difficulties they encounter during mentoring.

COACHING

Coaching evolved from athletic training models, clinical supervision in education, and staff development with educators. It has been used as a method for improving instruction and teaching strategies, experimenting with new approaches and techniques, problem solving, and building collegial relationships. As described in Joyce and Showers (1983), Mello (1984), and Smith and Acheson (1991), coaching provides professionals with the following opportunities:

- To receive support and encouragement through the opportunity to review experiences, discuss feelings, describe frustrations, and check perceptions with a partner
- To fine-tune skills or strategies through technical feedback and technical assistance from a coaching partner
- To analyze practices and decision making at a conscious level
- To adapt or generalize skills or strategies by considering what is needed to facilitate particular outcomes, how to modify the skill or practice to better fit interactions with specific families or practitioners, or what results may occur from using the skill or practice in different ways
- To reflect on what they perceive or how they make decisions, which helps improve their knowledge and understanding of professional practices and activities

Through the 1980s, various models of coaching were developed: expert coaching, peer coaching, peer consultation, team coaching, technical coaching, collegial coaching, reflective coaching, cognitive coaching, and challenge coaching (Ackland, 1991; Costa &

Garmston, 1985; Fenichel, 1992; Garmston, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1983; Mello, 1984; Smith & Acheson, 1991; Wolfe & Robbins, 1989). Coaching models vary along several dimensions: 1) whether the coaching occurs between an expert and a novice or between peers in a reciprocal relationship, 2) whether the coaching occurs between individuals or among members of a team of practitioners, and 3) whether the focus is on the performance of specific skills or on the decision making involved during intervention. Along these dimensions, the major differences among coaching models include the primary objective or purpose(s) for coaching, who defines the focus of the coaching (i.e., learner, coach, administrator), the coach's role, the degree of structure in the coaching process, and whether the coaching involves a dyad or a group. For example, *technical coaching* is intended to help teachers transfer new skills from staff development workshops to actual practice in classrooms. *Cognitive coaching,* in contrast, is designed to stimulate the teachers' thinking about the judgments they make regarding instruction and about the decisions they make in selecting specific instructional techniques. *Challenge coaching* involves teams of professionals generating solutions to persistent instructional problems through use of a systematic problem-solving approach.

Regardless of the model, coaching has several common, important characteristics: 1) it is most successful when it is voluntary, 2) it flourishes when it is separated from supervision and/or performance evaluation, 3) it is an ongoing process, 4) it is based on collaborative (collegial) relationships, and 5) it requires an atmosphere of trust and experimentation (Wolfe, 1994).

A coaching model for early intervention professionals in Montana was developed between 1991 and 1994 through Project CLASS (Cooperative Learning: Acquiring Specialized Skills), an inservice project funded by the U.S. Department of Education. Components of the project included use of cooperative learning methods to accomplish inservice training, use of coaching to promote the transfer of training and to refine early intervention skills, and development of instructional materials related to specific early intervention competencies. Learning teams were established in each of the seven regionally based early intervention agencies across the state. Initial instruction on specific early intervention topics (e.g., communication skills, conflict management, assessment, interviewing, developing outcomes and objectives) was accomplished with teams using cooperative learning techniques. Following initial instruction, peer coaching was employed to facilitate the transfer of targeted skills to interactions with families and young children with disabilities. Early interventionists on learning teams also used coaching to refine skills and practices that they had individually identified as priorities and that related to their delivery of home-based services. Throughout the project, professionals on learning teams served as coaches for other team members as well as for additional interested professionals in their organizations. Instruction on coaching was provided using a ''train-the-trainer'' approach; learning team facilitators were instructed to implement a six-step coaching cycle (Gallacher, 1995).

A cognitive coaching model was implemented during 1990–1995 by early intervention practitioners affiliated with the Hope Infant Family Support Program in California. Approximately 50% of the staff were instructed on cognitive coaching methods, including individuals with various roles in the program (e.g., managers, credentialed staff, paraprofessionals). Potential coaches were selected on the basis of available time, representation from different components of the program, and years of experience with the program. Following instruction, practitioners made a commitment to coach at least twice a month. A 1½-hour block of time was scheduled for observation and conferences every other week. Coaching partners usually remained together through one coaching cycle. Because

staff expressed concern regarding the time that coaching takes away from families, administrators consistently encouraged professionals to try coaching and often directly prompted staff members to use coaching by emphasizing how it would be useful in addressing particular issues or problems. It was also significant that this program was implemented without external funding support.

