International Coaching Psychology Review

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International Coaching Psychology Review

Notes for Contributors

The *ICPR* is an international publication with a focus on the theory, practice and research in the field of coaching psychology. Submission of academic articles, systematic reviews and other research reports which support evidence-based practice are welcomed. The *ICPR* may also publish conference reports and papers given at the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (BPS SGCP) and Australian Psychological Society Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (APS IGCP) conferences, notices and items of news relevant to the International Coaching Psychology Community.

Case studies and book reviews will be considered.

The *ICPR* is published by the BPS SGCP in association with the APS IGCP.

1. Circulation
The circulation of the *ICPR* is worldwide. It is available in hardcopy and PDF format. Papers are invited and encouraged from authors throughout the world. It is available free in paper and PDF format to members of the BPS SGCP, and free in PDF format to APS IGCP members as a part of their annual membership.

2. Length
Papers should normally be no more than 6000 words, although the Co-Editors retain discretion to publish papers beyond this length in cases where the clear and concise expression of the scientific content requires greater length.

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The publication operates a policy of anonymous peer review. Papers will normally be scrutinised and commented on by at least two independent expert referees (in addition to the relevant Co-Editor) although the Co-Editor may process a paper at his or her discretion. The referees will not be aware of the identity of the author. All information about authorship including personal acknowledgements and institutional affiliations should be confined to the title page (and the text should be free of such clues as identifiable self-citations, e.g. 'In our earlier work…').

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Editorial: Coaching psychology: quantitative, qualitative, and theoretical perspectives

Michael Cavanagh & Stephen Palmer

W E HAVE a bumper issue of the *International Coaching Psychology Review (ICPR)* to start 2011. Both the number and strength of submissions is encouraging, and suggests that some good research is happening in the field of coaching and coaching psychology. It is particularly encouraging to have received a balance of quantitative, qualitative and theoretical papers. In this issue, we are also proud to introduce a new section to the *ICPR* – the Debate. It is our hope that, where possible, each issue will have paper raising issues of concern in our developing field, along with invited reactions to that paper. We hope that this section will stimulate wider discussion and responses from you. But we are getting ahead of ourselves....

Leading us off in a positive direction is Alex Linley and Gurpal Minhas, who report on a quantitative study into the strengths of those who report they are strong spotting strengths in others. Their findings are interesting for coaching psychology in that they suggest people who are good at spotting strengths in others are strong in making connections, enabling others and giving feedback – all core tasks in coaching.

Francesca Elston and Ilona Boniwell follow with an equally interesting qualitative study of the effects of using strengths in the workplace following strength based coaching. Participants in this study were six female executives and a grounded theory approach revealed that each experienced virtuous cycles that enabled them to overcome factors that had previously blocked their use of strengths.

Our second qualitative study was conducted by Jonathan Passmore and Lance Mortimer. They used Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis to explore the experience of 15 driving instructors who were learning coaching as a pedagogical tool in driver training. They found that coaching was experienced as a useful tool in teaching learner drivers.

Ray Elliot presents us with a theoretical paper exploring a framework for leadership coaching. His framework seeks to ensure that evidence based knowledge in the field of leadership is central to coaching efforts in this domain.

Wendy Madden, Suzy Green and Tony Grant report on a coaching intervention among primary school male students. This study looked into the impact of strengths-based coaching on the students' reported engagement and hope. They found that coaching improved wellbeing, and they speculate that this may indicate coaching may be a useful tool in the prevention of mental health problems.

Our Debate article this issue was contributed by Tony Grant. He focuses on developing an agenda for teaching Coaching Psychology. Responses to this article were sought from representatives of the major coaching psychology stakeholders in this debate – coaching psychologists, coaches, coach educators, professional bodies and industry representatives. They provide some interesting perspectives on this issue. If this article or the responses stimulate some thinking in you, we invite you to contribute 250 to 1000 words for the next issue.

To whet your appetites for the next issue, the Debate article will be based on Cavanagh and Lane's keynote at the 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology held in

London last December. They discuss the changing nature of our world and the impact this has on practice, research and the status of coaching psychology as field of professional practice. Expect some controversial conclusions!

Finally, in this issue we have a Congress report plus a news update from the leaders of the SGCP and IGCP – there is much going on in the field of coaching psychology, but we will let you read this for yourself.

We commend this issue to you and look forward to a great 2011 for coaching psychology.

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The strengths of the strengthspotter: Individual characteristics associated with the identification of strengths in others

P. Alex Linley & Gurpal Minhas

Objectives: The identification of a client's personal strengths within the coaching environment is becoming a growing focus for coaching psychologists, driven in part by the continued growth of the positive psychology movement and in part by the evidence for the benefits of strengths use. This study set out to examine the strengths that may be found in more effective strengthspotters, that is, people who are skilled in the identification and development of strengths in others.

Design: An online survey was used to collect data on the Strengthspotting Scale, together with an assessment of 60 different strengths using the Realise2 model (www.realise2.com).

Method: Data were collected from 528 respondents. Analyses used included correlation analysis with the 60 strengths of Realise2 and the five subscales of the Strengthspotting Scale. Multiple regression analyses were used to identify the unique contribution of significantly correlated strengths on the five strengthspotting domains.

Results: The four strengths of Connector, Enabler, Esteem Builder and Feedback were found across all five subscales of the Strengthspotting Scale, through the correlation analyses. Using multiple regression, the strengths of Connector, Enabler and Feedback were significant predictors for each strengthspotting domain, suggesting that these may be the essence of the personal characteristics of an effective strengthspotter.

Conclusions: These data are the first to identify the potential key strengths of the strengthspotter. The data provide insights for coaching psychologists and other practitioners who wish to focus on developing their own ability to coach strengths in others, through indicating which may be the key strengths that enable the capability of effective strengthspotting.

Keywords: Strengths; strengthspotting; coaching; coaching psychology.

COACHES and coaching psychologists are increasingly using the lessons and tools of positive psychology in their practice (Biswas-Diener, 2010). Notable amongst this 'positive psychology tool kit' are approaches to the identification, assessment and development of individual strengths. There are a number of ways in which strengths may be identified, using both open-ended and psychometric methods. More open-ended approaches include the Dependable Strengths Articulation Process developed by Bernard Haldane (1947; see also Duttro, 2003), the identification of A-grade activities described by Pegg and Moore (2005), the conversational strengths articulation process described by Forster (2009), and the Individual Strengths Assessment described by Linley (2008a, ch. 4).

These approaches are considered to be open-ended because they do not have a defined outcome within a pre-defined set of parameters, as psychometric approaches to the identification of strengths do. For example, each of the psychometric approaches described below assess strengths against a pre-determined range of strengths. In contrast, the open-ended approaches described above employ a more explicitly social-constructivist approach, whereby the identification of strengths emerges from, and is labelled within, the dialogue between facilitator and client. All of these approaches tend to use a 'funnel' approach, whereby the process begins by asking a series of broad questions about the person, their experiences, the activities they enjoy, and the areas where they excel. These areas are then

refined through co-construction between client and facilitator, in order to define, agree and potentially label a core set of strengths for the individual.

A key distinction between the open-ended approaches and the psychometric approaches are that the language used in the open-ended approach will be shaped and agreed by the client and the facilitator together. In contrast, in the psychometric approach, the language is pre-determined as the language of the assessment tool itself. This lends itself to greater efficacy in creating and building a shared language of strengths, but is not necessarily as effective in grounding the individual strengths concepts in the lived experience of the individual client.

Psychometric approaches to the identification of strengths include the use of one of a number of available strengths tools, including StrengthsFinder (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001) or its recent revision, StrengthsFinder 2.0 (Rath, 2007; www.strengthsfinder.com), the VIA Inventory of Strengths (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; www.viastrengths.org), Realise2 (Linley, Willars & Biswas-Diener, 2010; www.realise2.com), or the Inspirational Leadership Tool (Morris & Garrett, 2010; www.inspiredleadership.org.uk).

Advantages of the more open-ended strengths identification approaches include their flexibility and adaptability to client need and client language, and the client experience of the results being more grounded in and emerging from the dialogue with their coach. The disadvantages include the greater requirement for expertise in strengths identification and development on the part of the coach, and the fact that any language developed may not be a shared language of strengths, but more limited to the coach and the client. These advantages and disadvantages are mirrored in the opposite direction by psychometric strengths assessments.

Psychometric strengths assessments are more easily and quickly administered, and depend less on the strengthspotting expertise of the coach. They provide an immediate shared language of strengths that has proven helpful in broader organisational and social contexts. Their disadvantage is that the strengths identified have not emerged through the coaching dialogue, and so may not sit as naturally with either client or coach. This limitation, however, can be quickly overcome by the coach working with the client to identify areas where this strength may have helped or hindered them, since providing the evidence of experience for strengths identification can also serve as a powerful grounding experience for the client.

Whichever approach may be adopted by a coach in working with their client to identify strengths, some of the effectiveness of the coaching intervention will be determined by the coach's skills as a strengthspotter, that is, their ability and motivation to identify and develop strengths in their clients. The *Strengthspotting Scale* was developed by Linley, Garcea et al. (2010) to provide a ready self-assessment tool for coaches to assess their own strengthspotting skills, as well as, of course, to inform future research inquiry and developments in this area.

Linley, Garcea et al. (2010) identified and concurrently validated five dimensions of strengthspotting, namely: (1) *Ability* as a strengthspotter – how good you are at doing it; (2) *Emotional* reaction to strengthspotting, since people who do this well naturally get a buzz from doing it; (3) *Motivation* to identify strengths in others, and why we might think that it is important to do so; (4) *Application* of strengthspotting – what people do when they have actually identified a strength in someone; and (5) *Frequency* of use – how often they get to practice strengthspotting. The *Strengthspotting Scale* was shown to have convergent validity with extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, optimism, positive affect and strengths knowledge, discriminant validity with negative affect, and no association with conscientiousness or

neuroticism (Linley, Garcea et al., 2010). Convergent validity demonstrates that a measure is associated positively with other established measures as would be expected and predicted by theory. Discriminant validity demonstrates that a measure is associated negatively, or not at all, with other established measures, as would be expected and predicted by theory.

In their consideration of future research directions in relation to the *Strengthspotting Scale,* Linley, Garcea et al. (2010) raised the question of whether different strengths would be differentially related to strengthspotting capability. This research question forms the focus of the current paper. Given that this is the first investigation of its type, we did not specify directional hypotheses or predict specific strengths which may associate more strongly with strengthspotting capability. Instead, we treat this as an exploratory study that is focused on providing a first answer to the question of which individual characteristics (strengths) may lend themselves to greater strengthspotting capability.

Answering this question has implications for coaches and other practitioners (e.g. L&D consultants, HR Business Partners, therapists, social workers) who may be focused on the assessment and development of strengths in their clients. If we know more about the personal strengths that enable strengthspotting, there is then the possibility to recruit for these strengths at the selection stage, or to focus on the development of these strengths through continuing professional and personal development.

Method
Participants
Participants were 528 people recruited following their completion of *Realise2,* Capp's online strengths assessment and development tool (www.realise2.com). This included 190 males and 330 females, with eight who did not disclose their demographic data. Participants had a mean age of 41.4 years (SD=10.48 years) and a range of

15 to 68 years. They were primarily of a White ethnic background (89.8 per cent), with other significant ethnic backgrounds being Indian (2.1 per cent) and 'other' (1.5 per cent).

Measures
Realise2 is an online strengths assessment and development tool that assesses 60 different attributes. Participants were asked to respond using a one to seven fully-anchored Likert scale response format. Ratings were provided for each attribute across three independent dimensions of *energy* (how energising they found something), *performance* (how good they were at doing something), and *use* (how often they were able to do something). These responses were then classified, using a proprietary scoring technology, as Realised or Unrealised Strengths, Learned Behaviours, or Weaknesses. The 60 attributes included in *Realise2* have been described at length by Linley, Willars and Biswas-Diener (2010), while the statistical properties of the tool are reported extensively by Linley (2009), including data on internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability and multiple concurrent and discriminant validity studies.

The *Strengthspotting Scale* is a 20-item scale developed by Linley, Garcea et al. (2010). It includes five subscales of four items each for: (1) *Ability* as a strengthspotter – how good you are at doing it; (2) *Emotional* reaction to strengthspotting, since people who do this well naturally get a buzz from doing it, feeling a sense of positive energy and engagement; (3) *Motivation* to identify strengths in others, and why we might think that it is important to do so; (4) *Application* of strengthspotting – what people do when they have actually identified a strength in someone; and (5) *Frequency* of use – how often they get to practice strengthspotting. Participants responded using a one (strongly agree) through seven (strongly disagree) fully-anchored Likert scale response format. Internal consistency reliability for the current study was α=.91 for Ability, α=.89 for

Emotional, α=.83 for Motivation, α=.80 for Application and α= .87 for Frequency.

Design and Procedure

Data were collected online, using the securely hosted online strengths assessment tool, *Realise2*. Participants logged in to the site using a secure access and password, and then completed the *Realise2* strengths assessment tool first, followed by the *Strengthspotting Scale* second. In all cases, it was made clear that this additional completion of the *Strengthspotting Scale* was entirely optional and was to support our ongoing research programme. Data were collected over a four-week period for all participants, with concurrent completion of both *Realise2* and the *Strengthspotting Scale* in all cases (i.e., there was no delay between the completion of these two measures).

Data Analysis

First, we correlated the performance data from *Realise2* with the five subscales of the *Strengthspotting Scale*. We opted to focus on the performance dimension of strengths, because our interest here was in how what the best strengthspotters did that enabled them to be effective in their identification and development of strengths. Second, having reviewed the pattern of correlations across the 60 strengths, we regressed all strengths with *r*>.30 on the appropriate subscale of the *Strengthspotting Scale*, in order to determine which of those strengths most strongly correlated with the subscale indeed predicted the most unique variance. For this multiple regression analysis, we used the enter method, given that there was no theoretical or logical rationale as to different strengths preceding one another in their influence on strengthspotting.

Results

Table 1 presents the correlations between the performance dimensions of the 60 strengths of *Realise2* and the five subscales of the *Strengthspotting Scale*. The most significant associations (*r*>.30 when rounded) with the

Ability subscale were with the eight strengths of Catalyst, Connector, Emotional Awareness, Enabler, Esteem Builder, Feedback, Personalisation and Rapport Builder.

The most significant associations (*r*>.30 when rounded) with the *Emotional* subscale were with the five strengths of Connector, Empathic Connection, Enabler, Esteem Builder, and Feedback.

The most significant associations (*r*>.30 when rounded) with the *Frequency* subscale were with the eight strengths of Catalyst, Connector, Emotional Awareness, Empathic Connection, Enabler, Esteem Builder, Feedback, and Personalisation.

The most significant associations (*r*>.30 when rounded) with the *Motivation* subscale were with the five strengths of Catalyst, Connector, Enabler, Esteem Builder, and Feedback.

The most significant associations (*r*>.30 when rounded) with the *Application* subscale were with the 11 strengths of Catalyst, Connector, Counterpoint, Creativity, Enabler, Esteem Builder, Feedback, Growth, Innovation, Legacy and Persuasion. Notably, significant correlations with the five strengths of Connector, Enabler, Esteem Builder, and Feedback were found across all five subscales of the *Strengthspotting Scale*, suggesting that these may be consistent core strengths of an effective strengthspotter.

To investigate these associations further, we conducted multiple regression analyses using the enter method, regressing the strengths identified on the appropriate subscale of the *Strengthspotting Scale*. The results are presented in Table 2. In summary, the significant predictors for the *Ability* subscale were Connector, Emotional Awareness, Enabler, Feedback and Personalisation. The significant predictors for the *Emotional* subscale were Connector, Empathic Connection, Enabler, Esteem Builder and Feedback. The significant predictors for the *Frequency* subscale were Connector, Empathic Connection, Enabler and Feedback. The significant predictors for the *Motivation* subscale were Connector, Enabler and Feedback. The

Table 1: Strengthspotting Scale Subscale Correlations with Realise2 Dimensions of Performance.

	Ability	Emotional	Frequency	Motivation	Application
Action	.174	.167	.156	.158	.275
Adherence	−.010	−.013	−.040	−.044	−.083
Adventure	.133	.161	.158	.191	.209
Authenticity	.149	.176	.132	.149	.161
Bounceback	.106	.124	.139	.153	.183
Catalyst	.347	.280	.329	.321	.456
Centred	.201	.190	.233	.189	.230
Change Agent	.182	.143	.194	.188	.286
Compassion	.252	.282	.274	.198	.245
Competitive	.122	.047	.065	.039	.122
Connector	.330	.407	.428	.364	.373
Counterpoint	.236	.203	.234	.203	.298
Courage	.127	.130	.135	.123	.205
Creativity	.243	.219	.236	.235	.320
Curiosity	.150	.167	.175	.152	.135
Detail	.026	−.033	.010	−.019	−.038
Drive	.123	.199	.152	.153	.215
Efficacy	.180	.115	.136	.096	.231
Emotional Awareness	.388	.264	.324	.151	.250
Empathic Connection	.290	.343	.361	.215	.268
Enabler	.370	.374	.365	.454	.506
Equality	.184	.191	.206	.216	.171
Esteem Builder	.439	.422	.435	.366	.437
Explainer	.214	.188	.210	.173	.23
Feedback	.416	.396	.418	.373	.442
Gratitude	.128	.191	.224	.196	.161
Growth	.187	.275	.256	.226	.317
Humility	.195	.247	.228	.222	.223
Humour	.173	.131	.186	.098	.135
Improver	.209	.180	.187	.196	.293
Incubator	.093	.080	.107	.082	.038
Innovation	.237	.194	.232	.212	.343
Judgement	.181	.181	.149	.192	.160
Legacy	.254	.277	.281	.256	.336
Listener	.200	.226	.247	.188	.153
Mission	.148	.236	.207	.206	.195
Moral Compass	.231	.248	.217	.232	.214
Narrator	.266	.232	.293	.218	.238
Optimism	.126	.178	.154	.196	.210
Order	.049	.103	.052	.083	.088
Persistence	.020	.062	.047	.105	.029
Personal Responsibility	.091	.079	.058	.066	.086
Personalisation	.328	.255	.309	.249	.195
Persuasion	.270	.269	.251	.281	.340

	Ability	Emotional	Frequency	Motivation	Application
Planful	.017	.074	.057	.080	.057
Prevention	.133	.109	.143	.124	.175
Pride	.178	.170	.123	.117	.163
Rapport Builder	.295	.222	.283	.197	.226
Reconfiguration	.093	.095	.121	.093	.204
Relationship Deepener	.245	.203	.245	.155	.202
Resilience	.118	.083	.127	.110	.146
Resolver	.114	.067	.084	.085	.161
Scribe	.244	.123	.163	.081	.160
Self-awareness	.232	.181	.212	.127	.224
Service	.177	.253	.231	.247	.204
Spotlight	.220	.201	.198	.219	.278
Strategic Awareness	.243	.221	.269	.263	.249
Time Optimiser	.103	.150	.191	.158	.196
Unconditionality	.195	.231	.205	.190	.131
Work Ethic	.017	.160	.092	.147	.116

Note: Correlations are reported for performance. Values of <.085 are non-significant. Values of .086 to .110 are significant at $p<.05$. Values of .114 to .136 are significant at $p<.01$. Values of .139 to .506 are significant at $p<.001$.

significant predictors for the *Application* subscale were Catalyst, Connector, Enabler, Feedback and Growth.

Across all five multiple regressions that were conducted, the strengths of Connector, Enabler and Feedback were significant predictors for each subscale of the *Strengthspotting Scale*, thereby suggesting that these three strengths may be at the heart of what it takes to be an effective strengthspotter, even when controlling for other strengths associated with different strengthspotting domains.

Discussion

This study provides the first data of which we are aware that explores the strengths of the strengthspotter, and in so doing answers one of the fundamental research questions raised by Linley, Garcea et al. (2010). Our findings show that there are a number of strengths associated with the different domains of strengthspotting capability, but

the five strengths of Connector, Enabler, Esteem Builder and Feedback were found across all five subscales of the *Strengthspotting Scale*, suggesting that these may be consistent core strengths of an effective strength-spotter. When the analysis was taken to the second stage, using multiple regression to cancel out the shared variance between strengths, the strengths of Connector, Enabler and Feedback were significant predictors for each strengthspotting domain, suggesting that these may be the essence of the personal characteristics of an effective strengthspotter.

On this basis, we might expect expert strengthspotters to be people who are able to make connections between things (Connector), who are focused on helping others to achieve the things of which they are capable (Enabler), and who are well-versed in giving people positive or negative feedback on their own performance (Feedback). The inclusion of Connector here is perhaps least

Table 2: Multiple Regression of Most Strongly Correlated Strengths by Performance on Strengthspotting Scale Subscales.

	B	SE (B)	β	t	R	R²
Ability:					.578	.334
Catalyst	.300	.166	.082	1.810		
Connector	.282	.134	.088	2.106*		
Emotional Awareness	.809	.162	.208	4.998***		
Enabler	.434	.153	.129	2.834**		
Esteem Builder	.405	.210	.096	1.925		
Feedback	.547	.171	.148	3.201***		
Personalisation	.377	.168	.094	2.246*		
Rapport Builder	.159	.142	.047	1.122		
Emotional:					.555	.309
Connector	.739	.137	.222	5.397***		
Empathic Connection	.588	.162	.150	3.643***		
Enabler	.501	.154	.143	3.247***		
Esteem Builder	.533	.212	.122	2.513*		
Feedback	.604	.179	.156	3.373***		
Frequency:					.586	.343
Catalyst	.198	.182	.048	1.088		
Connector	.831	.148	.229	5.631***		
Emotional Awareness	.362	.201	.082	1.799		
Empathic Connection	.435	.200	.102	2.176*		
Enabler	.400	.172	.105	2.323*		
Esteem Builder	.371	.240	.078	1.547		
Feedback	.712	.192	.170	3.703***		
Personalisation	.330	.189	.072	1.743		
Motivation:					.533	.284
Catalyst	.083	.170	.022	.487		
Connector	.648	.135	.199	4.795***		
Enabler	.949	.161	.277	5.897***		
Esteem Builder	.370	.207	.086	1.783		
Feedback	.476	.178	.126	2.667**		
Application:			.640	.410		
Catalyst	.405	.182	.098	2.226*		
Connector	.471	.139	.130	3.381***		
Counterpoint	.110	.201	.025	.547		
Creativity	.159	.234	.037	.677		
Enabler	.722	.172	.189	4.192***		
Esteem Builder	.417	.214	.087	1.947		
Feedback	.654	.182	.156	3.600***		
Growth	.570	.184	.114	3.105**		
Innovation	.336	.228	.081	1.472		
Legacy	.099	.174	.023	.571		
Persuasion	.313	.178	.069	1.760		

Note: Multiple regressions conducted using the enter method, with all predictor variables regressed simultaneously.
*$p<.05$ **$p<.01$ ***$p<.001$

intuitive, and may reflect the necessity for the effective strengthspotter to be able to make connections between different strengths, situations, strategies and opportunities in order to be most effective in their development of others. We note explicitly that this research was exploratory, and so the findings here should be taken as such. We did not have theory-driven hypotheses that informed our analytic strategy, but rather sought to explore the associations that existed, given that there is no prior data or evidence in this area of research. As such, we note that our explanations and interpretations are by definition post hoc, rather than a priori, and should be interpreted as such.

Of course, this data is all based on self-report, so we do not know if participants who rated themselves as more capable strengthspotters are actually more capable strengthspotters in practice. Further, the participants were drawn from a general population of people completing *Realise2*, and while this almost certainly includes some coaches and other development practitioners, they did not comprise the entire sample from which our data are drawn. As such, there are future research opportunities to address these questions both with particular population groups who are focused on the identification and development of strengths in others (e.g. coaches, social workers, therapists) and to do so in a way that also involves the client perspective or other objective data on the effectiveness of the practitioner's strengthspotting capability.

To address these questions, future research should seek to address four key questions. First, qualitative investigation and analysis of what is actually happening in the experiential world of the strengthspotter may help us better understand the core psychological processes that underpin effective strengthspotting. Examining the phenomenological experience of the strengthspotter, as they are engaged in their strengthspotting, would likely provide a number of fruitful research avenues that would serve to deepen our nascent under-

standing of this individual capability and socio-psychological process.

Second, while the *Strengthspotting Scale* already includes an 'Ability' subscale, this is by definition self-report, and so only provides data on a person's perceptions of their own strengthspotting abilities. It would be instructive to look to the development of a more robust assessment of strengthspotting ability, for example, through the scoring of vignettes that allow for the potential identification of strengths, through interview assessment designed to elicit strengthspotting capability, or through a peer- or client-rated multi-rater assessment, thereby allowing the strengthspotters own ability ratings to be correlated with those abilities as they are perceived by others significant to the context (e.g. colleagues and/or clients).

Third, establishment of a more robust assessment of strengthspotting ability would then lend itself to experimental comparisons of strengthspotting ability across different groups. Comparison groups of interest may include, for example, male relative to female (with females predicted to demonstrate higher levels of relational strengths, according to evolutionary theory); coaching psychologists relative to coaches (with coaching psychologists having a greater psychological training, and so being potentially more equipped for the psychological process of strengthspotting), and coaching psychologists relative to therapists or social workers (with therapists and social workers explicitly working with strengths – see Linley & Burns, 2010; Saleebey, 2006).

Fourth, we did not examine explicitly the role played by personality factors in the relationship between individual strengths and the strengthspotting domains. Interpretable correlations between the *Realise2* strengths and Big Five personality measures have been reported, typically being in the low-medium effect size range (Linley, 2009). Similarly, correlations between Big Five personality measures and the *Strengthspotting Scale* have also been reported (Linley, Garcea et al., 2010). As such, the question remains as to

whether the associations between *Realise2* strengths and strengthspotting are simply statistical artefacts of latent associations across personality dimensions. This can be addresses in future research by including personality measures in any data collection and analysis.

The question of whether strengths can be developed remains an open one, with two broad camps. First, there are those who would argue that strengths are innate talents, and as such, we are essentially born with what we have. Second, there are those – specifically including the authors – who believe that far from this being the case, strengths can be developed. It is certainly true that we may have predispositions towards some areas rather than others, yet it is equally the case that through effort, attention and practice we can improve our performance in different areas of our choosing. This dynamic development of strengths is the underlying philosophical principle on which the *Realise2* model was constructed, and which was used in this research.

Importantly, broader research from education and other fields shows quite clearly the limitations of having what is described as a 'fixed mindset' relative to a 'growth mindset' (Dweck, 2006). The effective deployment, development and realisation of strengths depends on adopting a perspective that sees strengths as capable of development, rather than as more innate, fixed qualities. While this article does not speak specifically to the question of strengths development, the role of the strengthspotter is at least half redundant if this premise is rejected.

Coaching psychologists and practitioners in other helping professions are shifting their focus more towards understanding the strengths of their clients, and how using these strengths can help enable their clients to achieve their goals (cf. Linley, Nielsen et al., 2010). Hence, understanding the strengths of the strengthspotter may enable and equip us to select and develop coaching psychologists and other practitioners for this skill set. In doing so, we will understand more about the strengths that will enable us to strengthen others.

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A grounded theory study of the value derived by women in financial services through a coaching intervention to help them identify their strengths and practise using them in the workplace

Francesca Elston & Dr Ilona Boniwell

Objectives: *There are several definitions of strengths within psychology, united by a common theme: strengths are what people do best and most easily. Research shows that actively using strengths provides a range of benefits, and suggests that strengths-based coaching is a valuable approach. This study's purpose was to investigate strengths-based coaching using qualitative methods, concentrating on the experience of the coachee.*

Design: *The study explored what happened when six women in financial services practised using their strengths at work, through a coaching intervention and the VIA strengths inventory. Through three semi-structured interviews centred around a coaching intervention, participants described their experience using strengths, and the effects of greater awareness and practice of strengths.*

Methods: *The data was analysed using grounded theory. The value of strengths emerged as the central phenomenon, consisting of eight sub-themes: positive emotion, inspiring action, attention to the positive, feeling authentic, awareness of own value, valuing difference, sense of achievement and positive reflections from others.*

Results: *The study found that all participants derived value from using strengths. This appeared to lead to a 'virtuous circle': this positive benefit reduced the intervening factors that previously impeded using strengths. The virtuous circle was not identical for each participant, but all experienced it.*

Conclusions: *The study finds ways in which women may use strengths and gain value from using strengths in the workplace. This has practical implications for those wishing to improve their workplace experience and increase engagement with work, and for those who coach and employ them.*

T HE USE of strengths in coaching is becoming increasingly popular, and there is a growing body of research in this area. This provides valuable information about how coaches can best work with strengths to help their clients achieve results.

However, this is still a relatively recent field of study. One area that is not well researched is the experience people have when they are using their strengths. Understanding this could be valuable to coaches in using strengths with clients. This qualitative study of a strengths coaching intervention hopes to provide some insight into that question.

Review of literature

Linley, Willars and Biswas-Diener (2010c) point out the need for a clear definition of strengths. The canonical classification is the VIA-IS (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), where virtues are defined as 'the core characteristics valued by moral philosophers and religious thinkers', and strengths as 'the psychological ingredients…that define the virtues' (Peterson & Seligman, 2004, p.13).

Buckingham and Clifton (2002) define strengths as 'the ability to consistently provide near-perfect performance'. Linley (2008) defines a strength as 'a pre-existing capacity for a particular way of behaving,

thinking, or feeling that is authentic and energising to the user, and enables optimal functioning, development and performance' (p.9). Definitions are broader still within counselling, vocational psychology and social work, suggesting that strengths lie in both knowledge and skills, and that they are situated in relationships and communities as well as individuals (Smith, 2006a; Saleebey, 2001). This study uses Linley's (2008) definition, which allows a flexible definition of strengths, but places them within the individual. This fits with the focus on coaching.

Many strengths are known to be beneficial. Peterson, Park and Seligman (2006) and Peterson et al. (2007) associate certain character strengths with wellbeing. Lopez, Snyder and Rasmussen (2003) summarise links between strengths and a range of physical, psychological and social benefits. There is evidence that strengths are valuable in counselling and social work, and that strengths-based methods bring benefits for clients. (e.g. Brun & Rapp, 2001; Saleebey, 1996; Smith, 2006a).

There is growing evidence to support the benefits of strengths use. Linley et al. (2010b) find that strengths use is associated with goal progress, which is associated with greater need satisfaction, and both these are associated with increased wellbeing. Proctor, Maltby and Linley (2009) find that strengths use uniquely predicts subjective wellbeing. Minhas (2010) finds that using strengths could lead to an increase in self-esteem, psychological wellbeing and satisfaction with life. Linley et al. (2010a) provide a concise overview of the benefits of strengths use.

The use of strengths might improve experience in the workplace. Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) find that strengths use increases employee engagement. Strengths might be valuable in providing a positive language for differences from organisational norms, and enabling greater authenticity and engagement (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Minhas (2010) finds that strengths use led to significantly increased engage-

ment. Linley, Woolston and Biswas-Diener (2009) find that people who use their strengths perform better at work.

There is also evidence that strengths are of value in coaching. Linley et al. (2010c) provide several case studies of successful strengths coaching. Oades, Crowe and Nguyen (2009) describe how a strengths-based coaching model in a hospital led to more powerful and affirmative frames for mental health patients. They credit the model with changing individual mindsets and cultures. Although Minhas's (2010) work does not involve a coach, the action planning facility of the *Realise2* strengths tool (Linley et al., 2010c) is used as part of the intervention.

Linley et al. (2010b) observe that it is important not just to know that strengths are useful but to understand how they work. They propose a model that links strength to wellbeing through the achievement of self-concordant goals. However, whilst providing an explanation for how strengths lead to benefits, this model does not address what happens to people when they use their strengths. It is focused on the external outcomes of strengths use rather than the accompanying internal processes.

The literature on strengths suggest several possibilities for how strengths work within us. For example, strengths may be linked to a positive self-concept. Roberts et al. (2005) invoke the 'reflected best self – envisioning the self at one's best, and then acting on this vision to translate possibilities for the extraordinary into reality' (p.712). Their theory is among the most detailed accounts of how strengths might develop, but they do not adduce evidence to support it.

Snyder et al. (2006) find that therapists' assessment of strengths leads to greater awareness and flexibility for the client in determining routes to desired outcomes (see also Sheridan et al., 2004; Smith, 2006b). Robitschek and Woodson (2006) claim that positive self-exploration is an essential component of strengths.

However, Seligman et al. (2005) find that focusing on 'you at your best' alone does not increase wellbeing. Also, strengths use predicts wellbeing even after controlling for self-efficacy (Govindji & Linley, 2007), but strengths knowledge does not. This is consistent with Linley et al.'s (2010b) model of the strengths use leading to goal achievement, and with Pritchard's (2009) findings that it is not simply sufficient to identify one's strengths – a development component is crucial too.

It has been theorised that strengths might link to self-efficacy. Pritchard (2009) shows that academic self-efficacy increased in students as a result of a strengths intervention. Govindji and Linley (2007) find that strengths knowledge and strengths use are significantly associated with self-efficacy. Harris, Thoresen and Lopez (2007) propose that strengths-based approaches act cognitively, leading people to reframe problems more constructively, and cite evidence supporting this.

However, Smith (2006b) describes 'countless stories about people who evidence low perceived self-efficacy but display surprising strength in dealing with challenging situations' (p.135). Also strengths use predicts SWB and psychological wellbeing even after controlling for self-efficacy (Govindji & Linley, 2007). So this alone is insufficient to explain strengths,

There is evidence that strengths may relate not just to individual character but also to the environment. Biswas-Diener (2006) finds 'differences between and within cultures in terms of…cultural institutions that promote each strength' (p.293) and, interestingly, the students interviewed by Steen, Kachorek and Peterson (2003) suggested that 'school actually hindered the development of certain character strengths' (p.10). There is evidence that case-workers' ability to regard the client positively is critical to successful development of strength (e.g. Noble, Perkins & Fatout, 2000; Saleebey, 1996; Snyder et al., 2006; Wong, 2006).

Relationships may also affect strengths use. Peterson and Seligman (2003) speculate that 'people behaved differently by turning to others, which in turn changed their social worlds so that the relevant behaviours were rewarded and thus maintained' (p.383). Losada and Heaphy (2004) show that interpersonal connections build durable psychological resources. Researchers in counselling and social work situate strengths beyond the self, in relationships, communities and the environment (e.g. Noble et al., 2000; Saleebey, 1996; Smith, 2006a).

Aims of the study

The body of literature reviewed above suggests that there is growing evidence for the value of strengths in coaching. However, the question of how strengths work has not yet been answered satisfactorily.

This 'pilot' study aimed to provide some insight into the question: what is happening to people when they use their strengths? It was hoped that this might be a valuable addition to the growing body of work on the benefits of strengths use, for two reasons:, because it focuses primarily on the individual experience of strengths and because of the use of qualitative research methods.

The study was centred round a coaching intervention in which each of the participants identified their strengths and then actively practised using their strengths in the workplace. A qualitative grounded theory methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is used. Bartunek and Seo (2002) show how qualitative research can increase understanding of local perceptions. Boniwell and Henry (2007) explain how qualitative methods can lead to identification of constructs and models that can be investigated using scientific methods. Gyllensten et al. (2010) use qualitative methods to elicit benefits of cognitive coaching.

Method

The research used a grounded theory approach. Grounded theory can be said to hold elements of both a positivist and an

interpretivist research paradigm (Smith, 2008). It is often considered to be the most 'scientific' qualitative research methodology (e.g. Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Payne, 2007). Grounded theory is becoming more common in studies of coaching (e.g. Passmore & McGoldrick, 2009; Passmore, 2010).

This study uses Strauss and Corbin's (1998) methodology for grounded theory, for two reasons. Firstly, the transcribed data set is over 300 pages long, and this structured method provides rigour in ensuring that a theory is drawn from it systematically. Secondly, the only other study of strengths using grounded theory (Pritchard, 2009) uses Strauss and Corbin's methodology.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Smith (2008) suggest grounded theory can be used to interpret any data set, so the inclusion of the coaching intervention is not unconventional for the design of a grounded theory study. Strauss and Corbin (1997) describe grounded theory studies which collect a wide range of data from different sources.

Research design

There were six participants. Two were in their 20s, two in their 30s and two in their 40s. This is not a demographically diverse population, but there is value in this similarity, because it adds more weight to the participants' experience when it is consistent.

In addition, although not necessarily dissatisfied with their work situation, all but one of the participants had stated that they desired more engagement at work. Some believed that they were not valued and found this problematic.

Data collection took place through three semi-structured interviews with each participant. In the first, the inquiry explored two main themes: (a) what do the participants believe that their strengths are; and (b) what happens when participants use their strengths.

Second interviews took place after the participants took the VIA strengths inventory (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Linley et al. (2010b) describe the survey as 'the most

widely used strengths assessment specifically associated with the positive psychology movement to date' (p.7). The classification was used as a starting point for participants to define their strengths; after reviewing their top five 'signature' strengths, they reviewed the full list of strengths alphabetically to identify other strengths that resonated for them. They subsequently added their own personal list of strengths.

Linley et al. (2010a) analyse the pros and cons of using strengths scales; this study hoped to combine the advantages of both by using a well-known strengths scale but also allowing participants to supplement it with strengths that they had identified themselves.

The primary focus of the second interview was a coaching intervention around the strengths that had been identified. Through open questioning and support from the coach, each participant explored ways to use each strength at work and created a list of actions. During these interviews, the researcher also asked questions about the participants' experiences of using their strengths since the first interviews.

The final interviews focused on the outcomes of the strengths practice and what happened as a result.

In grounded theory, data analysis and theory generation are inextricably intertwined. Initial analysis gives rise to a theory that can be tested and refined through further rounds of analysis. Data analysis takes place through assigning codes to the data, then using axial coding to aggregate codes into categories and establish relationships between them. This enables creation of a theory that shows the relationships between overarching themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Table 1 shows the code statistics for the axial coding, comprising the frequencies with which they occurred and the number of participants who referred to them.

Figure 1 shows the axial coding model for this study. This used the components outlined in Creswell's (2005) description of the requirements for an axial coding paradigm, as used in Pritchard (2009).

Table 1: Coding statistics from the middle round of coding (Axial).

Category	Frequency/ no. of participants	Category	Frequency/ no. of participants
Other-focus	274/6	Collaboration	59/5
Positive self-management	258/6	Positive feedback	56/6
Positive self-concept	218/6	Negative emotion from using strengths	55/6
Positive emotions when using strengths	180/6	Positive view of own difference	53/6
Attention focused on negative	170/6	Creativity and different approach	51/4
Valuing strengths approach	162/6	Identification with VIA strengths	49/6
Engaging others	155/6	Positive organisational fit	48/5
Integrity and authenticity	132/6	Lack of authenticity	45/6
High engagement	131/6	Believing she can make a difference	43/4
Attention focused on positive	113/6	Low engagement	43/6
Conscious use of strengths	110/5	Lack of identification with VIA strengths	39/6
Negative self-concept	105/6	Self-focus	32/6
Desire for achievement	101/6	Positive relationships with authority figures	31/6
Negative organisational fit	101/6	Negative relationships with authority figures	29/5
Getting things done	98/6	What is a strength	24/6
Using strengths automatically	93/6	Negative view of own difference	20/6
Sense of achievement	80/6	Negative feedback	19/5
Problem solving	78/6	VIA strengths useful	19/6
Wanting to make a difference	73/6	VIA strengths not useful	14/3
Want to help others	70/6	Valuing difference	12/3
Negative self-management	64/6	Believing she can't make a difference	8/2

Figure 1.
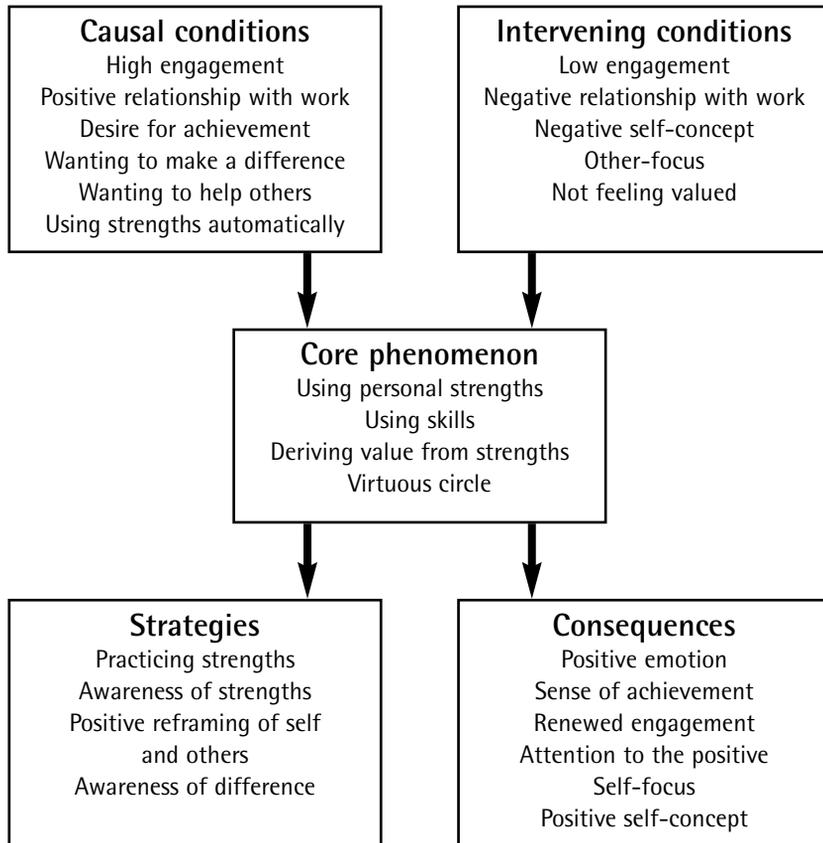
This led to a final round of theoretical coding. Table 2 shows the statistics for the codes that formed the basis of the final theory, comprising the frequencies with which they occurred and the number of participants who referred to them.

Finally, the relationships between the categories were re-examined to produce and test the final theory, represented in Figure 2.

The study used several methods to ensure validity. In particular, the grounded theory methodology's rigorous structure for coding, analysis and theory generation contributed to this (e.g. Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The study was made more reliable by triangulation of data over time, and the consistency of the participants' experiences lends credibility. Payne (2007) suggests that another measure of validity is the soundness of fit between theory and data, which is again supported here.

Each participant was asked to review her interview summary and provide feedback, to ensure that the researcher's interpretation of the data was consistent with the participants' own experience. They were either very minor comments or none at all.

Critiques could include that only one researcher has been involved and the data is drawn from one source type, semi-structured interviews. Also, the researcher has no previous experience in grounded theory. To mitigate this, two research supervisors also provided input to the study design and one of them also agreed the design of the interview protocols.

Table 2: Coding statistics from the final round of coding (Theory).

Category	Frequency/ no. of participants	Category	Frequency/ no. of participants
Towards a positive goal	286/6	Valuing difference	86/6
Other-focus	267/6	Sense of achievement	82/6
Positive self-concept	225/6	Problem solving	69/6
Positive emotion	177/6	Lack of commitment	55/6
Commitment	164/6	Positive reflections from from others	54/6
Positive attitude	162/6	Not inspiring action	53/6
Inspiring action	158/6	Creativity and different approach	51/5
Attention to the negative	148/6	Negative emotion	48/6
Engaging others	144/6	Positive organisational fit	47/6
Feeling authentic	122/6	Not feeling authentic	46/6
Awareness of own value	116/6	Positive relationships with authority figures	29/6
Attention to the positive	115/6	Self-focus	29/6
Negative self-concept	105/6	Negative relationships with authority figures	29/5
Negative organisational fit	102/6	Not valuing difference	21/5
Getting things done	94/6	Negative reflections from others	18/5
Negative attitude	94/6	Lack of awareness of own value	6/3
Invoked automatically	89/6	Lack of sense of achievement	2/2
Integrity	88/6		

Any qualitative study highlights the role of the researcher (Willig, 2001). Riley, Schouten and Cahill (2003) point out the power dynamics of the researcher's role, particularly relevant here because of the coaching intervention. Specifically, participants might have regarded the researcher as an 'expert' because the second interview involved the researcher coaching the participants, which can feel like an 'expert' role. Therefore, participants might not have felt able to be honest if they were not finding the study useful.

Three strategies were selected to manage this. The first was discussing the power dynamic with participants in order to minimise its effect (McArdle, 2004). The second was designing the interviews to minimise the voice of the researcher and maximise the voice of participants, through using open questions that focused on the participants' experience in their own words. Finally, the analytic process included returning to the data repeatedly to ensure that the theory was genuinely grounded in the participants' voices, making conscious

Figure 2.
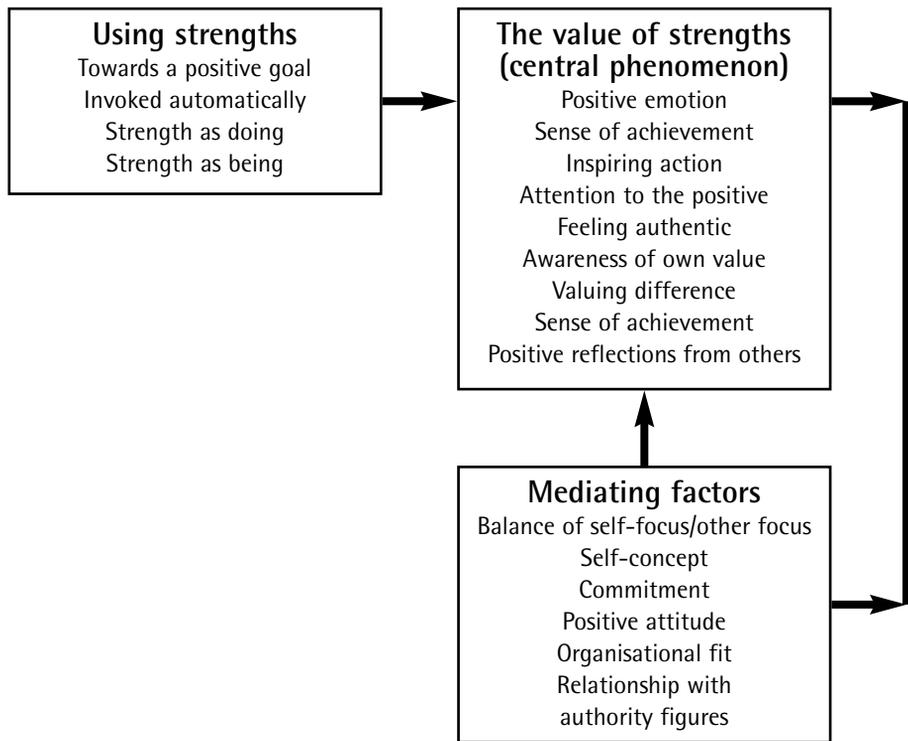
choices to excise the responses of the researcher so they interfered as little as possible with interpreting participants' stories (Riley et al., 2003).

The study was conducted in accordance with University of East London ethical guidelines (UEL, 2010) and Willig's (2001) overview of ethical standards for qualitative research. Each participant has been given a pseudonym, which is used throughout this paper.

Results
The study showed that participants derived value from discussing, learning about and using their strengths, and that this value was experienced in several ways. It identified intermediating factors affecting how participants viewed their strengths and deployed them at work. Finally, it found that the use of

strengths had some impact on the intermediating factors, creating 'virtuous circles' for many participants. Each theme is reviewed in turn.

(1) Using strengths
The study showed how participants made a conscious effort to use their strengths. They discussed both the act itself, using words like 'trying', 'preparing' or 'taking the time to', and the intention behind it, with indicators such as 'making a point of', or 'making an effort'. Strengths were used deliberately in pursuit of a personal goal – almost every conscious act had a purpose that the participant considered important.

In addition to using strengths deliberately, participants also experienced strengths as authentic parts of themselves, enacted without effort and often without conscious

awareness. All participants frequently referred to this, using words and phrases like 'natural', 'comfortable', 'easy', 'subconscious' or 'unconscious' and 'that's [just] who I am'. Additionally, participants stated that these strengths are constantly present, and a few suggested that they are present both in work and home life.

Bella suggested that 'I do that all the time unconsciously; it just comes very naturally', and Eliza, describing her strength of creativity, said '…it's because it's the only way I know how.'