A coaching program offers many benefits for early intervention practitioners (Garmston, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1983; Lyman & Morehead, 1987; Mello, 1984; Munro & Elliott, 1987; Phillips & Glickman, 1991; Raney & Robbins, 1989; Robbins, 1991; Schreiber, 1990) and helps sustain their efforts to practice unfamiliar skills or apply new knowledge by offering the support, encouragement, and reassurance of another colleague. Coaching decreases isolation and facilitates collaboration through the exchange of ideas, methods, experiences, and resources among participants. The coaching process mirrors the synergistic family–professional relationships promoted in early intervention and encourages staff to adopt a self-correcting perspective, which promotes continued learning and improvement in professional practices by fostering the perspective that an individual's skills should be examined, discussed, and refined because they are tools of the early intervention profession. (See Chapter 17 for a description of another application of coaching using a family practicum model.) In addition, the coaching process empowers practitioners to direct their own continued professional development. Implementing a coaching program affects an organization because it provides an opportunity for professionals to obtain support and encourages the belief that practitioners help and care about each other. Coaching promotes the development of trust and helps build collegial relationships. Support, caring, trust, and collegiality are characteristics that contribute to an organization's sense of community and create a positive climate within which practitioners commit to helping each other achieve continued growth and development (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1991).

Components of Coaching

In one model of coaching designed for early intervention professionals (Gallacher, 1995), participants implement the coaching process by interacting around a cycle of six steps. Sometimes each step occurs during separate interactions, while at other times, steps occur almost simultaneously within a single interaction or across a few meetings. The duration of various steps depends on participants' wishes and the scope of the early intervention practitioner's interests. The six essential steps of the cycle are the following:

1. **Initial Interest** A practitioner either participates in a formal learning activity or discovers a current early intervention practice he or she wants to refine and, consequently, becomes interested in forming a coaching partnership.
2. **Planning** The coach and the early intervention practitioner meet to formulate a plan for the coaching cycle.
3. **Information Gathering** The inviting professional demonstrates or offers information regarding a targeted skill or early intervention practice, and the coaching partner gathers requested information through an observation, a face-to-face interaction, a review of audio- or videotape, or a review of written products.
4. **Analysis** Partners individually analyze information gathered in Step 3 (Information Gathering) and consider how to proceed to accomplish the practitioner's goals.
5. **Conferencing** The coaching partner solicits the practitioner's reflection on Step 3 (Information Gathering) and Step 4 (Analysis), describes the information collected, and reviews his or her analysis of the information. The partners discuss implications

of the analysis, consider courses of action the practitioner might take, and discuss whether to repeat the coaching cycle to pursue a related question or interest.

6. **Coaching Review** The partners discuss the effectiveness of the coaching cycle they have just completed and consider what to do differently next time.

During the coaching cycle, the inviting practitioner determines what is to be learned or practiced, selects the methods or strategies for learning and practice, communicates how he or she prefers the coaching process to occur, and evaluates whether coaching has achieved his or her goals. The coaching partner and the early intervention practitioner complete specific tasks to accomplish the purpose of each particular step (Gallacher, 1995). These tasks are outlined in Table 8.3.

As they execute all steps of the coaching cycle, partners must demonstrate respect and trust for each other. However, a number of other characteristics, qualities, and competencies are displayed by both the coach and the inviting practitioner (Fitzgerald, 1993; Hutto et al., 1991; Lyman & Morehead, 1987; Mello, 1984; Robbins, 1991; Schreiber, 1990; Swarzman, 1993). These include a willingness to take risks, an openness to new ideas and other points of view, flexibility in thought and action, effective communication skills, systematic problem solving, focused observation, and efficient planning and organization. To effectively facilitate the coaching process, coaches use several specialized techniques to encourage their partner's independence and self-direction, offer support and encouragement, build trust, give descriptive feedback, complement the partner's style of learning, and promote reflection.

The coaching process unfolds more comfortably when the coach matches the inviting practitioner's style. Matching the practitioner's style relative to the degree of self-direction requires the coaching partner to modify the level of support and direction provided depending on the level of assistance the partner requests and on the amount of support the coach perceives is needed to accomplish the coaching process. The practitioner's degree of self-direction often is influenced by several contextual variables, including knowledge and understanding of the topic or content, technical skills regarding a particular topic, sense of personal competence, and the context of the learning event (Candy, 1991). Thus, the degree of self-direction that inviting practitioners demonstrate varies from individual to individual and across settings or situations.

Providing descriptive feedback is an essential component of coaching that helps coaches and inviting practitioners maintain effective coaching relationships. Tips for giving descriptive feedback have been outlined by Gallacher (1995), Hutto et al. (1991), Schreiber (1990), and Wolfe (1994). The general guidelines for feedback include the following: 1) be descriptive, not evaluative or judgmental; 2) be specific rather than general; 3) describe observable events or behaviors rather than give opinions; 4) focus on behavior rather than the person; 5) share information rather than give advice; 6) explore alternatives rather than give the answer or solution (use ''provisional'' language); 7) begin with positive information; 8) describe observed relationships between behaviors or events so the partner can make cause-and-effect inferences; and 9) offer the amount of information the receiver can use rather than the amount one would like to give.