(2) The value of strengths

The central phenomenon that emerged from the data was 'The value of strengths'. This theme highlighted that all participants found it valuable to learn more about and use their strengths.

The theme subdivided into eight categories: Positive emotion; Inspiring action; Attention to the positive; Awareness of own value; Feeling authentic; Valuing difference; Sense of achievement; and Positive reflections from others.

The experience of using strengths was enjoyable. Eliza said 'When I use my strengths, I'm much, much happier', and Bella suggested that 'The things that make you feel good are the things that are more likely to be your strengths'.

Beyond that, using strengths led to positive emotions about work. After using strengths, Daisy commented that 'I just didn't want to go into work…I'm not experiencing that any more', and Alyssa said that 'I suppose when you feel like you're doing a better job…you feel better about doing the job'

Participants also referred to positive emotion inherent in activities they felt good at. Eliza said 'I feel yes, just kind of joyous, I meant it's a remarkable word to use in the context of work but it does, it brings you joy when you do the things that you love most and that you're best at.'

Participants also experienced negative emotion using strengths, although significantly less than positive emotion. Of this, fear was most cited, and all but one referred to this at least once. Frustration when strengths were not valued and tiredness from over-use of strengths were also mentioned. Linley et al. (2010c) refer to the risks of the over-use of strengths.

The participants described how using strengths inspired them towards action. Chloe observed that 'When you are using your strengths, life is easier and you're more likely to kind of get into the flow.'

Several participants came to the realisation that small interventions can lead to valuable changes (Linley, 2008). Alyssa said, 'When you use [strengths] it doesn't have to be in any earth shattering way, it could be just recognising that you're doing certain small things that play to your strengths.'

Towards the beginning of the study, most of the participants observed more negative than positive phenomena, and this code is in fact more prevalent over the course of the study. However, the balance shifted during the interviews: there were 50 codes for 'Attention to the negative' across all the first interviews and 28 across all the final interviews; the corresponding figures for 'Attention to the positive' are 14 and 68 respectively.

All but one reported that using their strengths made their focus more positive, and they found this valuable. Daisy felt that 'I probably am more positive at work and if it gets to the point that I begin to be a bit more negative at work, I've now got the armoury to see my way through that', and suggested that '…thinking about your strengths and what you're actually good at…maybe helps you not be so negative.'

Several participants found this increased their commitment at work. Alyssa commented that 'I'm feeling much, much more positive…there will be challenges but that I'll be able to cope with them.' Chloe found that… 'I might have lost the battle but I'm still heading along looking like I might win the war.'

For Alyssa, Bella and Daisy, paying attention to the positive led to a 'virtuous circle' where they experienced more and more of it. Bella suggested that 'When you focus on the negative you get the negative; focussing on the positive you really unlock a lot of really positive energy.' Flora experienced a shift from only noticing negatives about colleagues to observing their strengths: 'It actually gave me…a new vision, you know seeing the world in a different way.'

Every participant reported that using strengths led to a feeling of authenticity, often using phrases like 'being myself'. As the project progressed, Eliza reported that 'When you use your strengths you give back much more of yourself and that in turn makes you happy.' She was then put up for promotion, and she attributed this at least in part to her increased willingness to be herself in the workplace.

Daisy found 'It was good to know that you could be yourself, using those strengths.' Through awareness of her strengths, she reframed 'being herself at work' as career-enhancing rather than problematic. Flora reported that by the end of the project, she was 'less of a machine and…more of an independent risk taking, autonomous person.'

Five participants benefited from greater understanding of the value that their strengths can bring. They valued the discovery that character strengths such as integrity, humour and love can be considered strengths even when not directly related to work achievement, and reported that knowing their personal strengths led to a greater perception of their professional value. Alyssa found that 'Maybe what I do is different but different in a good way.' Daisy concluded that 'I can be myself and I have unique selling points.'

Five of the six spoke of a new understanding of difference. This insight into others' difference brought Alyssa a new perspective on her own: '…it's recognising that you have something to contribute and that it's not the same as other people, and that just because you are doing something

differently, doesn't mean you're doing it wrong.' Daisy intentionally used her strength of appreciating beauty and excellence to notice difference positively.

All participants found that using their strengths led to a sense of achievement. Eliza was aware that some of this derived from her knowledge that she was bringing her creative strengths into an environment that lacked them.

Five participants reported that using strengths led to positive feedback, which was personally rewarding and which led to professional advantage in some cases. This engendered positive emotion and higher engagement.

(3) Mediating factors

All participants found that certain factors affected how much they used their strengths, although the importance of these varied. These divided into six categories: Balance of self-focus/other-focus; Self-concept; Commitment; Positive attitude; Organisational fit; and Relationship with authority figures.

Each participant revealed a blend of negative and positive intervening factors, some of which shifted during the project. For everyone, one or more of these factors improved, potentially at least in part as a result of using their strengths, thus creating a 'virtuous circle'.

All but one participants repeatedly referred to the importance of others' opinions, and their impact on engagement. The word 'valued' was used repeatedly. Eliza said, 'I think recognition is a big thing for me', and Bella discussed the difficulties of using her counter-cultural strengths because of negative feedback.

By the end, several participants had shifted attention away from others' views. Daisy observed, 'I think that once you're starting to use your strengths and feeling quite buoyant and positive, you do become a bit impervious to others' comments.'

All but one reported negative aspects of their self-concept at work. Daisy observed that 'I'll sort of forget what I'm good at, and

think more about what's been said that I'm not so good at.' Alyssa said 'I think that's the main thing that holds me back.'

Most participants reported greater self-belief by the end. Daisy described the experience as 'I just think you knew you were doing really well, you could just tell that you were at your best', and Flora said 'Yes I'm more self confident, and yes I accept myself more.'

By the end, several participants expressed renewed engagement with work. Alyssa talked about increased confidence that she can be successful, and hence greater desire to invest in her career. Bella described greater readiness to 'speak my truth' and believe her viewpoint is a valuable strength rather than an undesirable difference.

Some participants expressed negative bias in their attitude to themselves. Flora suggested that 'It's more about what are your weaknesses rather than what are your strengths.' Eliza thought she had more weaknesses than strengths, despite her record of achievement.

Participants also showed evidence of positive attitudes. Chloe expressed a preference for focusing on successes rather than failures. Bella reported that 'I always describe myself as a glass half full type of person, always choose to see the best in people.' She listed positivity as a strength.

By the end, several participants found their awareness had shifted towards noticing more positives about themselves and their work. Chloe used her strength of optimism and her intellectual strengths to reframe her definition of hope and find new positives to inspire her, even within the bleak landscape of climate change. Alyssa reported that 'It's made me more conscious of the aspects, or the attributes that are positive and made me more proud of those, I suppose.'

All participants talked about the organisations they work for. Positive topics included feeling valued, feeling suited to the role, believing that her strengths are useful and believing that she makes a difference. Negative topics included not feeling valued, not finding opportunities to use strengths and not feeling suited to the work, culture or industry.

Bella commented: 'I think it's a bit like a relationship, I'm attracted to those organisations that value those strengths.' Chloe experienced a good fit with colleagues: '…as my career has drifted in that kind of bigger picture kind of direction, people I'm working with tend to be, kind of, big picture type of people, which I like.'

Negative organisational fit appeared to affect how strengths were invoked. Alyssa noted, 'I do have strengths and it's a shame sometimes that you feel you have to kind of mimic other people's strengths rather than using your own.' Bella suggested that 'I'm not sure that it's the right environment to use my strengths.'

Five participants reported that relationships with authority figures influenced their engagement with work and their strengths. Alyssa described her disappointment with managers' lack of interest, and, later, that she was now using her strengths in a positive collaboration with her new boss and this stimulated and motivated her. Eliza talked about the profoundly demotivating effect of not feeling valued, and Chloe reported that 'I think the most important thing that people have helped [in using her strengths] is allowing me to be me.'

Discussion
(1) Using strengths
In the category *'Towards a positive goal'*, participants invoked strengths deliberately in pursuit of something they valued. This was the most popular category. This is interesting when considered alongside self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In SDT, three psychological needs comprise self-determination: autonomy, competence and relatedness. The idea, supported by this study, that strengths are invoked consciously in the pursuit of positive goals, is consistent with the concept of autonomy in SDT and is supported by Linley et al. (2010b), who draw on SDT to

find evidence for a model that links strengths to wellbeing through the achievement of self-concordant goals (Sheldon & Eliot, 1999; Sheldon & Houser-Marko, 2001). From a practical angle, this offers suggestions to individuals wishing to develop their strengths, as well as coaches and employers: getting in touch with a personal reason for achievement might provide a gateway to using strengths. The participants' consistent experience that strengths were frequently *Invoked automatically* suggests that some strengths are specific to the individual, regardless of environment. It also gives credence to the idea that strengths are somehow part of the identity.

(2) The value of strengths

It is unsurprising that all the participants consistently experienced *Positive emotion* as a result of using strengths. Strengths are known to link to wellbeing (Govindji & Linley, 2007; Park & Peterson, 2007; Peterson et al., 2007) and positive emotion is a component of this. Seligman et al. (2005) found that using strengths in a new context increases wellbeing, and this is what participants have been doing. Proctor et al. (2010) find that strengths use is a unique predictor of subjective wellbeing.

The benefits of positive emotion are considerable for employers and employees. Positive emotions broaden thought-action repertoires (Fredrickson, 2001; Isen, 2003) and build durable resources (Fredrickson, 2001). They improve coping with adversity, support resilience and buffer against depression (Fredrickson et al., 2003). Positive emotions can lead to an 'upward spiral' where they support adaptive behaviours that lead to more positive emotions (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2003). Luthans (2002) finds that organisations derive benefit from positive emotions among employees.

Evidence suggests that action is essential to realise value from strengths (Govindji & Linley, 2007; Pritchard, 2009; Seligman et al., 2005) and this study's category of *Inspiring action* supports this. All participants reported

that actively using strengths brought positive value.

Clifton and Harter (2003) suggest that strengths-based development should focus on two areas: identifying strengths and integrating them into work through practice. Minhas (2010) reports a range of benefits from using strengths. Linley et al. (2010b) suggest a range of strategies that can be used to make the most of strengths use.

Feeling authentic was a key theme, with all participants reporting that they 'feel like I'm being myself' when using strengths and repeatedly suggesting that strengths 'come naturally'. For several, using strengths led to an attitude shift from feeling that they must act a part at work to believing that they could be authentic and still successful. Minhas (2010) found that use of strengths led to increased self-esteem. Proctor et al. (2010) theorise that 'strengths use is energising and authentic' (p.4).

Linley (2006) and Peterson and Seligman (2004) suggest that strengths are intrinsic and accompanied by authenticity and fulfilment. Use of strengths might be an 'organismic valuing process' in which people, as active agents, move towards their most authentic selves and realise adaptive benefits as a result (Joseph & Linley, 2005). This might be thought-provoking for employers. Arakawa and Greenberg (2007), Luthans and Youssef (2004) and Peterson and Park (2006) all find evidence of employer benefit from strengths-based approaches. Linley et al. (2010c) provide a list of 10 positive outcomes from strengths-based coaching.

The categories of *Awareness of own value* and *Sense of achievement* might link to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). In particular, self-efficacy is primarily built through mastery experiences, which could equate to the successful use of strengths. Self-efficacy is linked to a range of adaptive benefits including perseverance, less distress, innovation and overcoming rejection (Bandura, 1994), all of which were shown by participants in this study. Govindji and Linley

(2007) find links between self-efficacy and strengths knowledge and use, and Pritchard's (2009) grounded theory study showed that a strengths intervention increased academic self-efficacy in the participants. In addition, Minhas (2010) found that using unrealised strengths leads to an increase in environmental mastery and self-acceptance, which might relate to these two themes.

This might be useful because there is considerable research suggesting that self-efficacy can be built, including through intentional practice of 'mastery experiences' (Bandura, 1994). Pritchard (2009) suggests that positive self-belief among students may lead to increased resilience.

Self-efficacy might also contribute to the value of *Positive reflections from others*. Bandura (1994) suggests that social persuasion is a factor in building self-efficacy – people are more likely to remain actively engaged with goals if given positive feedback on their capability. Oades et al. (2009) found that strengths-based coaching led to improved collaboration. This is consistent with participants' experience.

Roberts et al.'s (2005) 'reflected best self' may contribute to positive development – five participants reported that positive feedback encouraged strengths use. Snyder et al.'s (2006) finding that therapists' positive views supported clients' adaptive behaviour also supports this, and is relevant for coaches using a strengths-based approach.

(3) Mediating factors

The factor of self-concept supports potential links between self-concept and strengths use. Some participants initially found that a negative self-concept inhibited them from using their strengths; by the end of the study all reported a more positive self-concept, and many felt that using strengths had a direct impact on this. Pritchard (2009) provides a detailed review of the potential benefits of a strengths-based approach to the self-concept. Ryan and Deci (2000) suggest that exercising competence leads to increased

motivation and wellbeing; perhaps successfully using strengths led participants to greater appreciation of themselves?

This increased tendency towards intrinsic motivation might also provide insight into the category of *Commitment*. Linley et al. (2010b) suggest that strengths may be linked to intrinsic motivation. Self-efficacy might contribute here also; Maddux (2002) suggests that self-efficacy is a key determinant of how much people persevere when faced with challenge. An agency-based model is a valuable way to regard this study; four of the participants (Bella, Chloe, Daisy and Eliza) found direct links between their regulation of their behaviour and the value that they realised from their strengths (e.g. Baumeister, 2003). Many of Pritchard's (2009) research participants 'exhibited a clear progressive sense of agency…as a result of becoming aware of their strengths' (p.147). Pritchard's work also suggests that use of strengths might lead to greater energy and an accompanying commitment to work. Oades et al. (2009) found that a strengths-based coaching model led to increased empowerment and self-direction.

The theory of Appreciative Inquiry (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2001) might also be relevant. Cooperrider and Sekerka (2003) suggest that inquiry in a positive direction leads to positive emotion and the experience of relatedness, which opens up 'a world of strengths' (p.237) and produces energy for change. This mirrors the experience of several participants.

The final constituent of SDT is relatedness, which might be reflected in the category of *Organisational fit*. Dutton and Heaphy (2004) suggest that high-quality connections at work lead to greater energy, engagement, meaning and organisational strengths. Fredrickson and Losada (2005) suggest that positive environments generates higher team performance. Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenstein and Grant (2005) propose that a climate of trust and respect stimulates self-motivated behaviour; this might relate to the autonomy desired by the

participants as well as the valued positive feedback.

Conclusion

The study found several ways in which using strengths may be beneficial at work. This was mediated by intervening factors affecting the extent to which strengths were used. In addition, the positive benefits of learning about and using strengths affected the intervening factors themselves, thus creating a 'virtuous circle'.

This has practical implications for those wishing to improve their workplace experience and increase their engagement with work, and for those who coach and employ coaches:

● Learning about and using strengths is valuable. Benefits include positive emotion, feeling more valued at work, a more positive focus, greater sense of authenticity and renewed willingness to take action.

● In particular, identifying character strengths may be valuable because understanding personal strengths is useful in the workplace. It is not sufficient to learn one's strengths; use is necessary.

● The benefits of using strengths in the workplace may vary for different people. This practice may lead to a 'virtuous circle' wherein it becomes progressively easier and more rewarding.

● Interventions that engage with the mediating factors directly might also be useful in supporting the use of strengths. These include developing greater positivity about oneself and the working environment, cultivating action-focus and an internal locus of control, and using strengths to improve relationships with managers.

Study limitations

The study has limitations. The results would have to be tested further and with different populations to gain validity. Also, the study produced a considerable volume of data –

over 300 pages. The data supports the theory, but might hold more information that would give a richer and more sophisticated picture.

The interview questions focused primarily on inquiry into positive aspects of strengths. Although they were crafted with the aim of avoiding bias towards positive answers, nonetheless there were no questions that paid specific attention to any costs of using strengths in the workplace. This information would have been valuable for further testing and refining of the model.

The study's findings might be compromised by the inclusion of a coaching intervention. Is the value experienced by participants genuinely derived from using strengths, or might it be from being coached? However, this is mitigated by the fact that the benefits of strengths were identified by participants in the first two interviews, before the coaching intervention.

Although the study gains reliability through its triangulation of data over time, there are still only three interviews, and only six participants, all female. It was not possible to gauge and control for the effect of mood and other external factors such as the economic downturn, and generalisability is clearly limited.

The literature reviewed here is mostly drawn from the canon of positive psychology. Other areas of psychology, including theories of identity, motivation, development and interaction, might provide relevant insight into the study but are not explored here.

It would be useful to test the results of this study further. In particular, it would support the current study to continue to test strengths interventions experimentally (e.g. Minhas, 2010), considering measures of positive emotion, self-efficacy, self-determination, engagement, authenticity and/or self-esteem.

Repeated testing with the same subjects, similar to the 'upward spiral' experiments, might be used to test the 'virtuous circle'. Linley et al. (2010) posit that strengths use

might be part of an 'affective learning loop' (p.13) which could link to the virtuous circle described here. It would be interesting to find ways to compare this study's model of internal change with their outcome-based model of strengths.

In conclusion, the study suggested that the experience of strengths use may be beneficial and these benefits in themselves lead to further reward. More research, and qualitative research in particular, is required here.

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The experience of using coaching as a learning technique in learner driver development: An IPA study of adult learning

Jonathan Passmore & Lance Mortimer

Objectives: *This preliminary study sought to explore the experiences of UK Approved Driving Instructors (ADIs) in using coaching as a method for novice driver learning, as part of a wider research agenda into the use of coaching in driver instruction.*
Design: *The qualitative method of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis was used to explore the experiences of ADIs when employing a new learning technique with learner drivers.*
Methods: *The study took place in the UK with 15 ADIs who had attended a five-day coaching skills course at the University of East London designed specifically for driving instructors and based on the University's postgraduate programme for coaching psychology.*
Results: *The study found seven main themes emerged with respect to the use of coaching. These were: understanding the nature of coaching; building an integrated approach; developing new skills; the learner's acceptance of responsibility for their learning; helping learners' change their attitude; performance; and achieving wider adoption within the industry.*
Conclusions: *The study suggests that coaching has a role to play in driver learning. The perception of ADI participants was that, when combined with instruction, it is experienced by ADIs as a useful pedagogy. Further research is required to assess the impact of coaching on learning effectiveness and its post-test accident rates of learners.*
Keywords: *Coaching with learner drivers; coaching as pedagogy; GDE Matrix, HERMES project; coaching with novice learners; adult learning; ADI coaching; Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis.*

EDUCATION AND LEARNING has a major role to play in ensuring that people become and remain safe and responsible drivers. In the past three decades changes in policy have been introduced to improve road safety including the use of speed cameras, traffic calming measures like humps and changes to the road architecture. However, practices in driver training used by Approved Driving Instructors (ADIs) have remained comparatively unchanged, with a traditional instructor lead approach the dominant method used by ADIs.

In 1935 the UK Government introduced a driving test which when passed allowed drivers to drive a car (now know in the UK licence classification as a category B licence)

without supervision. The test itself has progressively changed since its introduction in the 1930s, for example, with the introduction of the theory test in 1996. The standards for driving are regulated in Great Britain (England, Wales & Scotland) through a Government agency – the Driving Standards Agency (DSA). The agency regulates ADIs through a testing and periodic inspection regime.

Driving a motor vehicle requires not only mastery of the mechanical aspects of the vehicle, but also interaction with the environment and other road users. Research suggests that individual differences and human factors are significant factors in accidents and dangerous driving (Dorn, 2005). However, the current instructional method

of learning used by most ADIs pays limited attention to these individual differences and favours a focus towards mechanical aspects developed through an instructor led approach.

This paper explores the current demands facing ADIs, as well as a number of the psychological issues facing learners. It will then explore some of the issues being debated in driver safety and how improvements can be made to the training and future development of driving instructors in Great Britain, but with wider implications for driving throughout the European Union. The paper will then discuss the nature of coaching and its application in driving. Finally, the paper will consider the results from this study of ADIs and the implications for future practice and research.

Becoming an ADI

To become an ADI in Great Britain, it is necessary to undertake training, and a three-part assessment process. On successful completion of this individuals are eligible to join a register held by the DSA. Once registered most individuals gain employment within a driving school or become an independent driving instructor on a self-employed basis.

All ADIs are expected to work within certain guidelines, which include:

● Having a high regard for all aspects of road safety.
● Possessing a high standard of driving ability.
● Being able to teach to a competent high standard.
● Having a professional approach to customer care.
● Imparting a responsible attitude to learners and the profession.
● Being a 'fit and proper person'.

The programme for training driving instructors is predominantly based on their knowledge and understanding and their ability to identify and correct common faults. This has lead to the use by ADIs of a directive style, with the learner responding to detailed instructions of where to go, what to do and how to do it. The approach requires the learner to follow instructions and demonstrate car control without risk to other road users. Walklin (2000) has suggested that this teaching style is simply a method of teaching by rote, without taking into account the individual's motivations for learning, such as their extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for undertaking learning in the first place. Limited attention is paid, for example, to the individual attributes of the learner or the learner's values.

According to Brown (1982) 95 per cent of accidents are a result of human error. Reason (1990) has suggested that human error can be subdivided into two key areas; the person approach and the system approach. Each has its own cause and each gives rise to quite different philosophies of error management. Being able to understand these differences has important practical implications for coping with the ever present risk of accidents. Based on this approach it might be argued that becoming more self aware will lead to a greater understanding of the risks facing the driver and thus help reduce road traffic incidents.

There have been improvements over the past 12 years with average road incidents in the UK falling. However, risk of death remains a cause for concern. This is particularly so for young drivers (17 to 25 years) where death by road traffic accidents is the biggest single cause of death in the UK and across the developed world (WHO, 2007). The risk for young men is particularly high with nearly one-third of young men aged 17 to 25 dying as a result of road traffic accidents in Great Britain.

The developing agenda in the EU

A range of initiatives have contributed to the reduction in road traffic accidents, a number of which have been initiated by the EU and adopted within Great Britain. One such initiative is Goals for Driver Education (GDE) matrix (Hatakka et al., 2002) which was highlighted by the EU MERIT project

(2004). The GDE matrix focused on key goals for driving including; context, driving in traffic, control of the vehicle and how these relate to knowledge, skills and risks awareness (Table 1).

The GDE encourages driving instructors to extend their training beyond a focus on basic car control, to consider other road users (an aspect of the current driving test), as well as trip-related conditions, such as time of day, weather and the state of the driver, plus personality aspects of the driver and passengers, and how these factors impact on their driving and decision making.

In response to encouraging greater personal responsibility the DSA introduced in October 2010 an independent driving element to the driving test. This is a 10-minute section of the test whereby the candidate is asked to drive without detailed guidance from the examiner. They are still accompanied in the car by the examiner, but are free to follow the best route, according to the road signs and road conditions. This 'independent driving' section of the test is designed to enable the learner to make their decisions during the assessed drive. Early trials of this change of testing model have shown to be well received and beneficial to

Table 1: GDE matrix: Goals for Driver Education.

		Essential elements of driver training		
		Knowledge and skills	Risk-increasing factors	Self-evaluation
Hierarchical levels of driver behaviour	4. Personal characteristics, ambitions and competencies	Lifestyle Peer group norms Personal values and norms Etc.	Sensation seeking Adapting to social pressure	Impulse control Risky tendencies Personal risky characteristics
	3. Trip-related context and considerations	Choice of route Estimated driving time Estimated urgency of the trip	Physiological condition of driver Social context and company in vehicle	Personal skills with regard to planning Typical risky motives when driving
	2. Mastery of traffic situations	Application of traffic rules Observation and use of signals Anticipation of events	Vulnerable road users Breaking traffic rules/ unpredictable behavior Information overload Difficult (road) conditions	Strengths and weaknesses regarding driving skills in traffic Personal driving style
	1. Basic vehicle control	Control of direction and position of car Technical aspects of the vehicle	Improper use of seatbelt, headrest, sitting position Under-pressure tyres	Strengths and weaknesses of basic vehicle control

Adapted from Hatakka et al., 2002.

the learner, as they feel that they have had the opportunity to experience decision making to a degree, whilst still under the instructional model (Independent Driving, 2010). This, on the face of it, appears to be a small step in the direction to the adoption of a less directive style within learner driver learning and assessment. Further, the DSA are developing an agenda to further develop the driver learning agenda.