Complementing the inviting practitioner's behavioral style or preferences is another specialized skill that coaches employ in matching the practitioner's style. The techniques needed to complement another practitioner's style are based on the framework for personal preference and type (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1988, 1992; Myers & Briggs, 1962; Myers & McCulley, 1985). Use of this framework allows coaches to consider their partner's style and preference regarding interaction, the process for receiving information, the kind of information that would be most salient, methods for decision making, and ways to struc-

TABLE 8.3. Tasks for inviting practitioners and coaches

Inviting practitioners	Coaches
Tasks of the partners during step 1: Initial interest	
Decide whether they would benefit from forming a coaching partnership to help them refine their early intervention practices.	Thoughtfully respond when a colleague approaches them to ask them to be a coach.
Decide who in their professional network or organization might function as a coach.	Schedule time to meet for planning.
	Maintain a record of the coaching process.
Tasks of the partners during step 2: Planning	
Determine their focus. • Select topic/skill/practice. • Clarify purpose/goal they would like to accomplish. • Clarify the specific information/behavior they want the coach to gather/observe.	Help determine the focus. • Provide the support and assistance necessary for the practitioner to define focus and purpose. • Encourage the practitioner's self-reflection.
Determine where, when, and how the information will be gathered as well as where, when, and how the results will be conveyed/shared. • Describe purpose for the information gathering, what will occur, and what has previously occurred.	Ask for enough details to understand the context for coaching, practitioner's practice of the skill or procedure, and the information-gathering process. Help make decisions about where, when, and how the information will be gathered as well as where, when, and how the results will be conveyed/shared.
Build rapport and trust with one another. • Discuss concerns/apprehensions about coaching.	Build rapport and trust with one another. • Encourage practitioner to discuss concerns; work to decrease apprehension regarding coaching. • Be predictable and respectful.
Share expectations regarding coaching. • Describe the role of the coach. • Propose the "ground rules" they prefer.	Share expectations regarding coaching. • Clarify the role that inviting practitioner wants them to play.
Tasks of the partners during step 3: Information gathering	
Conduct a session or facilitate a specific interaction as planned. • Describe in detail the use of a particular skill or practice, the occurrence of a particular interaction, or the existence of a particular situation. • Participate in a role play or reflect on a case study; or provide written products or other records.	Gather information carefully and objectively. • Collect information or record data using methods that were previously agreed on. • Notice details that reflect the effect of practitioner's use of the skill, practice, or behavior with participants in the session, role-play, and so forth.
Observe the ground rules that were developed with their partner in the planning step for this event.	Observe the ground rules for coaching that were developed with inviting practitioner in the planning step. • Maintain focus on the skill, practice, topic, or issue that was practitioner's identified concern.

(*continued*)

TABLE 8.3. *(continued)*

Inviting practitioners	Coaches
Tasks of the partners during step 4: Analysis	
Organize the information that has been gathered in the previous step to describe what has occurred. • Consider whether what occurred was what they intended. • Determine what factors influenced what happened. • Look for patterns and themes, specifically as they relate to their focus for the coaching partnership. • Consider incidental information and determine whether to discuss it with their partner. Consider what they might do differently the next time. Plan the issues they will discuss with the coach during conferencing.	Organize the information that has been gathered to describe what has occurred. • Identify possible factors that may have influenced what occurred. • Look for patterns and themes, specifically as they relate to practitioner's focus for the coaching partnership. • Consider incidental information and determine whether it was significant enough to mention. • Decide whether the information was consistent with what inviting practitioner intended. Plan how they will facilitate the conference to be most productive for practitioner. • Think about recommendations or suggestions they could make if practitioner asks for their ideas.
Tasks of the partners during step 5: Conferencing	
Receive support, encouragement, and affirmation regarding their competencies, effective behaviors, and resources. • Express their perceptions and reflections about what occurred, what went well, and what was difficult. Get feedback regarding their use of a specific skill or practice based on information gathered. • Compare their behavior, practice, or procedure with what they intended. • Listen carefully and nondefensively to feedback. • Interpret the information/data provided by their partner and request clarification if necessary. Reflect on their performance, the situation, the effects of the use of the skill or practice, and their own decision making. • Describe their feelings.	Provide support, encouragement, and affirmation regarding inviting practitioner's competencies, effective behaviors, and resources. • Ask for perceptions and reflections regarding the skill or practice about which information has been gathered and regarding what occurred. • Offer their own perceptions and reflections. Provide feedback regarding targeted skill or practice based on information gathered. • Avoid making inferences or judgments regarding inviting practitioner's behavior, skill, or practice. • Describe what they saw or heard. Facilitate inviting practitioner's reflection on his or her performance, the situation, the effects of the skill or practice, and his or her own decision making. • Use questions that encourage thinking.