While the subject of driver training and driver safety is one that is high on the agenda throughout EU States, including the UK, and a number of policy reports have been published, these have focused on the theory of a more learner centred approach. To date no empirical research has been published which have explored the potential of a coaching/learner-centred approach or the impact of the approach on learning periods, pass rates and accident rates.

Psychological aspects of driver development

Driving a motor vehicle cannot be achieved without physical mastery of the car and its controls. This requires elements of mechanical understanding; knowing what happens when certain parts of the vehicle are pressed, pulled and turned. However, there is a higher order processing requirement that is also required as well as the physical mastery, as noted by MERIT (2004). Driving requires, amongst other things, information processing, perception, thought, judgement, decision making, awareness, attention and

attitude. According to Philippe et al. (2009) having an obsessive passion for driving can predispose people towards aggressive attitude behind the wheel. Senserrick and Haworth (2005) suggested that the traditional method of teaching driving does not address the higher order demands in driving which we have summarised in Table 2.

Tversky and Kahneman (1973) suggest that we psychologically misrepresent information in our minds at the expense of the true probability of something happening. According to Tversky and Kahneman (1973) individuals have tendency to over-estimate the probability of something happening, based on an amount of data that is made available. In driving, the theory may be turned on its head. In a driving environment, drivers appear to under-estimate the probability of an incident happening due to the extended feeling of safety experienced in today's vehicles (for example; EU Five-star car safety ratings, collision crumple zones, air bags and seat belts) and road design (central crash barriers, hard shoulder on motorways and road signage), thereby affecting judgement. Judgements can be seen as the result of a recall of learning, taking into account the situation presented and previous experiences. According to Logan's instance theory (1992), the more we, as humans, do something, the more automated the process becomes. This can lead to potential problems in as much that automaticity may also be viewed as a memory phenomenon. According to this view,

Table 2: Higher order driving skills.

1.	Information processing
2.	Hazard or risk perception
3.	Self calibration (the ability to moderate task demands according to one's own capabilities)
4.	Attentional control (ability to prioritise attention)
5.	Time sharing
6.	Situation awareness (how one represents the dynamic environment)

Adapted from Senserrick and Haworth, 2005.

novices solve problems using a general algorithm and analysing each step, whereas experts simply retrieve solutions. Stated another way, novices attend to the individual steps of the algorithm, whereas experts attend to the solutions stored in memory. This makes experts faster at solving problems. Wright, Loftus and Hall (2001) witnessed the breakdown and influence of memory processes, to show those people that are informed of information are more likely to confuse memory-based learning and, therefore, more likely to make mistaken recall judgements as opposed to those that were allowed to encode their own version of learning and reality, where recall was more accurate.

Attention, similarly, also needs to be considered as a factor affecting learner driver behaviour. Attention is the ability to focus on a task, the ability to concentrate and to allocate sufficient mental processing resources to deal with the situation at hand. In the early stages of learning to drive, the learner experiences a lot of new information which they need to take into account, such as the mastery of the car's controls, the road conditions, emotions such as fears, preconceptions, pre-social conditioning, attitudes and, of course, the instructions being given by the instructor. According to attention theory, humans can only process a limited amount of information at any one time.

Treisman (1964) suggested in his attenuation theory, that information is selected early based on a hierarchical need for information. Once the processing capacity of the individual has been exceeded, information begins to be omitted, based on the perceived importance. Deutsche and Deutsche (1963) offered an alternative perspective to explain human responses to information processing. They proposed that all messages make it through and are analysed, but only one response can be made.

In a typical learner driving session, where attentional thresholds are hit or exceeded, the learner is likely to take the advice of the instructor as being the most important aspect to focus on. This is possibly at the expense of greater awareness of the environment and self-discovery learning that can be applied once the instructor is no longer in the car (i.e. when the learner driver has passed their driving test).

Coaching

Coaching as a profession has seen an increase in its popularity over the past decade.

While much of the research into coaching practice has focused on organisational studies (Grant et al., 2010) there is a growing body of research examining coaching's potential in other domains such as life and wellbeing (see, for example, Newnham-Kanas et al., 2009). This research, however, remains at a general level and to date there has been no detailed exploration of whether coaching it better suited as an approach for some types of individuals. This contrasts with counselling where there has been considerable research into individual differences (for example, Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987).

Coaching, as opposed to instructional learning, allows the individual to explore and make decisions based on their construction of the environment they find themselves in including their own awareness of the level of attention saturation being experienced. In a dynamic and potentially dangerous environment such as the public highway, using just one or the other method may not be suitable or acceptable. The use of a purely instructional model may lead to instant action to overcome an incident, but the learner may not be aware of the other vital information around them. Whitmore (2010) has argued that coaching needs to be the dominant approach for driver learning, with instruction being restricted to all but the safety critical situations. However, others have argued that coaching has no role and that the current situation works and should not be changed. These views lead us to hypothesis that a blended approach, which was learner-centred, may be the most effec-

tive way forward, but with a focus on raising learner self awareness and enhancing learner personal responsibility through the learning journey, with the instructor adapting their intervention to meet the needs of the situation and the unique needs of their learner at that moment (Passmore, 2010)

Adult learning

The way in which individuals learn is also important to take into account. There is no longer is there an absolute belief that we learn through stimulus-response. In the past three decades the work of writers, such as Tinklepaugh (1928), Chomsky (1959) and Kolb (1984), have become more influential in shaping our view of adult learning. Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) suggests that knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and results from a combination of grasping and transforming experience.

These aspects informed the subsequent design of the intervention with ADIs to develop new methods for use with learner drivers based on a less directive and more experiential modes of learning, while recognising that instruction still had some role to play within a safety critical environment.

Design

This is the first of a planned series of research studies into coaching as a potential tool for driver development. In this first of two preliminary studies, two groups of 12 ADIs undertook a five-day coaching skills course at the University of East London. The course included core skills in listening, questions and summary alongside technical aspects such as the application of the GDE matrix and use of four coaching models, humanistic, behavioural (GROW), cognitive behavioural and motivational interviewing, with associated tools and techniques adapted for use in a driver context. The material was drawn from postgraduate coaching psychology programmes delivered at the University of East London. It also contained some basic

elements about individual differences, such as learning styles and theories about adult learning. The training was provided by a mix of trained coaching psychologists and experienced ADIs. Each of the participants was required to complete assessed work, including a reflective log and a video of their coaching practice. After completion of the programme a sample of participants were selected at random for interview by an independent researcher. The aim of the interview was to understand the experiences of using coaching methods with learners during the three months since completing the course and assessed work.

A semi-structured interview-based phenomenological approach was used to enable a flexible exploration of the deeper meaning of the participant's evaluation of helping novice drivers.

Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)

The study used IPA as the method of analysis. IPA is a qualitative research approach committed to the examination of how people make sense of their major life experiences (Smith, Flowers & Larkin 2009; Smith, 2008). Its aim is to explore lived experience and how participants themselves make sense of these events. It does not aim to fix the experiences into pre-defined categories.

The analysis involves 'the close, line by line analysis of the experiential claims, concerns and understandings of each participant' (Larkin, Watts & Clifton, 2006). It is also important for the researcher to be aware of their own influence and to 'bracket' or put to one side their own views as much as possible in order to concentrate on the detailed examination of the particular participant's account. However, the process acknowledges the influence of the researcher on the process, 'qualitative analysis is inevitably a personal process, and the analysis itself is the interpretative work which the investigator does at each of the stages' (Smith, 2008).

This study used IPA to enable an understanding of the individual experiences of the participants. A further reason to use IPA has been suggested by Smith and Osborn (2004) who state that IPA is a useful approach to take if the area being studied is under researched or new. For these reasons, as a preliminary study, IPA was deemed a suitable tool to explore the potential value of coaching as a pedagogy for novice driver development.

Interview methods
Data was collected from 15 semi-structured individual telephone interviews with ADIs who had completed the five-day programme. Interviews were conducted one-on-one with the participant. Semi-structured interviews were used in an attempt to gain a more fluid and in depth narrative from the participant (Smith, 2008).

Participants
Of the 15 participants, 12 were male and three female with age ranges between 32 and 63 years (m=47.66). The ADIs ranged from DSA rating of Grade 6 to Grade 4, with a skew towards Grade 6 instructors. Driver Instructor experience of participants ranged from one year to 26 years (m=8.6). Participation was voluntary and contact was made three months after individuals had received their results from the programme. This was four to five months after the last training intervention, allowing sufficient time for ADIs to experiment with the new approach.

Analysis
Analysis was carried out on the data using IPA procedures suggested by Smith (2008), and further refined by Smith, Flowers and Larkin (2009). The transcribed telephone interviews were read several times. From these readings, initial themes and key phrases were extracted and coded. These codes were consolidation into themes.

The process followed the following six stages:

- Step 1: Reading and re-reading.
- Step 2: Initial noting of emerging concepts.
- Step 3: Identify and develop emerging themes.
- Step 4: Look for connection across themes.
- Step 5: Repeat with next interview.
- Step 6: Look for patterns across interviews.

Ethical considerations
The personal data collected was amended with all reference to real name and geographical locality amended. All participants were given the right to withdraw at any time and also to have the data withdrawn at a later date.

Reflexivity
The nature of qualitative research dictates that there is a great deal of subjectivity both on the part of the participant and the researcher. According to Parker (2005), this enables a more personal phenomenological approach to investigation over quantitative research. Therefore, the findings of this research reflect the interpretation of the data by the authors.

Results
The results of this evaluation research suggest a positive impression is held by ADIs in this study of the potential effectiveness of coaching on novice drivers. Although it is too early to determine the longer term impact that using coaching with novice drivers, the initial experiences of the ADIs was encouraging.

Seven super-ordinate themes emerged from participating ADIs regarding the experience of training in coaching skills and applying this approach with learner drivers.

Theme 1: Understanding the nature of coaching
Prior to the coaching course, participants (ADIs) appeared to have a common misunderstanding about the nature of coaching.

They noted that the general view held by most ADIs was that coaching did form part of their learner teaching skills and was present in what was described by ADIs as 'the Q & A' session. However, after completion of the course most recognised that their previous practice was very different from the 'coaching' which they had been taught. The new approach reflected a greater emphasis on building personal responsibility through helping learners understand the reasons for their actions or possibility different courses of action.

> *'I now know that coaching is much more than just asking questions of someone.'* (ADI 9)

ADIs recognised following the training that coaching was a sophisticated skill and one which took considerable time and practice to master.

> *'I was surprised how different what we were taught was from what I was doing and how hard it was to use with pupils.'* (ADI 12)

Theme 2: Building an integrated approach – combining coaching and instruction

There was a view that coaching worked well as a blended approach. Learners were able to adjust to a mix of instruction and coaching as the topic and road conditions demanded.

> *'I feel I can mix coaching with instruction.'* (ADI 1)

ADIs held the view that instruction had a role to play for some individuals in understanding the basic controls of the car, for example, 'Where is the indicator switch?' Or 'Where are the window-screen wipers?' It specially had a key role to play in safety critical situations.

> *'Sometimes, for safety reasons, you just have to tell someone what to do.'* (ADI 5)

For some the instruction approached also helped when individuals got stuck.

> *'On occasions, giving the pupil the answer can help to overcome blockages.'* (ADI 7)

Theme 3: Developing new 'teaching' skills

There was a strong agreement that using coaching with learners was helpful. With many of the ADIs adopting the new skills as effective methods for helping their learners to move forward.

> *'…it has had a massive impact on the way I teach.'* (ADI 12)

Theme 4: Learners ability to accept responsibility for their learning

The main features that emerged were that participants believed their learners were more aware, willing and able to take on more responsibility after adopting a coaching style for their learning. ADIs reported that learners were better able to set the pace for their lessons and were able to give better feedback. As a result overall they felt learning was both quicker and more enjoyable for the novice learners.

The majority of participants had seen learners as passive recipients of the learning process. A widely held view was that they were individuals who required considerable support to make progress. However, the experience of using coaching with learners helped contribute to a change in perspective by participants, with a belief emerging that many learners were able to accept more responsibility for their learning and take greater control over the process.

> *'The main features that emerged were that pupils are more aware, are willing and able to take on more responsibility, setting the pace for the lessons and learning…were able to give better feedback and that learning within the lessons was both quicker and more enjoyable.'* (ADI 4)

> *'I had been doing some manoeuvres with a pupil and said let's move on. The pupil asked if they could practice this a bit more to get more comfortable with it. To me they seemed fine and normally I wouldn't have known they wanted to do more on it, because I would have been in the habit of telling them what to do. But, this pupil knew it wasn't quite right and wanted to practice some more, which surprised me and pleased me too.'* (ADI 11)

Another interesting issue that arose was that when using a coaching approach in lessons, participants' felt learners were more likely to explore more and less afraid to make mistakes.

Theme 5: Helping learners change their attitude towards learning to drive

Participants also felt an element of confusion amongst some learners. They felt that some learners expected to be told what to do within a lesson, rather than challenged to think about their learning and the impact of their actions behind the wheel. A number of participants found that it was important to identify those that don't want to be coached, so a more traditional approach could be used with them. This was outlined by one participant in particular, who attributed this engagement down to levels of intelligence and cultural differences.

> *'The more intelligent pupils get it quicker. Less intelligent pupils prefer to be told. Also, some of my pupils come from a background where they are always told what to do. These have to be taught by instruction and not coaching.'* (ADI 6)

Theme 6: The impact of learning on driver performance

Participants' felt that the coaching approach was overall a quicker way to learn.

> *'…learning was more likely to stick, as it is their own answers, not something that has been fed to them.'* (ADI 1)
>
> *'..pupils were more able to evaluate, and quicker too.'* (ADI 7)

ADIs also felt that it would have a lasting effect on them once they have become qualified drivers, with an impact beyond behaviour into individuals values and beliefs about driving and interacting with other road users.

> *'…coaching had an impact on how they think about driving.'* (ADI 3)

One ADI, however, was 'sceptical' about the impact coaching technique only would have after the test has been passed. They believe that many of the problems experienced in road traffic incidents were due to driver personality and that coaching needed to address this facet as well as basic techniques.

Theme 7: Achieving wider change in the industry

Participants were sceptical about wider change in the industry. They suggested coaching had some way to travel until it was understood and adopted more widely. This view is enforced by the comments of two participants who said:

> *'A lot of ADIs are not interested in developing themselves. A lot of them are very negative.'* (ADI 4)

Another ADI noted about the driving industry:

> *'…coaching is a solution…(for a)…problem (the industry) is not aware of.'* (ADI 7)

Overwhelmingly, ADIs felt that the main stumbling block was the DSA, who needed to publicly embrace coaching as part of the way that ADIs teach learners to drive and the way they assess ADIs.

> *'The DSA need to change their opinion. The system is against coaching at the moment.'* (ADI 6)

Among a number of participants there was a fear that as an ADI, they will be downgraded on their regular evaluations by their DSA assessor (described in the industry as 'the check test'), simply because they are using coaching rather than an instructional model.

> *'We need to live without fear of being downgraded in the check test.'* (ADI 4)

There was also a shared view about coaching and how it is currently perceived by many ADIs and DSA assessors. ADIs believed there was a feeling that coaching currently had a bad reputation in many quarters because of four main reasons. Firstly, there are a lot of ADIs who claim to be coaching, but are only used 'old style Q & A'. Secondly, they are a growing number of coaching driving courses, but the quality of training varied widely.

> *'The current quality of coaching training is horrendous.'* (ADI 8)

Thirdly, too much emphasis had been placed on the steering debate in contrast to an emphasis on encouraging greater personal responsibility. This has skewed the debate away from the central issue of coaching and a learner centred approach.

> *'We are wasting our time talking about push-pull – it's a side issue.'* (ADI 14)

Lastly the driving press has been dominated by people that are not experienced in coaching claiming that it was a waste of time, but with no evidence to draw on. Or by writers who were aware of theory but had no practical experience of using coaching.

> *'…the industry is full of ex-police drivers who think they know best, but they are talking about driving in the 1980s not 2010…it's all opinion with no evidence to back it up.'* (ADI 7)
>
> *'These diehards need to be weeded out.'* (ADI 1)
>
> *'Too many ADIs are set in their ways and reluctant to change.'* (ADI 4)

The clear message from participants was that the DSA needed to actively encourage a change in practice including greater use of coaching and base driver training on evidenced-based practice.

Discussion

This study aimed to explore the experience of ADIs in teaching novice drivers how to drive a car (category B) and their experience of using a new method of development, coaching, with novice drivers. The nature of IPA research means these views reflect the views of this group of individuals and thus cannot be generalised to the wider ADI community as a whole.

The wider psychological literature has suggested accidents are largely the result of human error and that human factors such as personality and values are strong influences on human performance and decision making (for example, Philippe et al., 2009). More recent policy work on driver development within the EU, has suggested that there is more to safe driving than simple mastery of the vehicles mechanical controls and that driver development should take this into account (EU MERIT, 2004). Further EU reports (HERMES, 2010) have advocated a greater use of coaching. To date, however, there has been no primary research to explore the application of coaching to learner driver environments.

For those who have trained in coaching methods, coaching appears to offer a practical solution for driver training. The results of this preliminary study into the experiences of using coaching with novice learners appear to confirm this. However, how do these results fit with the literature of decision making and learning theory?

It has been widely suggested that coaching can facilitate coachees to assume greater responsibility for their own actions (Whitmore, 2002). Similar claims are made about the role of coaching in learner driving (Whitmore, 2010). Psychological theory too suggests that instructional-based learning can interfere with learning in contrast with Socratic approach which encourages the learner to form their own sense of the material (Wright, Loftus & Hall, 2001). The ADI participants' suggested in this study that learners benefited from the coaching approach, when contrasted with an instructional approach. It was suggested that learners were able to learner faster and with more enjoyment.

What this study, as a qualitative exploration, has not be able to evidence, is whether this perception of ADIs is supported by shorter learning times or higher pass rates. Further, this study offers no evidence on whether coaching improves subsequent decision making through enhanced responsibility and thus reduces road traffic incidents. These three aspects are worthy of further research. Specifically does coaching as an additional pedagogy for use with learner drivers reduce learning time, improve standards (measured by pass rates) or reduce subsequent accident rates.

A second factor highlighted within the literature is the lack of focus within driver development on higher order skills (Senserrick & Haworth, 2005). The participants in

the study supported this view and noted that a coaching approach offered an opportunity to explore these areas in more detail and with lasting affect.

Once again these were participating ADIs perceptions of learners and no statistical evidence is able to drawn on to support the view that coaching-based learners were more likely to experience an attitude change than instruction-based learners. This too is worthy of further research.

A third theme which emerged and which is worthy of discussion was ADI participants' concern about the quality of ADI coach training in the driving sector. This was viewed as a limiting factor to individuals acquiring the skills they need. A short review conducted by one of the authors of this paper suggests that most of the coaching courses available for ADIs in the UK are short courses of five to six hours duration. Further, almost all of the providers are ADIs originally trained by the University of East London and are offering cut-down versions of materials acquired from their own training. The survey of these individuals suggests that the market is concerned about the costs of purchasing longer and formal training (Passmore, 2011; Passmore, In Press) which is the reason for a predominance of one-day courses in the market. A second factor is cost, with ADIs unable or unwilling to invest in their on-going development, due to the low profit margins in the sector.

Despite the enthusiasm of the participants of this study for the potential value in driver coaching, without further modernisation by the DSA, coaching may remain a supplementary technique for those keen to adopt new ways of working, leaving many driving instructors behind. This suggests that the Government itself needs to continue to take a more active role in encouraging the use of coaching and learner centred approaches. We would also argue that to achieve this, this will include the need to move from a voluntary approach to CPD to a compulsory requirement for CPDs for all ADIs and an expectation that a learner-centred/coaching approach is vital for

achieving the minimum standard in the industry's check test.

A fourth factor highlighted by some participants was the limitation of coaching as a tool for more intelligent (although this could be interpreted as more articulate) learners. It was noted that to date the coaching literature has not explored the issue of fit between coaching and personality or intelligence. However, as was noted above, this argument has previously been made in relation to counselling. Future research within coaching about coaching's efficacy with different groups and different individuals is much needed.

With respect to this study, a number of limitations have already been discussed. A number of further limitations should also be noted. The study was related to training offered by a single provider. The training was over a three-month period, with 36 hours of input and further reading, study and assessment at a postgraduate level. A shorter course, or other forms of training, may produce different results. Secondly, as an IPA study, the focus was on the experience of the ADIs in applying the techniques with learners. While common themes emerged, these are perspectives as opposed to an independent assessment of the impact of coaching techniques. This is useful as coaching in driver development is a new area of research and this paper was one of several preliminary studies to begin to understand the issues. Further research is required to explore learning in different learner driver contents. In addition research is needed to understand whether coaching is more effective or efficient for learning to drive. This may be measured in terms of the hours taken to pass the test and the pass rate. Also important, is to establish whether those who pass the test using a coaching method are safer drivers than those taught using traditional methods. At present no evidence exists on how coaching affects long-term driver performance, in respect of road traffic incidents.

Conclusions

This study looked at the physical and psychological demands of learning to drive a category B motor vehicle for novice drivers and the experiences of ADIs in applying coaching as a new method for driver learning. The study suggests that coaching can be a useful tool for use with novice drivers improving the learning experience. Further research is needed to build on the insights gained from this preliminary study.

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Utilising evidence–based leadership theories in coaching for leadership development: Towards a comprehensive integrating conceptual framework

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Purpose: *Examination of the coaching psychology literature shows that discussion about leadership coaching is disconnected from the scientific literature about leadership. Similarly, the latter has only recently begun to consider how leadership is developed. This lack of cross-engagement between two relevant evidence-based literatures is brought into sharp focus through leadership development coaching practice. This review from the perspective of external professional practice seeks to close the relevant knowledge gap through utilisation of a conceptual framework.*
Methods: *Lane and Corrie (2009) proposed three criteria which needed to be satisfied for effective coachee formation through coaching. Elliott (2007a) developed a framework from client case studies and naturalistic participant-observer reflections on coaching practice for leadership development intentionally informed by a range of evidence-based leadership theories. This framework satisfies the criteria proposed by Lane and Corrie. It is here applied and extended to provide an evaluation of current limiting assumptions in both the evidence-based coaching psychology and scholarly leadership literatures.*
Results: *The extended framework prompts systematic utilisation of salient knowledge domains, information inputs and processes for intentional coaching for leadership development. It demonstrates the necessary relevance of evidence-based leadership theories to coachee goal definition. It describes and contextualises coach-managed processes to establish, maintain and bound the coaching reflective space and demonstrates the relevance of other related literatures to inform coaching in organisations.*
Conclusions: *The required parameters in coaching for leadership development proposed by Elliott (2005) are further refined by proposing a more comprehensive model for leadership coaching to guide responsible professional practice and future research.*

THE ANNOUNCED PURPOSE of much coaching in organisations is about leadership development, whether this also be presented as executive, management, business or performance coaching. While considerable progress has been made in the exploration of the nature and dynamics of the coach – coachee relationship for the achievement of coachee goals, surprisingly little attention has been given in the evidence-based coaching psychology literature to the considerable empirical research about leadership in organisations. It is proposed that the time is now ripe, and indeed overdue, for some of the founding assumptions of coaching psychology to be

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[2] The antecedent of this paper was a presentation in a symposium entitled 'Best practices in testing and feedback training for development in a diverse global world' at the International Congress of Applied Psychology, Melbourne, July, 2010.
[3] The author was founding National Convener of the Interest Group in Coaching Psychology of the Australian Psychological Society (2002-2003) and again served as Co-National Convener in 2007.

revisited so that this rich literature about leadership can be accessed and appropriately applied in coaching.

As a contribution to advance this project, this paper utilises a conceptual framework about professional coaching for leadership development (Elliott, 2007a) to identify the relevance to the coaching relationship of two bodies of evidence-based literature – scholarly *leadership research* and *coaching psychology*. It is argued that both these areas of knowledge, skill and practice are essential for competent leadership coaching practice.

The vantage point from which to undertake this necessary integration is that of external professional coaching practice. Lane and Corrie (2009) highlighted the necessity for conceptual frameworks to guide practice for formative coaching and advanced three criteria which such frameworks need to satisfy. Elliott (2007a) described a conceptual framework for leadership coaching which satisfies those criteria. This paper applies and extends that leadership coaching conceptual framework through a discussion of empirical leadership theories which, it is asserted, should form part of the repertoire of professional coaches engaged in *any* form of leadership development for their coachees. It explores how such leadership theories or 'lenses' can and should be used to validly interpret coachee experiences in their organisational settings as necessary applications of relevant knowledge for developmental coaching. These theories are of similar importance for coaching psychology as are other areas of applied knowledge from the broad field of psychology. Finally, the framework for leadership coaching is extended through seven areas of discussion to highlight its nature and functioning as a guide not only for professional practice but for future research about the development of leadership in organisations.

Leadership in organisations and the emergence of coaching psychology

External professional coaching for development is a relatively new area of practice in and alongside organisations. In Australia, the UK and Europe, universities now offer courses and postgraduate certifications in coaching which foster increasingly rigorous evidence-based research about the nature of coaching and its outcomes. Since 2002, professional bodies such as the British and Australian Psychological Societies have established robust interest groups in coaching psychology which, in turn, have fostered this important publication – the *International Coaching Psychology Review (ICPR)*. Noting the special positioning of this emerging body of knowledge about evidence-based coaching, this paper seeks to respectfully address this professional constituency by inviting it to revisit some founding assumptions in coaching psychology which may impede its evolution to a more comprehensive and inclusive knowledge-base and practice in organisational contexts.

Grant and Cavanagh (2007) provide an introduction to *coaching psychology* in the following terms:

'Coaching psychologists use a wide range of theoretical frameworks, including psychodynamic, systemic, cognitive behavioural, solution-focused and positive psychology in their work. It is this focus on the systematic application of evidence-based behavioural science that distinguishes coaching psychology from the atheoretical proprietary approaches to coaching commonly seen in the market. In general terms, contemporary coaching psychology can be seen to sit at the intersection of clinical, counselling, sport, organisational and health psycho-logy.' (p.6)

In the emergent evidence-based literature of coaching psychology (for example, Palmer & Whybrow, 2006; Passmore, 2008; Grant, 2001, 2006; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006) coaching is differentiated from counselling, training, education, and consulting. *Coaching* is typically understood as a systematic engagement between two individuals (referred to as coach and coachee) for the

purpose of improving the realisation of the coachee's personal goals and enhanced performance outcomes (for example, Grant & Cavanagh, 2002; Grant, Cavanagh & Kemp (Eds.), 2005; Green & Grant, 2003; Whitmore, 1992; Zeus & Skiffington, 2000). It is concerned with current realities and present personal functioning with a view to achieving a future preferred state of acts and being by the coachee.

Coaching and coaching psychologists are now extensively used for management and executive development in organisations. However, while 'leadership' is an important aspect of what executives, managers and team leaders are expected to provide, interpretations of what *leadership* means vary. Until recently little attention has been given to the overall *organisational context* of the coachee in coaching psychology journal literature, even though the purpose of coaching may be about coachee performance as leaders and managers in organisations. On the other hand considerable attention has been given to enabling coachees achieve their higher personal potentials through the character, skills and methods of the coaching relationship (for example, Joseph, 2006; Nelson & Hogan, 2009; Linley & Harrington, 2006; Linley, Woolston & Biswas-Diener, 2009; Linley et al., 2010; Palmer & McDowell, 2010; Maxwell & Bachkirova, 2010).

Coaching for *leadership development* is commonly defined within coaching psychology research and actual practice as merely *the coaching of already identified leaders or potential leaders and managers in organisations.* No attempt is made to first theoretically, and then operationally, define exactly what *leadership* and *effective leadership* is in measureable terms, along with their antecedents and then assessing their impacts on individual, group and organisational outcomes.

It is striking that the extensive independent tradition of empirical literature concerning *leaders* and *leadership* (for a review, Bass & Bass, 2008) has not yet been

engaged and appropriately utilised by coaching psychology and coaching generally. While one might expect the broad, atheoretical and often opportunistic *coaching industry* to disregard accumulated research knowledge about leadership it is surprising that to this point very little use has been made of this research literature by *coaching psychology* given its strong commitment to multi-disciplinary enquiry and to evidence-based methodologies. When one reviews the coaching literature – including coaching psychology journals as represented by the *ICPR* – one cannot find *systematic* attempts to define leadership or effective leadership, or measures of these that are empirically operationalisable.

The development of leaders and leadership training

At the same time, leadership researchers have not yet engaged with the emergent coaching psychology literature. Rather, leadership and organisational researchers have been concerned with the antecedents of individual leaders and leadership – such as personality, locus of control, hardiness, multiple intelligences – cognitive, social and emotional, situations and leadership, organisational analysis, follower expectations, role theory and power, inter-relationships between recognised empirical leadership theories, and the recent interest in authentic leadership. (For some reviews: Antonakis, Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004; Avolio, 2007; Avolio & Chan, 2008; Avolio et al., 2010; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Conger & Pearce, 2003.) Recent *authentic leadership* (see Table 1) reviews have, however, refocused attention on the development of genuine leadership.

A reported meta-analysis drew attention to interventions which changed leadership and concluded that 'the context one grows up in and later works in is more important than heritability to leadership emergence' (Avolio et al., 2010, p.40). Research concerning the Pygmalion effect of self-fulling prophecy regarding leader self-expectations,

or the Galatea effect of heightened expectations of others, found the latter made no difference to outcome performance whilst the former did. This line of empirical research is interesting in that simultaneously, but apparently independently, much coaching psychology research has focused on developing heigthened leader self efficacy, personal strengths optimisation and extension, increased confidence through improved personal belief self-regulation. While as yet there are few studies in coaching psychology which link such development interventions with improved outcome performance, empirical leadership research has found that leaders who are high in such core positive psychological resources promote higher satisfaction and commitment in followers (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans et al., 2005).

The emergent authentic leadership theory, which augments and seeks to extend transformational leadership theory, regards psychological resource theory as a foundation for developmental interventions through identifying developmental readiness and positive psychological resources such as confidence, optimism, hope, resilience, positive emotions and motivation as malleable state-like qualities (as distinct from more enduring trait-like characteristics) which result in higher follower satisfaction and commitment (Avolio et al., 2010, pp.43–44).

Notwithstanding these parallel developments in research, coaching psychology and leadership research approach the issue of leadership development from different perspectives: the former from the professional practice of dyadic coaching relationships usually external to the organisational context, and the latter from consideration of internal relationships and processes within organisations – which relationships are commonly hierarchical in nature. As has been observed, coaching psychology is concerned with systematic processes in the reflective space of an enduring coaching relationship, while leadership research has been concerned to detect important but random trigger points which provide opportunities for leadership development. Both are avenues to heightened self-awareness which each research tradition regards as fundamental to leadership development.

Apart from these recent developments in emergent authentic leadership theory, leadership researchers have given little theoretical attention to the actual development of leadership (Day, 2001; Murphy & Riggio, 2003; Avolio & Chan, 2008; Avolio et al. 2010). Moreover, when leadership researchers have been concerned with the development of leaders, the focus of attention has been the leader – follower relationship dyad (for example, Dvir & Shamir, 2003). More generally in the actual organisational context, Avolio and Chan (2008) comment:

> '…when we put (the) core elements of leader, influence, and impact of situation together, the development of leadership as a process reflects the endeavour of leadership research on the whole' (p.210).

Given these research assumptions, leadership research consequently has given little attention to the actual development of leaders and leadership beyond the leader-follower dyad and situational foci (Avolio & Chan, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2008). Moreover, Day (2001) in particular drew attention to the significant gap between *research* about leadership development and the *practice* of leadership development, and that 'the practice of leadership development was far ahead of its scientific understanding' (p.206).

Reviewing the concept of *leadership* itself, the extensive evidence-based leadership literature contains a number of salient theories about leadership which have frequent citations and references in high impact leadership, organisation and management journals. For the benefit of this audience, a number of these are briefly summarised in Table 1.

No doubt there may be differences of opinion concerning such lists, the core summary interpretations of such theories

Table 1: Salient empirical leadership theories of relevance for coaching for leadership development. [3, 4]

Leadership theories/ Authors and key references	Brief summary
Full Range Leadership Model/Theory (FRLM) Antonakis, et al. (2003); Avolio (1999); Bass (1985, 1997, 1998); Bass & Bass (2008); Bass & Riggio (2006); Judge & Piccolo (2004); Sosik & Jung (2010).	Leadership is a process optimally spanning, over time, a full range of nine cross-culturally and multi-contextually validated behavioural influencing styles from transformational, transactional to passive-avoidant. The transformational – transactional – passive-avoidant dimensions are associated with differential outcomes at individual, group and organisational levels of analysis, with transformational influencing being change oriented and augmenting transactional influencing. The FLRM is concerned with optimising leadership profiles over time and not merely with the level of transformational influencing displayed. The theory is 'outcomes driven', meaning optimal FRLM profiles maximise leader impacts on followers and associates over time.
Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995).	Leadership comprises the dyadic exchanges between leaders and their individual followers associated with an inner and an outer group. The inner group is trusted with more information and experience higher levels of consultation with the leader than the outer group. This leadership pattern results in strong differentials in motivation, conflict and performance outcomes by members of the group.
Autocratic–Democratic Theory Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958).	Leadership decision-making is on a continuum from being highly directive through to highly participative. Participation levels can derive from delegation or abdication of responsibility by a designated leader. The decision to enable participation can depend on the situation, task or mission, and the opportunity for consultation in decision-making; it can also be determined by personality characteristics such as narcissism or intolerance of anxiety or ambiguity.
Path–Goal Theory House & Mitchell (1974).	This is an exchange theory of leadership. Followers perceive high productivity to be an easy path to attain personal goals: when they regard their immediate leader and organisational situation as a pathway to their own personal future are powerfully motivated to perform at higher levels of motivation and deeper levels of commitment. According to this theory, leaders only need to complement what is missing in a situation to enhance performance, motivation and task completion by followers.
Charismatic Leadership Theory Conger & Kanungo (1988).	Charismatic leadership taps into deep psychological identification and attachment processes of 'the self' in followers resulting in extraordinary levels of engagement and followership beyond personal self-interest. Such leaders are visionary, take significant risks, and can be unconventional.
Normative Contingency – Task Complexity Model Vroom & Yetton (1973); Vroom & Jago (1988).	Leadership style depends on the demands of the situation and the quality of outcomes required. Leader-managers become both more directive and more participative depending whether followers were affected by the mission outcome or not. The theory proposes a hierarchical decision-tree approach depending on task complexity and the need for follower-alignment.

[3] Short list as proposed by Elliott (2007a, 2007b).
[4] For a comprehensive review and discussion of these and other leadership theories, see Bass and Bass (2008).

Leadership theories/ Authors and key references	Brief summary
Power–Distance theory Hollander (1992); Hollander & Offerman (1990); Hofstede & Hofstede (2005).	The impact of leadership is related to perceptions of power which are motivational for followers and associates and can exhibit either dependency or counter-dependency response patterns. How power is perceived to be distributed varies depending on the size of the group or organisation. However, the power – distance ratio varies significantly in a normative fashion from culture to culture, and this shapes expectations about effective leadership
Strategic Leadership Theory For example, Avolio (2007); Schein (1992); Senge (1990).	Strategic leadership provides meaning and purpose for an organisation. It differs from operational and managerial leadership in the degree to which systems thinking is required to produce value greater than the sum of individual parts and to determine organisational direction and its responses to contextual and environmental issues, challenges and opportunities: strategic changes involve rethinking current values and re-orienting an organisation. A variety in executive roles and different forms of corporate governance exist. The strategic leadership required by chief executive officers (CEOs) varies depending on an organisation's life cycle stage (founding, maintenance and either rejuvenation or decline).
Follower Impacts on Leadership Dvir & Shamir (2003).	The developmental readiness and capacity of followers can enable and also limit or disable the exercise of transformational leadership by leaders.
Authentic Leadership Avolio & Luthans (2006); Avolio, Griffith, Wernsing & Walumbwa (2010); Avolio & Wernsing (2008); Garner, Avolio, Luthans, May & Walumba (2005); Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson (2008).	Authentic Leadership (AL) is an emergent theory comprising four components of leadership conceptualised as a leader's self awareness, their transparency, their ethical/moral conduct and their balanced processing. At this early stage of scale validation of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) it is thought that AL may be distinguished from ethical and transformational leadership. The basic factor structure of the ALQ has been reported to hold up across several cultures (America, Kenyan and Chinese); however it does not account for contextual influences on leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson (2008, p.118).
Situational Leadership Theory Hersey & Blanchard (1976); Hersey, Blanchard & Natemeyer (1979).	This contingency theory regards leadership as differentially taking into account the developmental stages and needs of followers in projects and organisational units. The leader responds according to four typically differentiated styles.
Least Preferred Co-worker Theory Fiedler (1967).	This contingency theory regards leadership as prioritising between task-focus and people-focus. Relationships, power and task structure are the three key factors that drive effective styles.

which are necessary for coaching practice, and their worthiness and indeed relevance to the identification and development of leadership. If so, let the discussion begin! It may be that in time theories about effective *leadership* generated by coaching psychology research may supplement this list.

For instance, the research by Cerni, Curtis and Colmar (2008, 2010a, 2010b) provides an important bridge between the established transformational – transactional model and the intra-psychic *analytic-rational* and *intuitive-experiential* coachee domain which can be the object of coaching processes. However, it is suggested that, given the evident tendencies in the coaching psychology literature about *leadership*, caution needs to be exercised about the premature elevation of non-systematic implicit assumptions about what constitutes *effective leadership* derived from the coaching relationship *per se*.

From the perspective of observed organisational behaviour, enhancing leadership in organisations is commonly reduced in practice to finding a person with the 'right' characteristics. However, from the extensive scholarly leadership research undertaken, and despite popular beliefs and expectations to the contrary, no such personal universal *traits* have been found which can predict effective leadership in *all* situations.

Interestingly, Barrick and Mount (1996) reported that *traits* tend to do a better job of predicting *the appearance* of leadership rather than distinguishing between effective and ineffective leaders. One wonders then how many Human Resource Managers allow their judgements to be shaped by such surface level phenomena. For an excellent review and summary discussion of traits and leadership refer to Bass and Bass (2008; chapters 4 and 5).

For the purposes of this paper, and by way of illustration, attention to the development of leaders and leadership viewed from

the scholarly leadership literature will be confined to a discussion of the transformational-transactional empirical research base. This limitation seems to be justified given the prominence in leadership research of the Full Range Leadership Theory[5], the extensive training in *leadership development* which has been reported (Barling, Webber & Kelloway, 1996; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Howell & Avolio, 1989; Parry & Sinha, 2005; Sosik & Jung, 2010) including controlled pre-/post-field studies, and a significant body of research linking the reliable measures of leadership with elevated performance outcomes at individual, group and organisational levels (see Table 2).

Bass and Riggio (2006) describe Full Range Leadership (FRL) training in some detail (chapter 10) and cite studies demonstrating the efficaciousness of such training in relation both to improved transformational – transactional profiles (for example, the quasi-experimental pre- and post-evaluation of community leaders, pp.159–160). They also cite independent studies concerning a range of outcome measures which are related to performance improvement. Even so, they conclude:

'although significant work has been done in transformational leadership *training* much more is needed.' (p.234)

It is noteworthy that coaching psychology from its earliest days (Grant, 2001) distinguished *coaching* from *training*, and Bass in his account of coaching refers only to early forms of internal line management coaching and mentoring (Bass & Bass, 2008, pp.1091–1092). However, the time has come for this boundary of differentiation between coaching and training to be re-examined (Elliott, 2010a, 2010b; Elliott & Palermo, 2008). As recently observed (Franklin & Doran, 2009; Gyllensten et al., 2010; Leonard-Cross, 2010) the number of coaching psychology objective outcome studies is small: it pales into insignificance

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[5] For instance, Judge and Piccolo (2004) in their meta-analytic study reported that more studies had been published on the transformational-transactional theory than on any other leadership theory.

when compared to the voluminous transformational leadership out-comes literature.

There is a tendency among coaching practitioners and possibly coaching research circles to assume that what is 'most recent' is better or best. Some of the leadership theories cited may, therefore, be dismissed as passé. However these postmodern philosophical assumptions in contemporary culture need to be resisted. Responsible research builds on what has been demonstrated to be true: yet how much research is actually the quest for the 'novel' or 'new' without any regard for significant research traditions which establish domains and fields of knowledge. To establish a universally valid theory of leadership may take upwards of 30 years or more of replication, challenge, modification, situational and cultural refinements, leading to seminal break-through studies which establish the new territory. Such is the history of FRL research: yet it is not uncommon for new theories to be proclaimed in coaching after only a few preliminary studies.

Coaching for leadership development is clearly interested in outcomes: about that coaching psychology and leadership research share a common concern. Scholarly high impact journal articles which measure the impact of transformational leadership on a range of individual, group and organisational outcomes are presented in Table 2.

FRL training has frequently taken place in organisation-wide interventions involving three-day workshop group processes – often starting at or near the top of organisations. Sometimes such training has been abridged to two-day workshops in combination with various booster sessions (for example, Parry & Sinha, 2005). Moreover, FRL training was that – training in knowledge about the Full Range Leadership Model combined with facilitative group processes about how to incorporate this research in both personal behavioural and personal reflection processes. The MLQ360 assessment has been typically used for assessment and developmental feedback purposes in these interventions. Additionally, use was made of peer learning circles where various disclosures were made by participants and indeed encouraged.

Sosik and Jung (2010) elaborated this FLR training by examining in detail and

Table 2: A selection of empirical research findings about the outcome impacts of transformational leadership.

Research on outcomes of transformational leadership.	Selected references
Transformational leaders make a difference to outcomes.	Keller (1995).
Transformational leadership is positively related to business unit performance and financial outcomes.	Barling, Weber, & Kelloway (1996); Howell & Avolio (1993).
Positive relationships exist between safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational safety.	Barling, Loughlin & Kelloway (2002).
Top manager (CEO) high transformational leaders are associated with organisational innovation in the IT industry in Taiwan.	Jung, Wu & Chow (2008).
Transformational and Transactional correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction.	Dumdum, Lowe & Avolio, 2003; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramanian (1996).
The MLQ assessment of the transformational – transactional theory validly predicted individual and group performance of a large longitudinal field experiment within a military context.	Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson (2003).

explicating the components of Full Range Leadership Development Theory. They write 'our experience in teaching and researching leadership has taught us that the best way to become skilled in FRLD (Full Range Leadership Development), or any leadership topic for that matter, is '*learning by deeply understanding and then doing*'' (p.32). Critical questioning is an important feature of this training – questioning often led or facilitated by the trainer.

Such FRL approaches to leadership development are naturally suited to workshop or classroom-type situations...indeed one might also conjecture that they reflect or are indeed driven by paradigms of an academic enterprise model as befits its origins. Day (2001) commented that such classroom programmes were still widely used by organisations as one type of developmental practice, citing a 1995 American Society for Training and Development survey finding that 85 per cent of companies that engaged in leadership development used formal classroom programmes. However, even in 2001, Day observed that 'many organisations are realising that such programmes are not enough' (p.586).

Coaching and/or Training:
Drivers for leadership development?
Now in the foundations of the coaching psychology movement as has been mentioned, coaching was clearly delineated from training. *Coaching* is starting from a different place, namely the coach-coachee dyadic relationship and the individual's perspectives, their experiences, their issues, their personality, and what assists them to unlock their potentials, for example, the editorial themes of Kemp (2009a) in the special edition of the *ICPR* 'Coaching and Leadership'. This perspective perpetuates the early definitions and theoretical formulations of what 'coaching is' in so far as coaching is carved out explicitly in contradistinction from training (Grant, 2001, 2006): training and advising have been evaluated as the extraneous importation of

'expert knowledge' (so 'not coaching'). So whereas FRL training as often practiced in the US and elsewhere starts from engagement with whole organisations – and uses group as well as individual interventions – coaching starts from a pair of individuals who can be in organisational contexts.

Thomas Kuhn (1970) maintained that advances in science necessarily involve a 'Gestalt switch' which draws upon psychological and sociological (and one might add economic and business) dimensions (for a discussion see Chalmers, 2007, pp.116–117, 122–128). What is the Gestalt switch which will enable coaching and training for leadership development to re-engage?

Considering the possible sociological dimensions in leadership development research, three orientations are apparent. Firstly, academic university-driven research into individual, group and organisational behaviour driven by transparent and succinct publication in journals subject to critical blind peer review. Secondly, coaching practice ultimately driven by economic advantage which, for proprietary reasons and commercial confidentiality limit the appetite for practitioners to publish results and methods of 'what works' in leadership development and which necessarily results in the selective reporting only of positive results to avoid commercial disadvantage. Thirdly, professional practice presentations and peer review through high quality professional association-sponsored seminars and conferences, such as those hosted according to the professional codes of practice of established psychological societies. While there are overlaps between these three orientations in leadership research, it is nevertheless imperative for the advancement of science, as Kuhn has proposed, that the particular sociological and economic constraints relevant to each orientation are recognised and properly evaluated. The emergent field of coaching psychology has an important part in strengthening the third orientation and in facilitating exchange between the first two orientations. It is suggested that the first may

well often undervalue the third as a source of innovation and new knowledge about what works in coaching for leadership development.

Extending such Kuhnian analysis to include possible cross-cultural/country patterns in research and practice about leadership development, one may observe that in the US – where most FRL training has occurred – it has often been in association with the university orientation and positioning. By contrast, the evidence-based coaching psychology movement – now strongly developed in the UK and Australia – has been relatively poorly developed in the US where the proprietary coaching theories and models of the second orientation abound and are strongly marketed and exported: but any transparently reported research base underpinning them has often been slight or indeed absent. One might, therefore, conjecture that the social, economic, cultural and institutional differences in positioning in these countries may be one reason why the gap between evidence-based coaching (strongly driven in the UK and Australia) and leadership research (strongly driven within the US) has not started to be addressed until recently. Whatever the reasons, there continues to be little engagement by coaching psychology literature of the empirical leadership literature, as evidenced by issues 1 to 5 of the *ICPR* (2006–2010).

Coaching for Leadership Development Practice

As has been observed, on the one hand, university-based research can sometimes drive practice; on the other hand professional practice can sometimes drive university research. Serious self-critical and reflective practitioners who engage in coaching for leadership development try to take account of scholarly research and emergent theory from coaching psychology. At the same time they also seek to utilise the systematic evidence-based research and theory about leadership in organisations.

Pathways and methods are required to 'get the balance right' between the insights from both coaching psychology about the development of human potentials, and leadership research – particularly which shed light diagnostically on what constitutes *effective* and *ineffective leadership* and how this might be assessed and indeed reliably measured. Such pathways need to be not naive about the economic imperatives which drive any particular research or practice orientation; this includes university research which can uncritically be held *ipso facto* to be more objective, valid, reliable, authoritative, and the source of most true advances in coaching skills and knowledge.

An important issue for coaching and its founding assumptions, is whether coach and coachee contain within themselves the necessary knowledge and skills to project what effective leadership is or could be in an organisational situation? If a body of knowledge exists external to the coach-coachee relationship, then how might the latter be redefined to utilise such knowledge without losing the gains and insights made by coaching psychology? It would seem that this quest is not too dissimilar to the application to coaching of diagnostics about human pathology from, say, mental health psychological perspectives. If such areas of clinical and counselling psychological knowledge and practice from the broad field of psychology be admitted, then why not also foster research and practice engagement between coaching psychology with the knowledge and practice of industrial and organisational psychology?

The urgency of the quest for a more integrated and comprehensive approach to coaching for leadership development is highlighted by the comparative absence of engagement with the empirical leadership literature as reviewed here in the recent special edition of *ICPR* 'Coaching and Leadership' (Vol. 5(1), 2009). 'Coachee strengths-based coaching', 'solution-focused coaching', and 'coachee directed goal attainment coaching' has dominated the current

paradigms for evidence-based coaching, including excursions into coaching for leadership development. Moreover, it has been recently proposed in that the coaching relationship itself, and indeed the coach themselves, should constitute 'the future direction' for research and practice about leadership in coaching psychology practice (Kemp, 2009b). Such a programme would seem to lead coaching research and practice about leadership development to the logical endpoint of the current limiting tendencies in coaching psychology to which this paper has drawn attention. Now the time is really right to explore scientific leadership theories and their necessary use in coaching. One might ask, therefore, for a later discussion, 'What might be relevant Kuhnian perspectives on this evident bias?'