(*continued*)

TABLE 8.3. *(continued)*

Inviting practitioners	Coaches
Tasks of the partners during step 5: Conferencing	
Refine or adapt their use of a skill or practice. • Generate their ideas/options regarding things that might be done differently. • Request ideas/suggestions from their coach regarding alternatives or strategies. Develop plans for their continued practitioner development and participation in the coaching partnership.	Assist practitioner to refine or adapt his or her use of the targeted skill or practice. • Invite practitioner to problem-solve and consider what might be done differently. Determine plans for continued practitioner development and the coaching partnership. • Assist practitioner to conceptualize what next steps could be taken to continue his or her professional development and to decide whether coaching partnership will continue.
Tasks of the partners during step 6: Coaching review	
Review, reflect on, and consider how the coaching occurred. • Identify what went well and what has been difficult. • Consider what they have contributed to the successes and difficulties of the coaching cycle. • Decide whether this coaching cycle has achieved their goals for the coaching partnership. • Give coach feedback regarding what they perceive he or she might do to make the coaching process more productive and effective. Contemplate whether the coaching process could be altered in some way to make it more effective. • Identify what barriers have existed to completing the coaching process. • Suggest changes that will make the coaching process more productive and effective.	Review, reflect on, and consider how the coaching occurred. • Identify what worked well and what has been difficult. • Consider what they have contributed to the successes and difficulties of the coaching cycle. • Ask for descriptive feedback from inviting practitioner regarding what he or she perceives they might do to make the coaching process more productive and effective for him or her. Contemplate whether the coaching process could be altered in some way to make it more effective. • Identify what barriers have existed to completing the coaching process. • Suggest changes that will make the coaching process more productive and effective.

ture or organize coaching activities. For example, inviting practitioners with a sensing style often prefer that coaching partners provide details about how the coaching will occur; give clear, step-by-step explanations; and offer several examples of how the coaching process unfolded for others. However, partners with an intuitive style typically prefer to receive information about the component parts of coaching, the "big picture," and the theory of coaching first before they receive any details. Methods for identifying a partner's

style and suggestions for modifying the coach's behavior and the coaching process to more effectively complement the partner's style are outlined by Kroeger and Thuesen (1988, 1992) and summarized in *Coaching Partnerships: Refining Early Intervention Practices* (Gallacher, 1995).

Promoting reflection is central to the coach's role across the coaching cycle. Reflection is a powerful impetus for continued personnel development and self-directed learning. The coach prompts and facilitates the inviting practitioner's analysis of his or her individual learning objectives, performance, and decision making regarding the use of particular techniques or practices. Through reflection, the practitioner examines the effectiveness of particular methods or practices, interprets situations or events, and considers how values, expectations, and beliefs influenced his or her choices and the situation. The coach promotes reflection by encouraging the inviting practitioner to recall a specific event in detail, examine feelings associated with the experience, and contemplate what he or she would do differently to be even more effective. Specific methods for promoting reflection are described in Boud (1987) and in Swarzman (1993).

Sustaining coaching long enough for it to be embedded in the structure of the organization presents several challenges. First, making coaching successful requires consistent efforts to create the necessary foundations for coaching within the organization. Otherwise, the context, the organization's climate, and the principles of coaching may be in conflict. As a result, coaching efforts will be less successful. Moreover, lack of commitment to ongoing personnel development, whether on the part of an individual or an organization, frequently is a serious barrier to successful coaching. Second, successful coaching requires continued orientation, instruction, and follow-up for coaches and partners. Coaches must continue to refine the coaching process, and additional staff members must be given the opportunity to be involved as coaches and learners.

Third, if administrators are involved in coaching, they must strive to keep their role as performance evaluators separate from their role as coaches. This requires that administrators clearly articulate to individuals when they are coaching and when they are supervising or evaluating them, that administrators' behaviors are congruent with the role they are performing, and that trust exists between the parties (Garmston, 1987). Other authors (e.g., Hargreaves & Dawes, 1990; McFaul & Cooper, 1984; Pusch, McCabe, & Pusch, 1985) emphasized the need to separate coaching from supervision and performance appraisal if coaching is to be accepted by practitioners.

Fourth, readiness and trust must be developed between individuals who will participate in the coaching process to reduce the ''threat'' individuals may feel. Coaches must make efforts to avoid being judgmental and evaluative. Participants often are more comfortable if the coach is a peer who shares common experiences (Neubert & Bratton, 1987). Coaching will be met with resistance if participation is mandated rather than voluntary. This becomes an especially delicate issue when the primary function of coaching shifts from refining professional practices through continued personnel development to remediation of performance deficits. In the latter case, essential principles of coaching likely will not be present (e.g., learner control of the content and process of coaching). Hargreaves and Dawes (1990) suggested that the contrived collegiality created when coaching is strongly encouraged or mandated by administrators actually reduces the trust, support, and collaboration that exist in an organization.

Fifth, participants must be helped to manage the time demands that coaching creates. This includes finding time in the schedule to regularly participate in discussion, observation, and conferencing; addressing competing time demands; and conveying that coach-

ing is a valued activity (Sparks & Bruder, 1987). It also includes a sensitivity to the pace with which a coaching program may be infused in an organization. The greater the number of current demands and pressures on practitioners who may be involved in coaching, the slower the adoption of a coaching program must be to avoid creating stresses that ultimately undermine coaching efforts (Hargreaves & Dawes, 1990).