The utility of conceptual frameworks for leadership coaching practice and research

To advance some answers to questions about fundamental perspectives regarding coaching for leadership development it is here proposed that this journey will be assisted by the articulation of more inclusive and appropriate conceptual frameworks for coaching, following the suggestions of Lane and Corrie (2009). They pursued the need for clear frameworks in formative coaching psychology practice, and advance three criteria if such conceptual frameworks for coaching are to be 'fit for purpose' – namely a model or framework:

1. that is consistent with a client partnership framework in which it is possible to incorporate a variety of stakeholder positions;
2. that can take account of a broader range of factors than the individual and internal' (by the 'zeitgeist of internal causation');
3. of formulation that has relevance to all contexts, regardless of the goals chosen, theoretical position adopted or techniques for change used (that is… it must be replicable across time, place and contract.' (p.199)

Lane and Corrie (2009) add, 'in general terms, *formulation* can be understood as an explanatory account of the issues with which a client is presenting (including predisposing, precipitating and maintaining factors) that can form the basis of a shared framework of understanding and which has implications for change' (p.199).

This author agrees that such frameworks are crucial in working with clients at the levels of performance and developmental coaching, as well as work involving any degree of complexity; and that formulation can serve many functions ranging from the identification of relevant issues and goals, to enhancing coach empathy and collaboration.

In 2006, Fillery-Travis and Lane also drew attention to the need for clear frameworks for the various modalities of coaching – internal and external provider contexts, and manager provided – if any empirical evaluation of the effectiveness of coaching was to be demonstrated. An example of the *external coaching modality* was presented by Elliott, (2007a, 2007b). Later Franklin and Doran (2009) advanced considerations of the effectiveness of different coaching frameworks and models in a double blind random control study of alternative coaching frameworks related to effective academic performance.

Specifically concerning coaching for leadership development, Leonard (2003) highlighted the need for coaching to take leadership research seriously and provided a review of some relevant leadership theories; and Elliott (2003) presented at Sydney University on the need for a comprehensive approach, and drew attention to the question of the absence of such evidence-based interpretative theories and knowledge about effective and ineffective leadership in the coaching literature and coaching psychology presentations. He advanced seven propositions for professional coaching about leadership development, which included the need for a proper utilisation of scientifically established leadership theories (Elliott, 2005).

Through a methodological process of case studies, professional presentations and critical peer review, naturalistic methods with attention to accurate phenomenological description and objective analysis of actual professional practice, Elliott then developed and presented two comprehensive posters at the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference in Sydney entitled: 'Coaching for leadership development: The zone of professional practice' (2007a) and a companion 'Critique of coaching and leadership research literature from the zone of professional practice' (2007b). The synergies between the conceptual analysis, purpose, role and function of Elliott's proposal and the formative framework conceptuality as proposed by Lane and Corrie are striking. Extracts of this framework are presented in Figures 1 to 7.

So in the practice of 'being in the reflective space in the zone of coaching', partially represented in Figure 1, it is necessary to bring to the fore and represent necessary engagement with the fruits of empirical leadership research in the reflective space on the one hand, and engagement with the core aspects of coaching and coaching processes on the other. The total framework Elliott (2007a, summarised in Figure 4), identifies and maps key contributing realities and processes considered to contribute to establishing and maintaining a comprehensive and integrated reflective space in leadership coaching. Although schematic it highlights the opportunity of 'getting the balance right' in the reflective space of coaching for leadership development. It invites enquiry and challenges common assumptions about what knowledge, skill and processes are necessary and relevant. Moreover, it provides a

Figure 1: Implicit theories and the coach and coachee. Extract from Elliott (2007a).

manageable number of salient and highly relevant reference points for active systematic monitoring in coaching conversations and by researchers of leadership coaching.

Leadership theory in the reflective space of coaching for leadership development

Such conceptual frameworks focus attention about salient matters for leadership development. They imply the question: *From whence come the authorities upon which any theories about leadership may be based?* In search for answers the reader is invited into the coaching relationship – into the safe 'private room' of the coaching encounter between two people. This situation is not about classroom or workshop training as traditionally understood.

What does this reflective space in time look like from both the perspectives of the coach and coachee, and what is its

relationship to: (a) the organisational context; and (b) realms of expert knowledge about leadership (which is predictive of individual and organisational outcomes)?

Considering Figures 1 and 2, key reference points include the complexities of the organisational context and 'lenses' from leadership theory. It is the coach's responsibility to ensure that the overall balance the framework system suggests is achieved over time. The framework prompts the strategic systematic scanning or monitoring of the relevant content and processes involved.

The framework representation of lenses from leadership theory requires the identification of such theories deemed suitable for utilisation in the reflective space of coaching for leadership development. Appropriate examples from the extensive scientific literature about effective leadership models are

Figure 2: Interpretative lenses from theory: scientific leadership research. Extract from Elliott (2007a).

**Figure 3: The reflective space in the coaching relationship.
Extract from Elliott (2007a).**

considered to be those listed in Table 1. These theories become potential lenses for interpretation in the reflective space of the content presented by organisational context and coachee. These theories expand and 'tune up' the implicit theories about leadership which the coach and coachee bring to the purposeful relationship. They inform 'what counts' (what is authoritative) regarding effective outcomes for leadership styles given related situational and contextual organisational realities relevant to leadership, and theories which sharpen awareness and operational performance of the coachee in the organisation.

The zone of professional practice in *leadership coaching* (Elliott, 2007a) seems to satisfy the three criteria advanced by Lane and Corrie (2009) to be 'fit for purpose'.

Elaboration of a Balanced Conceptual Framework for Leadership Development

In view of the preceding analysis of leadership development from the zone of professional practice seven extension areas are now briefly proposed and discussed as contributing towards best practice.

1: The need for conceptual frameworks to guide professional leadership coaching.

The conceptual framework for leadership coaching at the individual level (Figure 2) gives salience to the utilisation of specialist 'interpretative lenses from leadership' and relevant 'group and organisational theories' in the coaching reflective space. Extending on the necessary processes required, it is proposed that the coach needs to systemati-

cally monitor the range of possible interpretative lenses and, as appropriate introduce them as part of the meaning-making processes in the reflective space. This requires the coach to bracket or hold in check his/her own *implicit* beliefs and theories about leadership and organisations and indeed moderate these through their own engagement with the interpretative lenses as part of their own on-going professional development.

An additional implication for coaching psychology from the scholarly leadership literature is the recognition that *leadership* takes place at the group and organisational levels in addition to the individual level (Avolio et al., 1996; Avolio et al., 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Schein, 1992; Tosi, 1991; Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002). Additionally, the leadership literature emphasises that the *organisational context* of the coachee is crucial for interpreting the interactions between leaders and organisations (for example, Avolio, 2007; Elliott, 2005, 2007) and as many of the leadership theories in Table 1 hold. Consequently, to treat the leadership development coachee in isolation from these phenomena is a serious deficiency in coaching following an individualist paradigm. The interpretative lens proposed in the framework (Figure 2), therefore, opens up a necessary corrective to much coaching for leadership development.

2: Lessons from curriculum theory for coaching in leadership development.

The conceptual framework proposed by Elliott (2007a) enables an overall system perspective of what may otherwise be seen as competing system elements. This is similar to curriculum theory in education which also seeks to orchestrate a number of diverse components of the educative process: for example, persons as learners, knowledge and skill domains, the purposes of the curriculum, the role of the teacher/facilitator, resources available and the mediums for information presentation, learning activities and theories, developmental theories

and their appropriate application, assessment practices (whether formative or summative, for example), system evaluation assumptions and the total set of assumptions about the contexts in which the embedded learning occurs. Coaching psychology could profit from more engagement with curriculum theory from the field of education which is also dedicated to human development. The total conceptual framework proposed by Elliott (2007a, Figure 4) illustrates how the various elements are orchestrated to form and frame the reflective space.

3: The psychodynamics of the coaching reflective space: boundary maintenance and process drivers.

The conceptual framework (Elliott, 2007a) proposes process micro-drivers which establish and drive the coaching reflective space: (i) the appropriate utilisation by the coach of a range of both facilitative skill and expert knowledge modalities; (ii) the facilitation by the coach of the coachee exploration of 'self-other beliefs' within a developmental perspective (for example, as envisaged by Kegan, 1982); and (iii) the application of ethical principles to achieve and maintain coachee informed consent. The total relational context is established through both formal and informal contracting agreements which define its purpose and scope of coaching, and which involve all the stakeholders (see Figure 5): the coach and/or coach organisation, the sponsoring organisation for the coachee client(s) and each coachee.

The interpersonal nature of each coach-coachee relationship is of great importance (Gyllensten, & Palmer, 2007; O'Broin & Palmer, 2010; Palmer & McDowall, 2010). The relationship is essentially characterised by *mutuality*. In a related analysis, Welman and Bachkirova (2010) have helpfully explored the use and meaning of 'power' in coaching relationships. However, the conceptual framework (Elliott, 2007a) invites considerations relating to power to be viewed from the perspective of an analysis of

Figure 4: Coaching for leadership development: The zone of professional practice. Full conceptual framework. Extract from Elliott (2007a).

Figure 5: Purpose and the reflective space: Contracting and evaluation in organisations. Extract from Elliott (2007a).

assumptions and attributions concerning authority – whether about persons, organisational context, knowledge, belief systems or scientific theory (Elliott, 2010c). So understood, relationship, power, context, and authority are all important aspects of the reflective space in the creation of meaning for personal development.

4: Selection criteria for 360 feedback psychometric assessments and their implementation in practice.

While anybody can ask a question which they believe to be useful and important concerning leadership, some questions are better than others. 360 assessment platforms today readily enable custom designer content which may be generated by survey purveyors, client organisations, coaches and clients. While these may be high on face validity through tapping into shared implicit theories about leadership for instance, they may in fact be of little or no value in promoting effective leadership development and its associated outcomes. As has been discussed, the widespread utilisation of individuals' and organisations' *implicit leadership theories* does not confer on such beliefs usefulness in providing feedback for coachee development, other than possibly increasing awareness between self- and other- perception differences.

Some questions are better than others in reliably measuring *leadership* as this may differentially relate to a range of outcomes effects…some desirable and others undesirable. Good questions capture content which has relatively sharp boundaries, resulting in considerable agreement among any rater audience about what information is being captured on the leadership stage and by that 'spotlight'. Poor questions appear to be fuzzy and lack consensus with regard to their meaning. Well-designed psychometric surveys have a structure which can be likened to clusters of illuminating spot lights which overlap each other on the leadership stage.

The MLQ360 is an example of a good psychometrically valid survey which has been shown to function validly in many contexts (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Data collected which is predictive of a range of desired outcomes is preferable to mere norm comparisons which simply require the coachee to consider where they are in relation to others and may indeed have no relation with desired leadership performance outcomes.

5: External and internal goal definition: Getting the balance right through relevant resource selection and process.

On the one hand valid 360 psychometric feedback can propose goals for leadership development which are informed and shaped by scientific theory and knowledge about effective leadership (McDowall & Millward, 2010). On the other hand coaching focuses on assisting the coachee towards their own identification of goals, motivations and desired future states which are attractors for them (and may be their sponsoring organisation). Integrating the inner goal aspirations of the coachee with objectives for behavioural change as proposed by leadership research is a critical new area for research and practice in coaching psychology for leadership development. Strategies and methods exist which aim to accomplish this[6]: however, an account of these is beyond the scope of this paper.

What is vitally important in terms of balancing the internal – external generation of goals for development is the coach facilitating the coachee taking personal ownership of the scientifically informed 360 objectives for leadership development through a selection and visualisation process involving their relationships and organisational context. Such processes assist the translation of 'external/scientifically objective' research-based assessment data which proposes goals for leadership development into an

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[6] For example, the MILDERS 360 roll-out system of MLQ International.

internal 'owned personal development plan' with follow-through support relationships and mechanisms to enable coachee transition from 'application and practice' to 'personal adoption'.

6: Coaching processes which enhance transformational leadership

The ground-breaking research by Cerni, Curtis and Colmar (2008, 2010a, 2010b) provides amongst the first empirical evidence that behavioural demonstrations of coachee *transformational leadership* itself can be increased by coaching methods focusing on changes to the coachee's *analytical-rational* system and constructive thinking of the *intuitive constructive* system. The *intuitive-experiential* system can be both constructive and destructive. This field study was with adult leaders in educational organisations and used a pre-test, post-test control-group research design which spanned a 10-week coaching programme. All staff in each organisation independently rated their leader and there was no difference in the control group.

The study utilised aspects of the plan roll-out system referred to in 'Extension Area 5'. FRL was assessed using multi-rater data with the MLQ5x scale.

7: Necessary ethical principles and skills in coaching processes

These principles and core values for professional conduct can be applied to provide general guidance for the utilisation of scientific knowledge about leadership in coaching. When these ethical principles are practiced in the conceptual framework processes maintaining the reflective space for leadership development, the coachee is drawn into key process decision-making concerning their own journey in coaching and is required to take responsibility for them. This extension commentary will be limited to only several key points.

The professional ethical principles of *competence and propriety* require attention to scientific knowledge about leadership in coaching for leadership development. If coaches promote themselves and indeed act as 'leadership coaches' it is ethically incumbent on them to be acquainted with core research about leadership and how this can be utilised in practice.

With regard to the introduction and use of leadership theories, the *principles of disclosure* and *informed consent* require that the coach explain to the coachee, usually in advance, the shifts in methodology from

Table 3: Common Ethical Principles in Codes of Professional Practice.

Appropriate disclosure:	The need for appropriate disclosure of purpose and any related interests.
Informed consent:	Securing the voluntary informed consent of the client for any programme or procedure.
Competence:	Accurately representing claimed competence and the limits to competence.
Avoidance of conflicts of interest:	The responsibility to resolve conflicts of interest arising from competing values and commitments.
Confidentiality:	Maintaining appropriate levels of confidentiality regarding the sharing of any classes of information with other persons or institutions.
Propriety:	Acceptance of the need for personal responsibility for decisions and their consequences along with the maintenance of personal autonomy and accountability.

Elliott & Tuohy, Melbourne, 2006.

facilitative to expert modes and vice-versa (disclosure) and then seek agreement (informed consent) to these moves by checking with the coachee. Such procedures are educative and empowering for the coachee. They also enable avoidance of coachee dependence on the coach as in counselling.

These ethical practices are part of the necessary *facilitative* and *expert modality* repertoire required of the coach (Elliott, 2005). This ethical repertoire is necessary for the transitions to be made in the reflective space which utilise expert knowledge if the essential developmental purposes of coaching are not to be violated. It is proposed that the capacity of the coach to know and be able to apply all these ethical principles in their practice is required by the principles of competence and propriety for professional conduct.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper has reviewed current emphases and limitations of the current coaching industry and literature. To achieve comprehensiveness and required professional practice relevance, it is proposed that approaches such as the *conceptual framework for leadership coaching* (Elliott, 2007a) should be utilised which systematically monitor and prompt for a number of salient but necessarily relevant inputs. This framework includes the use of lenses from leadership theory which, in distinction from much writing in the coaching and coaching psychology literature approaches, have been established *independently* from the coach – coachee or organisational *implicit theories* held and assumed about what is considered to be effective leadership.

Ethical principles commonly found in professional practice codes have been applied to provide guidance for the handling

Figure 6a: Key coaching processes within the coaching reflective space. Extracts from Elliott (2007a).

**Figure 6b: Key coaching processes within the coaching reflective space.
Extracts from Elliott (2007a).**

**Figure 6b: Key coaching processes within the coaching reflective space.
Extracts from Elliott (2007a).**

Figure 7: Overview: Coaching processes within the coaching reflective space.
Extract from Elliott (2007a).

of such scientific leadership theories in the reflective space, contracting, and boundary management for the coaching reflective space itself. This guidance, together with a comprehensive understanding of the coaching relationship, enables responsible transitions in coaching for leadership development through coaching (coach and coachee) being appropriately informed by scientific and scholarly leadership research using interpretative 'lenses' from theory to illuminate the leadership stage of a particular coachee and their organisational context.

The scientific leadership literature has only recently commenced serious enquiry about how leaders and leadership are developed from a psychological perspective. In this regard it needs to pay attention to the strengths of coaching psychology and its growing research evidence-base.

Some reasons for the continuing disconnect between the evidence-based leadership and coaching literatures have been canvassed. It is proposed that the conceptual framework for leadership development entails a necessary correction to much coaching psychology practice and writing about leadership development if truly evidence-based scientific attributions are to be used to describe these activities.

Suggestions for further research and practice review
Given the extensive reported activity in coaching for leadership development as a frequent purpose of coaching on the one hand, and the recent interest in the development of leaders and leadership by leadership scholars on the other hand, there is need for further critical analysis of the assumptions being entertained. Additionally, given agreed systematic definitions and measures of leadership, there is an urgent need for field research which investigates the effectiveness of different kinds of coaching frameworks and models for leadership development.

In particular, as reviewed here there have been a number of studies of the effectiveness

of Full Range Leadership training for the development of people to elevated individual, group and organisational performance outcomes. How do these outcome effects compare with the individual dyadic coaching effects of leadership development approaches through coaching psychology methods? How can coaching psychology utilise the findings concerning the antecedents and processes of leadership development found in the leadership literature? How can further progress be made about the role and importance of the cognitive 'inner side' of developing effective leadership in terms of outcome effects. These and many other questions seem both urgent and important if the *new field of coaching for leadership development* is to be sought out and claimed.

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A pilot study evaluating strengths–based coaching for primary school students: Enhancing engagement and hope

Wendy Madden, Suzy Green & Anthony M. Grant

Objective: *This pilot study examines the impact of an evidence-based strengths coaching programme on male primary school students' levels of engagement and hope.*
Design: *In a within-subject design study, 38 Year Five male students (mean age 10.7 years) participated in a strengths-based coaching programme as part of their Personal Development/Health programme at an independent, private primary school in Sydney, Australia.*
Method: *Participants were randomly allocated to groups of four or five with each group receiving eight coaching sessions over two school terms. The Youth Values in Action survey was used to highlight participant's character strengths, and the participants were coached in identifying personally meaningful goals, and in being persistent in their goal-striving, as well as finding novel ways to use their signature strengths. They also completed a 'Letter from the future' that involved writing about themselves at their best.*
Results: *The strengths-based coaching pilot programme was associated with significant increases in the students' self-reported levels of engagement and hope.*
Conclusions: *Strengths-based coaching programmes may be considered as potential mental health prevention and promotion intervention in a primary school setting to increase students' wellbeing and may also form an important part of an overall Positive Education Programme.*
Keywords: *Evidence-based coaching; strengths-coaching; hope; positive psychology.*

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY can be understood as being a strengths-based psychology, founded on the humanistic assumption that people want to lead meaningful and fulfilling lives (Seligman, 2002). Positive psychology has also been defined as the study of optimal functioning (Gable & Haidt, 2005). There are an increasing number of positive psychology interventions (PPIs) that are being developed for the purposes of mental health prevention and promotion, with generally promising outcomes (for a recent meta-analysis, see Sin & Lyubormirsky, 2009).

Positive psychology's complementary partner, Coaching psychology, can be understood as being an 'applied positive psychology' – a collaborative, solution-focused, systematic methodology designed to enhance wellbeing, facilitate goal attainment and foster purposeful, positive change. There are several research studies that provide support for coaching as a means of increasing aspects of wellbeing including hope and hardiness (see, for example, Grant, Green & Rynsaardt, 2010; Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007; Green, Oades & Grant, 2006; Spence & Grant, 2005) and there is a growing evidence-base for solution-focused, cognitive behavioural approaches to coaching in a wide range of different settings (Grant et al., 2010).

Coaching methodologies can provide the opportunity for the application of positive psychology research in areas such as the identification and use of personal character strengths (see, for example, Linley et al., 2010). Whilst the role of positive psychology in coaching has been discussed previously in the literature, further research in regard to its specific applications is much needed (Linley & Harrington, 2006; Kaufmann, 2006; Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007).

Positive psychology in education

It might well be said there have been applications of positive psychology in education for years. This includes programmes such as those aimed at enhancing Social and Emotional Learning (SEL), which themselves largely evolved from research on prevention and resilience (see Consortium on the School-Based Promotion of Social Competence, 1994). However, there has been a significant increase in research and interest over the last five years occurring specifically within the field of positive psychology.

In 2009, Professor Martin Seligman, formalised the field of 'Positive Education' in part emerging from his own work on depression prevention in schools and the pioneering work at Geelong Grammar in Victoria, Australia. In 2008, Seligman and a team of scholars from the University of Pennsylvania worked with one of Australia's most elite private schools, Geelong Grammar, to implement a programme of 'teaching positive education', 'embedding positive education' and 'living positive education'. This programme sought to infuse positive psychology throughout the entire school, and with encouraging outcomes (Seligman et al., 2009). Whilst the programmes and approach were based on scientifically informed programmes and practices, unfortunately it appears that this large-scale programme was not itself evaluated using scientifically validated measures; to the best of the present authors' knowledge no outcome studies of the Geelong Grammar programme have been reported in the peer-reviewed press.

There has, however, been significant research conducted on the Penn Resiliency Programme (PRP), which formed part of the Geelong Positive Education Programme. The PRP is a school-based intervention designed to teach students how to think more realistically and flexibly about the problems they encounter (Horowitz & Garber, 2006). Results from studies of over 2000 individuals in the US have shown improvements in student wellbeing from participation in the programme (Seligman et al., 2009). The US Department of Education also recently spent $2.8 million to implement a randomised controlled evaluation of the Strath Haven Positive Psychology for Youth (PPY) project. The programme, targeting adolescents in high school, was shown to increase students' reports of enjoyment and engagement in school (Seligman et al., 2009).

In the UK, Jenny Fox-Eades, is considered to be a pioneer in strengths-based approaches in education, and is currently conducting multiple longitudinal research studies, examining the impact of the 'Strengths Gym' programme on adolescent wellbeing, including life satisfaction, positive affect, and self-esteem. The 'Strengths Gym' programme is designed to help individuals identify and use their strengths through a cycle of festivals and storytelling. Positive psychology is woven into the curriculum by using traditional teaching methods of oral storytelling and community celebrations (Eades, 2005).

In Australia, the Coaching Psychology Unit at the University of Sydney hosted the 'First Positive Psychology in Education Symposium' in 2009. This provided a forum for a range of applied positive psychology interventions being conducted in both private and public schools in Australia. One of the programmes presented included 'BOUNCE BACK', a resilience programme currently taught in several schools across Australia which integrates positive psychology principles within the literacy curriculum (Noble & McGrath, 2008).

Evidence is building for such approaches. For example, a study of solution-focused cognitive behavioural life coaching for Senior High School students conducted by Green, Grant and Rynsaardt (2007) showed significant increases in female senior high school students' levels of cognitive hardiness (a measure of resilience) and hope. This line of research has since been extended to developmental coaching

for teachers, again providing evidence for the use of coaching in educational settings to enhance hope, hardiness and workplace-wellbeing (Grant, Green & Rynsaardt, 2010). The use of solution-focused cognitive-behavioural coaching in educational settings appears to be an area worthy of further study, given preliminary evidence that indicates it may have the potential to build resilience and wellbeing in young people within educational settings.

Applied positive psychology in education as mental health promotion

Mental health problems are reportedly on the increase among young people, possibly reflecting greater awareness of disorders and also resulting from the frequency and intensity of stressors on young people in the 21st century (Broderick & Metz, 2009). Today's youth are exposed to a multitude of threats to their personal wellbeing (McLoughlin & Kubick, 2004). In a national survey investigating a range of mental health issues in a stratified, random sample of 4500 Australian youths (aged 4 to 17), 14.0 per cent of those surveyed were found to have mental health problems (Sawyer et al., 2000). Among adolescents, there are also high rates of boredom, alienation, and disconnection from meaningful challenges (Larson, 2000). Efforts to reduce mental health issues and problem behaviours may need to begin in childhood, with special attention to a window of escalating risk in the transition to adolescence (Masten et al., 2008).

Knowledge and skills that increase resilience, positive emotion, and engagement can be taught. According to Piaget (1977) pre-adolescent children are entering the formal operations phase of cognitive development and have the cognitive maturity necessary to understand and apply the skills taught. The present study sought to expand on current findings by focusing on primary school students and examining the efficacy of a strengths-based coaching programme within this particular age group.

The mission of schools remains one of preparing students academically for the world of higher education, work, and good citizenship. However, increasingly, schools are also responsible for managing students' social and emotional wellbeing (Broderick & Metz, 2009).

This current study examined a programme designed to be easily integrated within the traditional school curriculum, whilst at the same time addressing a number of the personal development and health outcomes identified on the New South Wales Board of Studies syllabus document (NSW Board of Studies, 2007). Embedding the teaching of strengths identification, goal setting, and metacognitive skills within the curriculum provides naturalistic opportunities for students to develop important social-emotional competencies (Noble & McGrath, 2008). Meaningful participation in these kinds of activities also encourages students to take control and responsibility of their own lives (Oliver et al., 2006).

Aims of the study

The study sought to investigate the impact of an evidence-based strengths coaching pilot programme in a primary educational setting. It was anticipated that participation in the strengths-based coaching programme would be associated with increases in male primary school student's levels of engagement and hope.

Engagement

The discipline of positive psychology defines engagement as one of three important realms of happiness; the engaged life, the meaningful life and the pleasant life (Seligman et al., 2009). The state of 'flow', a term coined by Csikszentmihalyi (1993), is a major part of living the 'engaged life'. It consists of a loss of self-consciousness and deep engagement in the task at hand, and can occur when people deploy their highest strengths to meet the challenges that come their way. There is a growing evidence to support the concept of engagement as a

state which is valuable in its own right as well as bringing about higher levels of life satisfaction (Seligman et al., 2009).

Strengths

A 'strength' can be defined as a natural capacity for behaving, thinking and feeling in a way that promotes successful goal achievement (Linley & Harrington, 2006). 'Signature strengths' refer to the top five character strengths and virtues of a particular individual (Peterson & Seligman, 2004).

Signature strengths can convey a sense of ownership and authenticity, and individuals often experience a powerful intrinsic motivation to put them into practice (Linley & Harrington, 2006). Strength-based coaching helps people to identify their strengths and then better direct their talents and abilities into meaningful and engaging behaviours (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Playing to an individual's strengths has the potential to enhance wellbeing because people are then able to do what they naturally do best, thus increasing the chances of meeting their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and confidence (Linley & Harrington, 2006). Finding original ways to use strengths also reflects the importance of ongoing personal effort in producing a flourishing life (Park & Peterson, 2006).

Hope

Hope is defined as *'a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency and pathways'* (Snyder, 2000; p.287). The construct of hope is central to successful goal attainment. In order to pursue goals people need (a) a number of pathways or alternative routes to achieve their goals because otherwise it is likely that they will give up if the first pathway fails. They also need (b) agency or confidence, in their capacity and ability to reach their goals, so once again if they face setbacks they will persevere in the belief that they can be successful (Snyder, Michael & Cheavens, 1999).

Hope as a cross-situational construct has been shown to correlate positively with self-efficacy, perceived problem-solving capabilities, perceptions of control, optimism, positive affectivity, and positive outcome expectations (Snyder et al., 1999). In educational settings, higher levels of hope have also correlated positively with perceived scholastic competence (Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1999) and greater academic satisfaction (Chang, 1998). Higher levels of hope also predict better academic performance whilst controlling for student intelligence (Snyder et al., 2003).

Consistent with hope theory, an evidence-based approach to coaching can provide the support necessary for individuals to pursue goals, to see oneself as able to generate alternative routes to goals and as having the perceived capacity to utilise these routes to reach the desired goal/s (Green et al., 2006). Hope can be engendered in young people by engaging them in solution-focused conversations and activities. For example, children can be asked to set small goals, guided over the hurdles they encounter, and encouraged to persevere until they have succeeded (Snyder, 2000). These are key features of the present study.

Method

Participants

Thirty-eight males aged between 10 and 11 years (mean age 10.7 years) from an independent, private primary school in Sydney, NSW, Australia.

Procedure

The strengths-coaching programme formed part of the school's Personal Development and Health curriculum. Prior to commencing the programme participants were screened by the school psychologist using the Beck Youth Inventory (Beck et al., 2005). As a result of completing the Beck Youth Inventory (Beck et al., 2005) seven individuals were identified as having higher than expected scores on the Beck Youth Inventory (Beck et al., 2005) and were referred to the school psychologist.

Before commencing the programme, a note was also sent home to parents outlining

full details of the programme. In line with the International Coach Federation (ICF) Code of Ethics (ICF, 2005), the information clarified that the programme did not involve any counselling or therapy for mental illness.

Participants completed self-report measures at Time 1 (pre-intervention) and Time 2 (post-intervention) to assess levels of engagement and hope. Participants also completed the Values in Action Strengths Inventory for Youth (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) and were provided with a copy of their results to share with their family. The participants were then randomly assigned to small groups of four or five individuals, with whom they would complete eight group coaching sessions.

The teacher-coach was a qualified primary teacher who, in addition to her teacher training and teaching qualifications had also completed coach-specific training, holding a Masters degree in Coaching Psychology from Sydney University and had past experience in coaching both child and adult populations.

The coaching programme

The coaching programme consisted of eight group face-to-face coaching sessions with the teacher-coach. Each coaching session was 45 minutes in length and was conducted on a fortnightly basis over a period of two school terms (equating to approximately six months). Because this programme was run in a school setting in which directive or instructional modalities are commonplace, great care was taken to differentiate this coaching programme from general directive or teaching processes by basing this programme on a solution-focused cognitive-behavioural framework that had been demonstrated as being effective in two previous randomised, controlled studies on evidence-based life coaching (for details see Green, Oades & Grant, 2006; Spence & Grant, 2005).

There were three key parts to the programme. Part One of the programme focused on raising the participant's self-

awareness, including the identification of personal character strengths. Using the Youth Values in Action survey results, the participants were provided with a useful vocabulary to both identify and talk about their own character strengths. The participants created 'strength shields' representing how they were already using their top five 'signature strengths'. These shields were openly displayed in the classroom and referred to on a regular basis.

In Part Two of the programme, the participants were coached to identify personal resources and utilise these in working toward individual goals. Utilising the SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attractive, Realistic and Timeframed) goal-setting criteria (for rationale for SMART, see Locke & Latham, 2002) the participants were coached in identifying personally meaningful goals and to be persistent in their goal-striving. The participants applied this knowledge and skills within an ongoing assignment focused on finding novel ways to use one of their signature strengths.

Part Three of the programme was focused on coaching the participants in working through the self-regulation cycle (see Figure 1) of setting goals, developing action plans, monitoring and evaluating progress. Participants were individually coached to identify personal resources that could be utilised in moving towards their goals, and to develop self-generated solutions and specific action steps, and in this way systematically working through the self-regulation cycle.

In addition to the individual coaching process detailed above, group processes were utilised in that participants were also given the opportunity to share their results with the group and jointly reflect on what they learnt. Finally, the students completed a 'Letter from the future' that involved writing about themselves at their very best, focusing on how their needs and values were being met, and finding solutions to allow for all the things they would like to have happen.

Figure 1: A generic cycle of self-regulation.
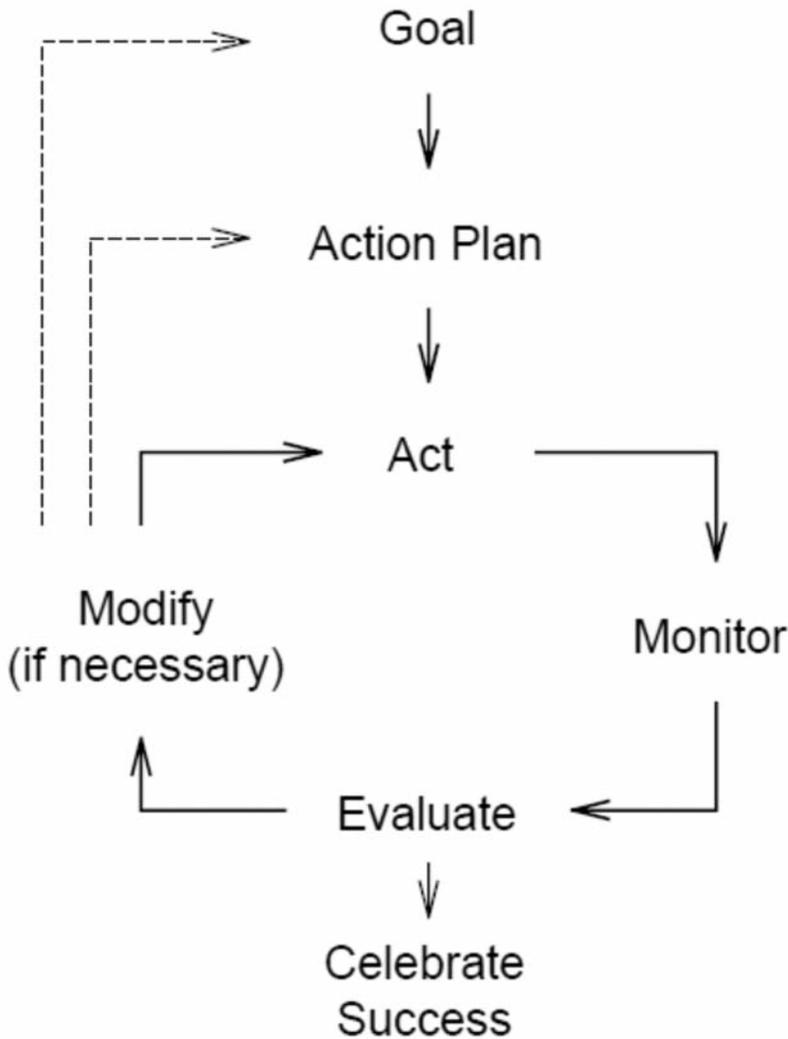
Measures

The Beck Youth Inventory (Beck et al., 2005) was used as a measure of psychopathology. It assesses current levels of Anxiety, Depression and Anger. It also gives an overall indication of a young person's self-concept. The inventory is designed to assess according to the diagnostic criteria listed in the *DSM-IV-TR* (American Psychiatric Association), however, it only assesses current status and does not offer a diagnosis (Beck et al., 2005). It views the differences between normal and clinical populations as differences of degree, hence is a useful tool for the present study to screen participants for mental health issues that require referral.

To identify character strengths, the participants completed the Values in Action Strengths Inventory for Youth Survey (Park & Peterson, 2006). The VIA measure is a self-report survey allowing the comparison of character strengths across individuals and

also identifies an individual's 'signature strengths' relative to his or her other strengths (Park & Peterson, 2008). The VIA Youth is designed for people aged 10 to 17 (Park & Peterson, 2006). It reflects each of the character strengths in the VIA Classification (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), and it is adapted specifically for use with youth as the items are phrased in simple language and refer to settings and situations familiar to young people (Park & Peterson, 2006). The survey is available online at no cost from www.viacharacter.org (Peterson & Seligman, 2007). It contains 198 multiple choice items and takes about 45 minutes on average to complete. The survey has good reliability (all item alphas are greater than .70) and good reported construct validity (Park & Peterson, 2008).

To measure the results of the programme, participants completed a self-report questionnaire at Time 1 and Time 2. The questionnaire was modified from Snyder's Children's Hope Scale (Snyder, 2000), and the California Healthy Kids Survey (Bernard, 2008). The questionnaire utilised a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree (7) to Strongly Disagree (1). The Children's Hope Scale is a self-report measure that is based on the premise that children are goal-directed and that their goal directed thoughts can be understood according to agency and pathways. The scale is validated for use with children aged 7 to 16 years and demonstrates both internal and temporal reliability, convergent and discriminant validity (for details, see Snyder, 2000). The California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS) is sponsored by the California Department of Education as a comprehensive data collection service on youth mental health and resilience (Bernard, 2008). Assisting in its development was an advisory committee consisting of researchers, education practitioners from schools across the state, and representatives from federal and state agencies involved in assessing youth health-related behaviours (Bernard, 2008).

At the completion of the strength coaching programme, an informal questionnaire was also used to elicit the student's feedback and opinions about their involvement.

Results
Quantitative findings
It was hypothesised that participation in the coaching programme would be associated with increased engagement and hope. The results for all measures are shown in Table 1.

Paired *t*-tests found significant increases in students' self-reported measures of hope, $t(37)=3.39$, $p=< 0.01$ and significant increases in students' self-reported measures of engagement, $t(37)=3.30$, $p=< 0.001$. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's *d*. For hope an effect size of $d=2.70$ was observed. This is considered to be a large effect size (Cohen, 1992). For engagement a medium effect size of $d=.98$ was observed (Cohen, 1992)

Values in Action Strengths Inventory for Youth results: Class tally
We recorded the top strengths of the class and the number of students who rated each strength as being their highest strength: These strengths, in order of frequency were; Vitality (nine students); Creativity (eight students); Love (five students); Teamwork (three students); Love of learning (three students); Perseverance (three students); Humour (two students); Curiosity (one student); Leadership (one student); Bravery (one student); Gratitude (one student); and Kindness (one student).

Qualitative findings
To augment the quantitative data reported above, and to further assess the impact of this pilot study qualitative teacher observations are now reported. These personal observations are made by the teacher-coach who conducted the strengths-based coaching programme.

Table 1: Results for Measures of Engagement and Hope.

N=38	Time 1		Time 2				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Hope	23.79	3.16	24.87	2.76	3.38	<.001	2.70
Engagement	23.26	4.26	24.98	2.51	3.29	<.01	.98

Note: *p* values are two-tailed; Cohen's *d* is given as a measure of effect size.

Teacher-coach personal observations

'Overall, I felt that the programme was a successful way for a teacher to further develop positive relationships with students. I found that understanding the students' top strengths was very helpful in getting to know the students better, and also in understanding what engages and motivates them. Learning about character strengths also provided students with a useful dialogue to recognise strengths not only in themselves, but in others too. For example, when a new boy joined the school, the students welcomed him into the school community and were quick to point out his strengths, such as bravery and social intelligence, during his first weeks. The students were also very keen to share and discuss their results with their families. The positive feedback from the parents was overwhelming and many of them also did the survey to find out their own character strengths.

Recording the top strengths of the class group provided an interesting insight in to the classroom dynamics. Vitality was the top strength of the class. Viewing this as a strength for a class of Year 6 boys, rather than a problem, was both humorous and refreshing.

I found that the students were highly engaged during the goal-setting sessions. They were enthusiastic and excited about their projects and would often stop me in the playground to give updates on their progress. Sharing their successes with their peers was invaluable as they were provided with both positive feedback and recognition. For some students in particular, this was a very special experience, made very clear by their big, beaming grins. The students were also able to transfer their goal-setting skills to their learning in the classroom. Overall, the impact of the programme has been profound, with a far more positive, encouraging and supportive classroom climate.'

Examples of student goals

Participants set personal goals as part of the coaching programme. These goals were linked with their specific signature strengths. Examples are given below:

Love of learning Signature Strength: Goal was to: 'read 15 pages of a non-fiction book on cars every night over the next two weeks. Have Mum sign off when I do it. Show (my teacher) Mum's note in our next session and tell her one fact that I learnt about cars.'

Leadership Signature Strength: Goal was to: 'Organise a jelly bean competition with two friends to raise money for the school. Get approval from the principal and my parents. Set up the store outside the canteen every lunch time. Aim to raise at least $100. Bring the money raised to our next session.'

Kindness Signature Strength: Goal was to: 'Help Mum out at home by making both mine and my little brother's beds every morning before school. Ask Dad to sign off that I do it, but don't tell Mum I am doing it for an assignment. Show (my teacher) the note in our next session.'

Discussion

The present study was a small-scale pilot study designed to be a preliminary investigation of the effect of a strengths-based coaching programme within a school setting. The strengths-based coaching pilot programme was associated with significant increases in the students' self-reported levels of engagement and hope. Although the resorts are promising, it is important not to over-generalise from these findings. Nevertheless, as we argue below such strengths-

based coaching programmes may well have potential as a mental health prevention and promotion intervention in a primary school setting to increase students' wellbeing and additionally be utilised as an important part of an overall Positive Education Programme.

Schools already are a major provider of mental health services (Seligman et al., 2009). However, the predominant approach is reactive rather than proactive in that educational psychology services are available only after students demonstrate difficulties (Noble & McGrath, 2008). A significant proportion of available educational resources is directed toward attempts to remediate young people's problems. This is not surprising, given extra support is provided on the basis of documentation of an individual's assessed problem (Noble & McGrath, 2008). The challenge is to shift the direction and mindset of both educational systems and school personnel from a deficit model to a preventative wellbeing model (Noble & McGrath, 2008). Problem-focused approaches can be useful in reducing and treating specific targeted problems, but they do not necessarily prepare young people to have healthy, fulfilling, productive lives (Park & Peterson, 2008).

There is growing recognition that effective interventions need to focus on promoting competence and strengths in addition to the prevention and treatment of problems (Masten et al., 2008). We argue that positive psychology offers new directions for working with individual students and for working collaboratively with schools and teachers in designing and implementing school-wide preventative programmes (Noble & McGrath, 2008). For example, schools could be adopting more holistic approaches with missions that address the needs of the whole child (McLoughlin & Kubick, 2004). A narrow focus only on cognitive development ignores other critical areas of youth development (Bernard, 2008).

The present pilot study is a very small step in that direction by showing that a strengths-based coaching programme can quite easily be integrated within the traditional school curriculum, and can be associated with increased engagement and hope. It should be noted that even though the present pilot programme was part of the school curriculum, and in that sense was compulsory, the student feedback was overwhelmingly positive. Such positively-framed programmes, without the stigma often associated with remedial counselling, may provide an effective means of promoting student wellbeing (Park & Peterson, 2008).

It would appear there are many other potential benefits of strengths-based coaching programmes for students, teachers and schools. For example, when students work with their strengths, they tend to be more motivated and perform at a higher level (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Similarly, increases in wellbeing are likely to produce increases in learning, with positive mood producing broader attention, more creative thinking, and more holistic thinking (Seligman et al., 2009). In addition, students who have positive attitudes toward their teachers and school are more likely to display more appropriate behaviour (Huebner et al., 2004). Indeed, we contend that an evidence-based strengths coaching programme, such as the one utilised in this study, could form an important part of an overall Positive Education Programme.

Whilst the importance of happiness and wellbeing cannot be contested, there is debate about how best to enhance these important aspects of human experience within the traditional educational context (Park & Peterson, 2008). Researchers are concerned by the lack of empirical evidence for most programmes (Arthur, 2005, cited in Seligman et al., 2009). Educators and politicians are also concerned such Positive Educational Programmes will waste money or even lower achievement by diverting time and money away from academic subjects (Benninga et al., 2006).

Limitations

Future research is needed to explore the potential of a range of approaches to Positive Education. The present study was a small-scale pilot study designed to be a preliminary investigation of the effect of a strengths-based coaching programme within a school setting. As such there are a number of limitations that must be taken into account when considering these findings. Firstly, the present study utilised a straightforward within subject, pre-/post-design. The lack of a control group means that the effects could have occurred naturalistically, rather than being caused by the intervention. Secondly, no longitudinal measures were taken so it is not known if the reported effects would be maintained over time. However, it should be noted a longitudinal study (Green et al., 2006) found that gains in a similar coaching programme were maintained at a 30-week follow-up. Thirdly, the present study is also limited by the exclusive use of self-report measures. It would be extremely valuable to move beyond self-report measures and document the effects on observable behaviours from a broader range of outcomes, including students' behaviour and academic performance. The findings would also need to be replicated to determine if the programme is effective with students from a variety of social-economic and cultural backgrounds. Finally, it should be noted that the teacher-coach was acting in a role as a designated teacher. This could have influenced outcomes by inducing a demand effect; that is, the participants may have felt that they had to report making progress and enhanced wellbeing in order to please the experimenter.

Future directions

Despite some clear limitations, the results of the present pilot study provide promising initial support for this kind of intervention in a school setting, and future research should be conducted in this area. Further studies that compared interventions with educational tutoring or positive parent involvement would provide additional information about the effectiveness of life coaching for students, and the use of randomised controlled designs would further extend the current research..

Recent research has found that peer coaching was not as effective as a professionally-trained coach (Spence & Grant, 2007) and this finding emphasises the importance of expertise in facilitating purposeful, positive change in others. Teaching children to employ hopeful thinking requires an interested person who guides the process of goal setting and problem solving with encouragement (Snyder, 2000). For teachers or parents interested in nurturing hope in children, the first step must be to attend to their own hopeful thinking (Snyder, 2000). The 'Teacher as Coach' training programme as utilised in the research of Green, Grant and Rynsaardt (2007) could be used to develop teachers in the evidence-based coaching theories and techniques, which do not currently form part of teacher-training. Through such evidence-based coaching programmes, teachers may learn to better identity what motivates and inspires each of their students. They could then use this information to design more the supportive, positively-orientated teacher-student relationships which are a defining feature of positive school cultures (Noble & McGrath, 2008).

Of course, there is much more to positive education than a simple stand-alone course (Seligman et al., 2009). There is a need for comprehensive and integrative positive education programmes, such as the one recently trialled at Geelong Grammar (Seligman et al., 2009). Rather than running a number of independent initiatives that are not integrated, it may be better to strategically implement an overall Positive Education policy that is aligned with the overall school climate (Noble & McGrath, 2008).

Clearly there is a need for further research and for external coaching consultants and educators to work collaboratively with schools in order to create programmes

with a consistent approach and similar language embedded throughout.

Similarly, there is a need for further research in developing measurement tools to assess the culture and climate of individual schools. With any programme or intervention that can be used in schools, a key element is the overall culture and climate that exists within the school environment (Snyder, 2000). Administrators have an important role in educating the school personnel, teachers and parents about their role in creating a positive school climate. Ultimately, the focus should be on creating a curriculum for students that has genuine relevance, meaning and connectedness to their lives (Noble & McGrath, 2008). We argue that coaching in school settings has potential to both shift the culture of the broader educational system and to better enrich the overall individual student experience.

Conclusion

This pilot study has examined the impact of an evidence-based strengths coaching programme on male primary school students' levels of engagement and hope. It provides preliminary evidence that evidence-based strengths coaching programmes may be useful in the primary school setting. The study also illustrates how evidence-based coaching methodologies can be integrated in an educational setting, adding to our collective understanding about what might be included in learning programmes designed to enhance wellbeing. We believe that evidence-based strengths coaching programmes can be designed to fit into several existing aspects of the curriculum with relative ease and can address outcomes specified in school syllabus documentation (Noble & McGrath, 2008). This pilot study, whilst targeting Year Five students, could also be adapted to form part of a school-wide initiative, with a strong practical focus on infusing positive psychology in to the whole school curriculum.

With future research in this area, evidence-based coaching may in time become a crucial methodology for the application of positive psychology in educational settings. We look forward to future developments with interest.

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Developing an agenda for teaching coaching psychology

Anthony M. Grant

The research and practice of coaching psychology has developed considerably over the past 10 years. However, if coaching psychology is to continue to grow and develop, an educational and teaching framework needs to be established. Very little attention has been paid in the published literature to the teaching of coaching psychology. The aim of this paper is to stimulate discussion about the teaching of coaching psychology and to start the process of developing a teaching agenda, including delineating some of the concepts, theories and skills that can be seen to lie at the core of coaching psychology. Drawing on the Australian Psychological Society and the British Psychological Society definitions of coaching psychology it is proposed that the following areas should form the core of an education in coaching psychology; an evidence-based approach to practice; ethical principles; professional models of practice; mental health issues in coaching; cognitive-behavioural theory as applied to coaching; goal theory; change theory; systemic theory as applied to coaching (including group process and organisational applications); core applied coaching skills and their application to skills, performance, developmental and remedial coaching; and applications of coaching psychology to specialised areas of practice such as executive coaching, workplace coaching, health coaching, life coaching, and peak performance coaching, in addition to non-core specialist areas of theory such as applied positive psychology, solution-focused approaches, cognitive-developmental, narrative, psychodynamic and Gestalt approaches. Coaching psychology as a psychological sub-discipline is well on the way to developing a coherent area of research and practice. It now needs to develop and formalise a body of teachable knowledge that can sustain and advance this new area of behavioural science.
Keywords: *Coaching psychology; teaching coaching psychology; coach training; evidence-based coaching.*

THE ACADEMIC sub-discipline of coaching psychology as an applied positive psychology has come along way since it was first taught at postgraduate level in 2000 at the University of Sydney. The British Psychological Society's (BPS) Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) was formed in December 2004 following the formation of the Australian Psychological Society's (APS) Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (IGCP) in August 2002, and there are now several professional coaching psychology groups worldwide including those in Denmark, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, South Africa, and Sweden. Most of these are associated with their national professional psychological society (for details of the background to the formation of the BPS SGCP see Palmer & Whybrow, 2006).