Research regarding clinical supervision suggests that many practitioners lack the willingness or ability to substantively analyze a peer's performance (McFaul & Cooper, 1984). Although practitioners often execute a form of clinical supervision similar to coaching (e.g., preobservation conferences, observation, postobservation conferences), the discussion during these interactions frequently is perfunctory without careful probing of the concerns, observations, interpretations, or alternatives. McFaul and Cooper argued that an analytical focus is crucial, and instruction for practitioners to analyze their own performance is necessary. Effective models for peer coaching continue to evolve (see Joyce & Showers, 1995, for more information).

CONCLUSION

Supervision, mentoring, and coaching all offer opportunities for practitioners to obtain needed support and to refine their practices. Each may be accomplished through various models incorporating both basic and specialized skills. A consistent theme is the need for these mechanisms to be routinely included as part of a comprehensive personnel development package, even though perceived lack of resources to adequately support these activities continues to be a barrier. In addition, the effectiveness of each of these processes appears to be correlated with the instruction and skills that the facilitator (i.e., supervisor, mentor, or coach) possesses. Specialized instruction and continued personnel development must be a priority for individuals who supervise, mentor, and coach. Furthermore, the organizational foundations, supports, and resources needed to promote and sustain effective supervision, mentoring, and coaching are similar. Unfortunately, many organizations may conclude that such foundations and supports are too costly in this time of dwindling resources. Sustaining direct services and supports to families and young children will likely be a higher priority for many agencies. Although such a decision is reasonable, in the long run, adequate supervision, mentoring, and coaching are part of a critically important infrastructure that makes quality services and supports for families and young children possible.

The connections among effective supervision, mentoring, and coaching are significant. Interest in the techniques and methods of effective supervision, mentoring, and coaching continues to grow as practitioners and organizations incorporate components of these processes into early intervention. Various models and descriptive materials must be examined carefully to illuminate the similarities and differences. Additional research is needed to identify important variables that are directly associated with improved professional practices.

RESOURCES

Bellm, D., Whitebook, M., & Hnatiuk, P. (1997). *The early childhood mentoring curriculum.* Washington, DC: National Center for the Early Childhood Work Force. Cost: $39.90. (202) 737-7700.

This is a comprehensive, flexible set of tools for mentors and mentor trainers in center-based and family child care programs. Two separate volumes, *A Trainer's Guide* and *A Handbook for*

Mentors, contain good information, along with clearly thought out and visually appealing learning activities, handouts, checklists, and supplementary readings.

Fenichel, E. (Ed.). (1992). *Learning through supervision and mentorship to support the development of infants, toddlers and their families: A source book*. Arlington, VA: ZERO TO THREE/National Center for Clinical Infant Programs. Cost: $18.95. (800) 899-4301.

Key issues and successful strategies for incorporating supervision and mentoring into training and practice institutions and systems.

Gallacher, K. (1995). *Coaching partnerships: Refining early intervention practices*. Missoula: Montana University Affiliated Rural Institute on Disabilities. Cost: Contact source. (406) 243-5467.

Designed to assist in the development and implementation of effective coaching partnerships. Manual includes six sections that define coaching; describe program development; examine the coaching process; describe roles, responsibilities, and potential modifications; and offer additional resources.

Robertson, S.C. (1992). *Find a mentor or be one*. Rockville, MD: American Occupational Therapy Association. Cost: $10.00. (301) 948-9626.

Structure, forms, and examples for successfully organizing mentoring relationships.

REFERENCES

Able-Boone, H., Sandall, S., & Loughry, A. (1989). Preparing family specialists in early childhood special education. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, *12*(3), 96–102.

Acheson, K.A., & Gall, M.D. (1987). *Techniques in the clinical supervision of teachers: Preservice and inservice applications* (2nd ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Ackland, R. (1991). A review of the peer coaching literature. *Journal of Staff Development*, *12*(1), 22–27.

Anderson, R.H. (1993). Contingency supervision: Basic concepts. In R.H. Anderson & K.J. Snyder (Eds.), *Clinical supervision: Coaching for higher performance* (pp. 157–167). Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.

Arredondo, D.E., Brody, J.L., Zimmerman, D.P., & Moffett, C.A. (1995). Pushing the envelope in supervision. *Educational Leadership, 53*(3), 74–78.

Bellm, D., Whitebook, M., & Hnatiuk, P. (1997). *The early childhood mentoring curriculum.* Washington, DC: National Center for the Early Childhood Work Force.

Bernard, J.M. (1994). Multicultural supervision: A reaction to Leong and Wagner, Cook, Priest, & Fukuyama. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 159–171.

Bogenschild, E.G., Lauritzen, P., & Metzke, L. (1988). *A study of teacher attrition*. Reston VA: National Clearinghouse for Professions in Special Education, The Supply/Demand Analysis Center, The Council for Exceptional Children.

Borders, D., Bernard, J.M., Dye, H.A., Fong, M.L., Henderson, P., & Nance, D.W. (1991). Curriculum guide for training counseling supervisors: Rationale, development, & implementation. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 31,* 58–80.

Boud, D. (1987). A facilitator's view of adult learning. In D. Boud & V. Griffin (Eds.), *Appreciating adults learning: From the learners' perspective*. Surrey, Great Britain: Biddles Ltd.

Bozarjian, B., Curry, D., Garner, B., Geary, K., Goodall, A., Hohn, M., & Uvin, J. (1993). *Workplace Education Mentoring Pilot Project final report.* Malden: Massachusetts Department of Education.

Brown, C., Hanft, B., & Browne, B. (1993, August/September). Of elephants, ethics, and relationships: Tools for transforming in the training of early intervention service providers. *ZERO TO THREE, 14*(1), 26–31.

Burke, P.J., McLaughlin, M.J., & Valdiviesco, C.H. (1988). Preparing professionals to educate handicapped infants and young children: Some policy considerations. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, *8*(1), 73–80.

Campbell, P.H. (1990). Meeting personnel needs in early intervention. In A.P. Kaiser & C.M. McWhorter (Eds.), *Preparing personnel to work with persons with severe disabilities* (pp. 111–134). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Candy, P.C. (1991). *Self-direction for lifelong learning: A comprehensive guide to theory and practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Carter, M., & Curtis, D. (1994). *Training teachers: A harvest of theory and practice.* Highland Park, NJ: Gryphon Press.

Cogan, M.L. (1973). *Clinical supervision*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Colorado Speech and Hearing Association (CSHA). (n.d.). *CSHA mentorship program,* 1–6.

Costa, A., & Garmston, R. (1985). Supervision for intelligent teaching. *Educational Leadership*, *42*, 70–80.

Daloz, L.A.P., & Edelson, P.J. (1992). Leadership and staff development: A mentorship model. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, *56*, 29–37.

Daresh, J.C. (1989). *Supervision as a proactive process.* White Plains, NY: Longman.

Daresh, J.C., & Playko, M.A. (1991). Preparing mentors for school leaders. *Journal of Staff Development*, *12*(4), 24–27.

Division for Early Childhood Task Force on Recommended Practices. (1993, August). *DEC recommended practices: Indicators of quality in programs for infants and young children with special needs and their familes.* Reston, VA: Division for Early Childhood of the Council for Exceptional Children.

Fenichel, E. (1991). Learning through supervision and mentorship to support the development of infants, toddlers, and their families. *ZERO TO THREE*, *12*(2), 1–6.

Fenichel, E. (Ed.). (1992). *Learning through supervision and mentorship to support the development of infants, toddlers and their families: A source book*. Arlington, VA: ZERO TO THREE/National Center for Clinical Infant Programs.

Fenichel, E., & Eggbeer, L. (1990). *Preparing practitioners to work with infants, toddlers and their families: Issues and recommendations for educators and trainers*. Arlington, VA: National Center for Clinical Infant Programs.

Fenichel, E., & Eggbeer, L. (1993). Zero to Three's TOTIS (training of trainers intensive seminar) and city TOTS (training of teams) initiatives. *ZERO TO THREE, 14*(1), 3.

Fitzgerald, J.H. (1993). Cognition and metacognition in coaching teachers. In R.H. Anderson & K.J. Snyder (Eds.), *Clinical supervision: Coaching for higher performance* (pp. 183–204). Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.

Fukuyama, M.A. (1994). Critical incidents in multicultural counseling supervision: A phenomenological approach to supervision research. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 142–151.

Gallacher, K. (1995). *Coaching partnerships: Refining early intervention practices*. Missoula: Montana University Affiliated Rural Institute on Disabilities.

Garman, N.B. (1986, April). *From technique to practice in clinical supervision*. Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Garmston, R.J. (1987). How administrators support peer coaching. *Educational Leadership*, *44*, 18–26.

Garmston, R.J. (1989). *Effective school characteristics*. Sacramento: California State University.

Geiger-DuMond, A.H., & Boyle, S.K. (1995). Mentoring: A practitioner's guide. *Training & Development, 3,* 51–54.

Glatthorn, A. (1984). *Differentiated supervision.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Glatthorn, A. (1987). Cooperative professional development: Peer-centered options for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership*, *45*, 31–35.

Glatthorn, A.A. (1990). *Supervisory leadership: Introduction to instructional supervision.* New York: HarperCollins.

Glickman, C.D. (1985). *Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach.* Needham, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Goldhammer, R. (1969). *Clinical supervision: Special methods for the supervision of teachers*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Gordon, S. (1991). *How to help beginning teachers succeed*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Gordon, S. (1992). Perspectives and imperatives: Paradigms, transitions, and the new supervision. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, *8*(1), 62–76.
Graham, B. (1994). Mentoring and professional development in careers services in higher education. *British Journal of Guidance and Counseling*, *22*(2), 261–271.
Guskey, T.R. (1986). Staff development and the process of teacher change. *Educational Research*, *15*, 5–12.
Hall, G.E., & Hord, S.M. (1987). *Change in schools: Facilitating the process*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
Hargreaves, A., & Dawes, R. (1990). Paths of professional development: Contrived collegiality, collaborative culture, and the case of peer coaching. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, *6*(3), 227–241.
Henry, J.S., Stockdale, M.S., Hall, M., & Deniston, W. (1994). A formal mentoring program for junior female faculty: Description and evaluation. *Journal of NAWE, 56*(2), 37–45.
Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
Hord, S.M., Rutherford, W.L., Huling-Austin, L., & Hall, G.E. (1987). *Taking charge of change*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Howey, K. (1988, December). Mentor-teachers as inquiring professionals. *The Education Digest*, 19–22.
Howey, K.R., & Zimpher, N.L. (1987). The role of higher education in initial year of teaching programs. In G.A. Griffin & S. Millies (Eds.), *The first years of teaching*. Chicago: University of Illinois.
Huling-Austin, L. (1989). Beginning teacher assistance programs: An overview. In L. Huling-Austin, S.J. Odell, P. Ishler, R.S. Kay, & R.A. Edelfelt (Eds.), *Assisting the beginning teacher* (pp. 5–18). Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.
Hunter, M. (1984). Knowing, teaching, and supervising. In P.L. Hosford (Ed.), *Using what we know about teaching* (pp. 169–192). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Hutto, N., Holden, J., & Haynes, L. (Eds.). (1991). *Mentor training manual for Texas teachers.* Dallas: Texas Education Agency.
Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1989). *Leading the cooperative school*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Co.
Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., & Holubec, E.J. (1991). *Cooperation in the classroom* (5th ed.). Edina, MN: Interaction Book Co.
Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1983). *Power in staff development through research on training*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1995). *Student achievement through staff development* (2nd ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.
Kadushin, A. (1985). *Supervision in social work* (2nd ed.). New York: Columbia University Press.
Kasunic, D.K. (1993). The mentoring plan for the 90's: A plan for business. In *Diversity in mentoring: Full text proceedings & executive summaries* (pp. 228–237). Atlanta, GA: Western Michigan University.
Killion, J.P., & Todnem, G.R. (1989). Mentorship through journal writing as a means of professional development for staff developers. *Journal of Staff Development*, *10*(3), 22–26.
Kontos, S., & Dunn, L. (1989). Characteristics of the early intervention workforce: An Indiana perspective. *Early Education and Development*, *1*, 141–157.
Kontos, S., & File, N. (1992). Conditions of employment, job satisfaction, and job commitment among early intervention personnel. *Journal of Early Intervention*, *16*(2), 155–165.
Krajewski, R.J. (1993). The observation cycle: A methodology for coaching and problem solving. In R.H. Anderson & K.J. Snyder (Eds.), *Clinical supervision: Coaching for higher performance* (pp. 99–111). Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.
Kram, K. (1983). Phases on the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*, 608–625.
Kroeger, O., & Thuesen, J. (1988). *Type talk*. New York: Dell Publishing.
Kroeger, O., & Thuesen, J. (1992). *Type talk at work*. New York: Dell Publishing.
Krupp, J. (1985). Mentoring: A means of sparking school personnel. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, *64*, 154–155.

Lawrenson, G.M., & McKinnon, A.J. (1982). A survey of classroom teachers of emotionally disturbed: Attrition and burnout factors. *Behavioral Disorders*, *8*, 41–49.
Lyman, L., & Morehead, M. (1987). Peer coaching: Strategies and concerns. *Thrust*, 8–9.
Mark, J.H., & Anderson, B.D. (1985). Teacher survival rates in St. Louis, 1969–1982. *American Educational Research Journal*, *22*, 413–421.
McCollum, J.A., & McCartan, K. (1988). Research in teacher education: Issues and some future directions for early childhood special education. In S.C. Odom & M.B. Karnes (Eds.), *Early intervention for infants and children with handicaps: An empirical base* (pp. 269–286). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.
McCollum, J.A., Yates, T.J., & Lueke, A. (1995, December). *Matching them up for mentoring: An alternative approach to staff development*. Paper presented at the DEC Conference, Orlando, FL.
McFaul, S.A., & Cooper, J.M. (1984). Peer clinical supervision: Theory vs. reality. *Educational Leadership*, *40*, 4–11.
Meisels, S., Harbin, G., Modigliani, K., & Olson, K. (1988). Formulating optimal state early childhood intervention policies. *Exceptional Children*, *55,* 159–165.
Mello, L. (1984). *Peer-centered coaching: Teachers helping teachers to improve classroom performance*. Idaho Springs, CO: Associates for Human Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 274 648)
Morey, A.I., & Murphy, D.S. (Eds.). (1990). *Designing programs for new teachers microform: The California experience.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, and San Diego State University.
Munro, P., & Elliot, J. (1987). Instructional growth through peer coaching. *Journal of Staff Development*, *8*(1), 25–28.
Munson, C.E. (1993). *Clinical social work supervision* (2nd ed.). New York: Haworth Press.
Murray, M. (1991). *Beyond the myths and magic of mentoring: How to facilitate an effective mentoring program.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
Myers, I., & McCulley, M. (1985). *Manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
Myers, I.B., & Briggs, K. (1962). *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
Neubert, G.A., & Bratton, E.C. (1987). Team coaching: Staff development side by side. *Educational Leadership*, *44*, 23–26.
Newby, T.J., & Heide, A. (1992). The value of mentoring. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 5*(4), 2–15.
Palsha, S.A., Bailey, D.B., Jr., Vandiviere, P., & Munn, D. (1990). A study of employee stability and turnover in home-based early intervention. *Journal of Early Intervention, 14*(4), 342–351.
Phillips, M.D., & Glickman, C.D. (1991). Peer coaching: Developmental approach to enhancing teacher thinking. *Journal of Staff Development*, *12*(2), 20–25.
Professional Development Center. (1994, October). *Essentials of management*. Presented for the Western Montana Comprehensive Development Center, Missoula.
Pusch, L., McCabe, J., & Pusch, W. (1985). Personalized on-site coaching: A successful staff development project at Swift Current. *Education Canada*, *25*(3), 36–39.
Raney, P., & Robbins, P. (1989). Professional growth and support through peer coaching. *Educational Leadership*, *5*, 35–38.
Reid, B.J., & Bross, M. (1993). Project TRAIN: Training rural area interventionists to meet needs. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, *12*(1), 3–8.
Robbins, P. (1991). *How to plan and implement a peer coaching program*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Robertson, S.C. (1992). *Find a mentor or be one.* Rockville, MD: American Occupational Therapy Association.
Robiner, W.M., & Schofield, W. (1990). References on supervision in clinical and counseling psychology. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *21*(4), 297–312.
Rowan, L.E., Thorp, E.K., & McCollum, J.A. (1990). An interdisciplinary practicum to foster infant–family and teaming competencies in speech-language pathologists. *Infants and Young Children*, *3*(2), 58–66.
Schlechty, P., & Vance, V. (1981). Do academically able teachers leave education? The North Carolina case. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *63*, 106–112.

Schreiber, B. (1990). Colleague to colleague: Peer coaching for effective in-house training. *Education Libraries*, *15*(1–2), 30–35.
Sergiovanni, T.J. (1991). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective* (2nd ed.). Needham, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
Seyforth, J.T., & Bost, W.A. (1986). Teacher turnover and the quality of worklife in schools: An empirical study. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, *20*(1), 1–6.
Smith, N., & Acheson, K. (1991). *Peer consultation: An analysis of several types of programs* (Vol. 34, 6). Eugene: University of Oregon, Oregon School Study Council.
Smith, R.D. (1993). Mentoring new teachers: Strategies, structures, and successes. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *20*(4), 5–18.
Sparks, G.M., & Bruder, S. (1987). Before and after peer coaching. *Educational Leadership*, *45*(3), 54–57.
Stott, K., & Walker, A. (1992). Developing school leaders through mentoring: A Singapore perspective. *School Organization*, *12*(2), 153–164.
Swarzman, J.B. (1993). Communication and coaching. In R.H. Anderson & K.J. Snyder (Eds.), *Clinical supervision: Coaching for higher performance* (pp. 113–134). Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.
Thurman, S.K., Brown, C., Bryan, M., Henderson, A., Klein, M.D., Sainato, D.M., & Wiley, T. (1992). Some perspectives on preparing personnel to work with at risk children birth to five. In L.M. Bullock & R.L. Simpson (Eds.), *Critical issues in special education: Implications for personnel preparation* (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 343 342, pp. 97–101). (Available from Programs in Special Education, University of North Texas, Post Office Box 13857, Denton, Texas 76203)
U.S. Department of Education. (1992). Personnel preparation in the 21st century: Response to Simpson, Whelan, and Zabel. *Remedial and Special Education, 14*(2), 23–24.
Wildman, T.M., Magliaro, S.G., Niles, R.A., & Niles, J.A. (1992). Teacher mentoring: An analysis of roles, activities, and conditions. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *43*(3), 200–204.
Wolfe, B. (1994). *Coaching as follow up to training*. Unpublished manuscript, Portage Project, Region V Resource Access Project, Eau Claire, WI.
Wolfe, P., & Robbins, P. (1989). *Opening doors: An introduction to peer coaching*. Alexandria, VA: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Wright, K.S. (1992). From the odyssey to the university: What is the thing called mentoring? *ACA Bulletin, 79,* 45–53.
Yoder, D.E., Coleman, P.P., & Gallagher, J.J. (1990). *Personnel needs—Allied health personnel meeting the demands of Part H, PL 99-457.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.