However, if coaching psychology is to continue to grow and develop, then some kind of educational and teaching framework will eventually need to be established, and this topic has not as yet been widely discussed in the literature. This paper presents some ideas based on my involvement in designing, establishing and teaching postgraduate programmes in coaching psychology to Master's level since 1999. The aim of this paper is to stimulate discussion about the teaching of coaching psychology and to start the process of developing a teaching agenda, including delineating some of the concepts and theories that can be seen to lie at the core of coaching psychology.

It should be noted that the ideas presented in this paper are the author's personal views and not should not be taken to be indicative in any way of the APS IGCP or the BPS SGCP policy or opinion, nor should these ideas be taken to represent the policy or opinion of the university at which the author is employed. It should also be noted that although there is clearly an

overlap between the coach education and training of a non-psychological nature and the teaching of coaching psychology, this article solely addresses education issues related to coaching psychology.

Overview of the coaching psychology literature

The research and practice of coaching psychology has developed considerably over the past 10 years. An overview of the literature cited in PsycINFO conducted in December 2010 using the keywords 'coaching psychology' found a total of 290 citations. Between 1927 and 1996 there were only eight citations listed. The first citation using the keywords 'coaching psychology' was Miller's (1927) review of Coleman Griffith's (1926) book on the psychology of athletic coaching. It is not until 1951 that the next citation is listed – another book on the psychology of athletic coaching (Lawther, 1951). No further citations are listed until Leonard's (1995) editorial in *Consulting Psychology Journal* announcing the 1996 special edition on executive coaching, in which the term 'coaching psychology' is used as a keyword but not referred to in the text itself, as was also the case for other editorials (Kilburg, 1996a; Leonard, 1996a, 1996b, 1996c).

According to the citations in PsycINFO, the literature on coaching psychology comes to the fore in 2003 (Grant, 2003), and it is at this point in time that we can see articles whose primary focus is coaching psychology being published in increasing numbers. We can say that this period is the real start of psychological academic literature associated with the contemporary coaching psychology movement. Between 2003 and 2005 there are a total of 14 citations, with nine citations in 2006, 54 citations in 2007, 87 citations in 2008, 85 citations in 2009, and 34 citations in 2010. (Note: there is often a time delay between journal publication and the listing of citations on PsycINFO and this may well account for the lower number of citations for 2010; for example, articles in the December 2010 issue of the BPS SGCP publication *The Coaching Psychologist* are not listed; also note that this brief overview does not include the substantial amount of published literature on coaching that is not specifically psychology-related which could nevertheless contribute to the teaching of coaching psychology.)

Of course, quantity is not necessarily quality, and some of these citations refer to short articles, notices in relation to professional societies, social commentaries and the like, rather than academic research, theory papers or scholarly professional opinion or practice papers. Nevertheless, it is clear that a body of coaching psychology-specific literature is emerging. At the same time the numbers of coaching psychology practitioners in established national psychological societies has grown considerably. For example, the APS IGCP has 590 members, approximately 3.5 per cent of the total APS membership, and the BPS SGCP has 2332 members, approximately 5 per cent of the total BPS membership.

The development of coaching psychology has been very much an international endeavour with global cross-fertilisation of ideas and actions. Without a doubt, one of the key practical drivers of the coaching psychology movement has been the development of coaching psychology interest groups in a number of established national psychological societies and the joint publication of peer-reviewed coaching psychology journals associated with such societies. The stewardship of dedicated individuals such as Prof. Michael Cavanagh and Prof. Stephen Palmer and the work of many different people has been vital here. Such pioneering work provides a solid foundation for the new discipline of coaching psychology. But to extend this work, to ensure that coaching psychology continues to grow we need to be providing training and education for those who come after us. We need to be able to teach coaching psychology in a rigorous, coherent and professional fashion.

Teaching coaching psychology: The next developmental step

Despite the aforementioned growth in both literature and practice, very little attention has been paid in the published literature to the teaching of coaching psychology. There are few published books explicitly focusing on coaching psychology (rather than coaching *per se*) that can be used as text books for teaching coaching psychology (e.g. Palmer & Whybrow, 2007; Peltier, 2010), and only a small number of articles have discussed issues related to the actual teaching of coaching psychology.

Palmer's (2008) article argued for the inclusion of coaching psychology in undergraduate psychology degrees, and some universities are now indeed including short units on coaching psychology in their undergraduate curricula – a welcome development. Spaten and Hansen (2009) presented details of the benefits of embedding a coaching psychology programme into a postgraduate psychology programme in a Danish university. Passmore (2010) suggested that training in coaching and coaching psychology should focus on both behavioural (skills) development and the development of personal attributes and qualities, and his work with McGoldrick (i.e. Passmore & McGoldrick, 2009) has emphasised the need for models of supervision to be incorporated into coaching psychology education.

In relation to models of practice, which naturally inform the teaching and training of practitioners, Corrie and Lane (2009) discussed a range of interpretations of the scientist-practitioner model concluding that we need to harness the strengths of the scientist-practitioner model; rigorous thinking; the ability to weave data from different sources into a coherent case conceptualisation; the ability to devise and implement specific interventions strategies on a case by case basis; and the skills to evaluate and critique our work – whilst discarding its weakness. These include the over-reliance on previously conducted research and the rigid application of such, which may not be appropriate for the emergent, iterative nature of coaching, particularly at this point in time when there is still somewhat limited coaching-specific research.

Issues related to the education and training of coaching psychologists were also discussed in an excellent and comprehensive BPS Discussion Paper on Subject Benchmarks for Coaching Psychology (BPS, 2006a), a document which incorporated many of the points overviewed above. The BPS Discussion Paper focused specifically on the education and training of coaching psychologists and discussed possible educational benchmarks for the development of a designated specialised area of practice in the form of an advanced practice register or as an area of 'Chartered' practice.

Teaching coaching psychology to non-psychologists?

Although a detailed document, and one that may serve as a useful model for other psychological societies, the BPS Discussion Paper did not address a key thorny question: Should the study of postgraduate coaching psychology be restricted to those with a prior undergraduate degree in psychology or those who are registered psychologists? This is an important question that touches on matters of regulation and professional status and has clear implications for the development of an agenda for teaching coaching psychology.

I argue that the postgraduate study of coaching psychology should be open to all who have the ability, attributes and intellect to complete such studies successfully. This is not to diminish the value of registration or chartered status as a psychologist. Registration or chartered status as a psychologist in the UK and Australia entails an undergraduate degree in psychology, and then a postgraduate degree encompassing a lengthy and sophisticated training in the scientist-practitioner model, supervised internships and entry to a genuine profession with its attendant enforceable ethical codes and standards of practice, although it is inter-

esting to note that entry to many PsyD degrees and subsequent licensing as a psychologist in the US does not require an undergraduate degree in psychology. Indeed, I personally believe that we should be developing a recognised specialised area of practice, be it BPS Chartered status as a 'Coaching Psychologist' or an APS College of Coaching Psychology, entry to which would be restricted to those who are, or are becoming registered psychologists, as well as course accreditation processes from established national psychological societies such as the APS and BPS. This paper will not address issues related to accreditation of courses in coaching psychology – that is a complex topic worthy of a separate and focused discussion (see Carr, 2005; Grant & O'Hara, 2006).

However, it should be noted that the issues of designated professional practice as a 'Coaching Psychologist', accreditation, and the provision of an education in coaching psychology are logically independent issues: it is possible to learn coaching psychology without becoming a psychologist. Thus an agenda for the teaching of coaching psychology should deal with the process of teaching, accreditation and the process of professional status as a coaching psychologist as separate issues.

Furthermore, it must be recognised that coaching is a growing cross-disciplinary area of professional practice. Many excellent professional coaches do not have an undergraduate degree in psychology, and do not have the time or desire to sit through three or four years of full-time study of undergraduate psychology. They do not want to become psychologists. But they do want to learn about the psychology of coaching. There is a significant thirst amongst coaches for information about empirically validated ways to work with people and how to help them set and reach goals in their personal and business lives (for discussion, see Grant & Cavanagh, 2007). Academic psychology has for too long not engaged with non-psychologists' thirst for such knowledge, leaving the

door open for other, arguably less qualified people to meet the demands of this market. Finally, existing postgraduate courses in coaching psychology worldwide already admit non-psychologists. Thus, rather than attempt to lock the stable door, we should be thinking about how to design a better stable.

Definitions before teaching agendas

However, before we can begin to design and develop a meaningful agenda for the teaching of coaching psychology, we need a clear definition of what coaching psychology is and what it aims to do – it is difficult to teach what is not defined. This is particularly important given that non-psychologists study coaching psychology, and that many of those students will not have a background in mental health.

Various definitions of coaching psychology have emerged since the original delineations (Grant, 1999, 2000). Early work in establishing coaching psychology was aimed at helping develop coaching psychology as an applied psychology that was specifically distinguished from the foci of counselling and clinical psychologists (e.g. Grant, 2000). Whereas counselling, clinical and coaching psychology are all focused on helping people make purposeful change, they differ in that the primary focus of counselling and clinical psychology is defined by the APS as the amelioration of distress to 'manage stress and conflict at home and work, deal with grief, loss and trauma, [and] overcome feelings of anxiety and fear' (definition of the focus of counselling psychology; APS, 2007a), or the 'assessment, diagnosis and treatment of psychological problems and mental illness' (definition of the focus on clinical psychology; APS, 2007b). Clearly, whilst both counselling and clinical psychology are important and valuable disciplines, their primary foci is on remediating dysfunction or distress.

APS definition of coaching psychology: Issues related to mental health

It was in recognition of the importance of distinguishing coaching psychology from counselling and clinical work, that initial APS definitions of coaching psychology included references to non-clinical populations. For example, the IGCP's 2002 definition of coaching psychology emphasised that coaching psychology was focused on non-clinical populations and the '…enhancement of life experience, work performance and wellbeing for individuals, groups and organisations who *do not have clinically significant mental heath issues or abnormal levels of distress'* (italics added; IGCP, 2002).

In contrast, the original BPS working definition of coaching psychology does not make explicit reference to issues related to mental illness and defines coaching psychology as follows: 'Coaching psychology is for enhancing well-being and performance in personal life and work domains, underpinned by models of coaching grounded in established adult learning or psychological approaches' (adapted from Grant & Palmer, 2005, and cited in Palmer & Whybrow, 2006). However, the non-clinical nature of coaching psychology is made explicit in the BPS SGCP Discussion Paper on Subject Benchmarks for Coaching Psychology (2006; note: see BPS Discussion Paper for further background on the BPS SGCP position on the treatment of mental illness and coaching psychology).

Nevertheless, there is now increasing evidence that many coaching clients do in fact have clinically-significant mental health issues and abnormal levels of distress. Early research into this issue found that between 25 and 50 per cent of individuals presenting for life coaching had clinical levels of psychopathology (Green, Oades & Grant, 2006; Spence & Grant, 2005), and higher-than-normal levels of mental illness including personality disorders have recently been reported in executive coaching populations (Kemp & Green, 2010). Yet the coaching literature repeatedly states that coaching does not aim to treat psychological problems (e.g. Whitmore, 2009; Williams & Thomas, 2004). There is an important gap here between the reality of practice and the rhetoric of theory, and we need to address this tension if we are to develop a teaching agenda for coaching psychology that clearly differentiates it from the counselling or clinical psychologies whose foci is primarily on the treatment of distress.

One way to do this is to use definitions of coaching psychology that recognise both: (a) the primary focus of coaching psychology (as being about the facilitation of goal attainment, personal or professional development and the enhancement of well-being, rather than the treatment of mental illness); and (b) the notion that, although some coaching clients may indeed have mental health problems (and in this regard many not be from a 'non-clinical' population), it is not the aim of coaching psychology to directly treat such problems. Of course, such problems may become alleviated as a result of coaching; the pursuit and attainment of personally-valued goals is frequently associated with increased well-being (Sheldon et al., 2004). Further, many coaching psychologists who are also appropriately qualified to deal with mental illness may conduct psychotherapeutic interventions with their coaching clients and explicitly treat issues such as depression, anxiety disorders and the like. But such interventions are not coaching interventions – they are more accurately delineated as counselling or clinical work and should not be presented as 'coaching'. Indeed both the BPS (2006b) and APS Codes of Practice (APS, 2007) explicitly warn against the misrepresentation of psychological services.

A working definition of coaching psychology that draws on past APS and BPS definitions and makes such distinctions clear is as follows:

> Coaching psychology is a branch of psychology that is concerned with the systematic application of the behavioural science of psychology to the enhance-

ment of life experience, work performance and wellbeing for individuals, groups and organisations. Coaching psychology focuses on facilitating goal attainment, and on enhancing the personal and professional growth and development of clients in personal life and in work domains. It is not aimed at directly treating clinically significant mental illness issues or abnormal levels of distress.

The inclusion of a short statement in the above working definition that explicitly excludes the direct treatment of mental illness or abnormal levels of distress clearly distinguishes the primary role of coaching psychology from that of counselling and clinical psychology and thus provides a useful platform from which to explore an agenda for teaching coaching psychology It is to this issue we now turn.

An agenda for teaching coaching psychology

As the BPS Discussion Paper (2006a) details, coaching psychology emphasises a commitment to goal setting and the pursuit of specifically defined outcomes as agreed with clients. It is also concerned with the exploration of the meaning of events and experiences, the mental representations of events, the identification of both internal and external factors of influence and the particular significance of these for relationships with coaching clients themselves and with others. Such an understanding of coaching psychology is compatible with a wide range of philosophical, psychological and theoretical traditions including cognitive-behavioural, humanistic, adult learning and systemic perspectives, amongst others (BPS, 2006a).

However, whilst a broad church of theoretical underpinnings to coaching psychology can serve to enrich the field, it is essential that an education in coaching psychology fosters the critical thinking skills necessary for graduates to critically evaluate various philosophical, psychological and theoretical traditions and to construct conceptually coherent models of theory and practice. Thus an education in coaching psychology should be far more than a 'how-to-coach training' programme based on a specific coaching methodology – we must aim to produce informed practitioners who are able to enact the key aims of coaching psychology.

Drawing on the above discussion the aims of coaching psychology include: Providing one-to-one or group-based support to facilitate people in achieving their life and/or work goals; facilitating the achievement of group goals; recognising and appropriately responding to client's mental health problems including making referrals for treatment; supporting the development of effective coaching programmes in organisations; accessing and utilising current best knowledge in the design, enactment and evaluation of coaching interventions; undertaking research into the effectiveness of coaching; being able to use a psychological framework for the theory, practice and research of professional coaching in an ethical and professional fashion, whilst drawing on and developing existing psychological theory and knowledge for use in coaching contexts (for discusions on these points see, for example, Palmer & Whybrow, 2006; Stober & Grant, 2006). It is these issues that an agenda for teaching coaching psychology needs to address.

Core areas of study

Given the above points, I suggest that the teaching of coaching psychology should include the following core areas of study. (In addition to these proposed core areas of study listed below, the teaching of coaching psychology should also include a range of other non-core areas which may vary depending of the interests of students or speciality of the teaching institution; see Table 1.)

1. Foundations for an evidence-based approach to practice.
2. Ethical principles.
3. Professional models of practice.

4. Mental health issues in coaching.
5. Cognitive-behavioural theory as applied to coaching.
6. Goal theory.
7. Change theory.
8. Systemic theory as applied to coaching (including group process and organisational applications).
9. Core applied coaching skills and their application to skills, performance, developmental and remedial coaching.
10. Applications of coaching psychology to specialised areas of practice including (but not limited to); executive coaching, workplace coaching, health coaching, life coaching, and peak performance coaching.

It should be noted that the exact composition of any whole graduate programme in coaching psychology will be, of course, determined by the theoretical preferences and values of the course director, teaching faculty and the institution at which the course is offered. The above listings are in line with what I would consider to be the core areas for a graduate programme in coaching psychology that reflects the key bodies of psychological knowledge as related to coaching as previously defined in this paper.

There are a wide range of other areas of study that could also be included (see Table 1). The above areas of study fall into three broad categories. Areas one to four encompass core professional and ethical issues; areas five to eight encompass core psychological knowledge as applied to coaching; and areas nine and 10 relate to applied skills and coaching practice. Each of these areas could be taught either as a stand-alone subject, or combined with other areas to make a coherent unit of study (or module). For example, areas one to three combined would make a coherent unit of study, as would areas five, six and seven.

Table 1: Examples of areas of study that could also be included in teaching of coaching psychology.

1.	Positive psychology approaches to coaching
2.	Adult cognitive-developmental approaches to coaching
3.	Psychodynamic approaches to coaching
4.	Narrative approaches to coaching
5.	Gestalt approaches to coaching
6.	Solution-focused approaches to coaching
7.	Socio-cognitive constructs such as emotional intelligence and mindfulness
8.	Motivation including self-regulation theory
9.	Measurement in coaching including issues related to multi-rater feedback
10.	Applications of adult learning models to coaching
11.	Leadership and management topics
12.	Issues related to health and wellbeing
13.	Research methods in coaching

1. Foundations for an evidence-based approach to practice

This area of study should aim to impart the knowledge and skills necessary for an evidence-based approach to coaching practice that is grounded in the behavioural science of psychology. In this context the term 'evidence-based' means much more than simply producing evidence that a specific coaching intervention is effective, or discounting any data that is not drawn from double-blind, randomised controlled trials. Because coaching engagements are not medical interventions that follow prescribed treatment regimes, much coaching does not lend itself to evaluation within a medical model. Indeed, given the non-clinical, non-medical context of coaching, the medical model may be an entirely inappropriate framework from which to understand, teach, and evaluate coaching (Stober & Grant, 2006).

Thus this area of study should promote a broader view of evidence-based coaching, a view that values qualitative as well as quantitative data, is comfortable with both case study and randomised controlled trails, and recognises that manualised assessment-led coaching can be as valuable as an emergent action research methodology. The key point here is that the graduate should be able to determine which methodology is the most appropriate for the specific situation in hand, and know where to go to (e.g. electronic databases, published coaching-specific and related literature) in order to find the knowledge and evidence they need to conduct coaching in an ethical and professional fashion.

2. Ethical principles

Ethical principles are the foundation of professional practice. The teaching of ethical principles and their application in a discipline-specific fashion is central to all areas of professional practice from law, medicine to psychology. There are a number of challenges in teaching ethics in coaching psychology courses. Firstly, because coaching

per se is a cross-disciplinary endeavour, students will come from a wide range of prior backgrounds and many will not have been have been schooled in the basic ethical principles that permeate undergraduate psychology courses. Because such ethical frameworks are central to a psychologist's professional sense of self, it may be more difficult for mature-age students who have not had such prior long-standing exposure to a psychology-specific ethical framework to suddenly adopt and embody a new ethical framework. Secondly, the ethical codes appropriate for a psychologist who coaches may well differ from the codes that are appropriate for a non-psychologist coach, and this could require the teaching of two or more specific ethical codes within one course. Key issues that come to mind include ethical issues rated to the use of psychometric data and psychological tests, issues related to mandatory supervision and continuing professional development (CPD), and responsibilities regarding mental health issues. Thirdly, the myriad of professional coaching associations each with their own ethical framework, makes it difficult to determine which association code to include. Of course, none of these problems are insurmountable. Nevertheless, they need to be addressed as an agenda for teaching coaching psychology develops.

3. Professional models of practice

As regards models of professional practice, the Australian and British Psychological Societies are committed to the scientist-practitioner model (Kennedy & Llewelyn, 2001; Provost et al., 2010). Although the notion of becoming a scientist-practitioner may be intimidating to those who have not been previously schooled in a scientific discipline (Cruz & Hervey, 2001), the basic principals underlying the scientist-practitioner model are quite straightforward. In short, there are three key characteristics of the scientist-practitioner model: Firstly, the scientist-practitioner holds a commitment to further their professional understanding through

research, either through a traditional academic context, or through the examination and reporting of data obtaining in one's professional practice; secondly, the scientist-practitioner is a active consumer of research and uses such research to improve their practice; and thirdly, the scientist-practitioner is an active evaluator of their practices, programmes and interventions (Jones & Mehr, 2007).

The scientist-practitioner model has attracted a wide range of criticisms since its formulation in 1949, including difficulties in training professionals to be scientists (O'Gorman, 2001), the fact that many practitioners do not have the time or the inclination to conduct rigorous scientific research (Martin, 1989) and distaste in some quarters for the medical model assumed by some to underpin the scientist-practitioner approach in psychology (for an informed discussion of these and other issues related to the scientist-practitioner model, see Lane & Corrie, 2006). Nevertheless, the three central tenants of the scientist-practitioner model can provide an important foundation for professional coaching psychology practice although some adaptation for use in teaching coaching psychology is required.

An 'informed-practitioner' approach may be a more appropriative stance for the teaching of coaching psychology. As discussed by Stober and Grant (2006) the informed-practitioner approach to professional coaching draws on, and further develops, the reflective-practitioner and the scientist-practitioner models. An informed-practitioner is trained in both the self-reflective processes central to the reflective-practitioner model and also in the understandings of evidence-gathering and evaluation central to the scientist-practitioner model. However, informed-practitioners are not expected to be significant producers of research (Parker & Detterman, 1988). Rather they are positioned as educated consumers of research who can utilise related research and critical thinking skills to improve their practices and intellectual understanding of coaching – a more real-istic approach than attempting to make fully-fledged research scientists from students of coaching psychology. It is interesting to note that similar models of professional practice are being proposed for use in marriage and family therapy training programs (Karam & Sprenkle, 2010), and that a number of commentators have called for greater flexibility in understandings of the scientist-practitioner model as applied to coaching psychology (Corrie & Lane, 2009). Thus a scientist-practitioner model that draws on an informed-practitioner approach may be a useful framework for a model of professional practice that can address the needs and attributes of a diverse range of coaching psychology students.

4. Mental health issues in coaching

Given that some coaching clients will have clinically-significant levels of psychopathology, and that such issues have the very real potential to derail the coaching process (Berglas, 2002) it is important that mental health and mental illness issues in coaching be a core area of the study of coaching psychology. Of course, many coaching students who are already psychologists may have had prior training in recognising and dealing with mental health problems. But many students of coaching psychology will not have had exposure to issues related to mental health.

I argue it is important to include information on mental heath problems in a coaching psychology programme even for those students who have prior mental health training because the presentation of mental health problems in coaching relationships is often quite different to presentations in clinical or counselling settings. In a clinical or counselling setting, the mental health problem is frequently overt, and is the very reason the client is there – diagnosis and identification of the problem may only occur during or after the consultation session, but typically the client contacts the clinician or counsellor because he/she is distressed and he/she know that something is not right.

In coaching contexts mental health problems are often more difficult to identify. The presenting issue could be a need to have more engagement in the workplace, or leadership development involving a shift from a command and control style to a more humanistic, encouraging style, or a need to increase sales performance, rather than an overt distress or mental health problem. Indeed, it may be that coaches need better diagnostic skills than clinicians or counsellors.

For some clients mental health problems such as depression, anxiety, or personally disorders will be significant barriers to change. Some of the core skills that a coach needs here include the ability to recognise common mental health problems in coaching clients, the ability to discuss these issues empathetically with the client, the ability to make a referral to a qualified mental health professional – it is not the coach's role to diagnose or provide treatment.

This area raises a number of difficult and complex questions which need to be addressed in coaching psychology programme. This include whether or not the coach should continue coaching if the client elects to have treatment with a mental health professional; whether or not a coach who is a psychologist should treat mental illness whilst concurrently providing coaching services; how to best work or liaise with a mental health professional; whether or not the coach should terminate the coaching relationship if the client does not seek help; and how to deal with issues of confidentiality and duty of care – particularly in organisational settings where the organisation is paying for the coaching services, and such issues need to be addressed in a graduate education in coaching psychology. These are challenging issues that should be addressed in a graduate programme.

5. Cognitive Behavioural Theory as applied to coaching

Cognitive Behavioural Theory (CBT) is the most common theoretical perspective underpinning coaching practice in general, and also the most empirically validated (Grant et al., 2010). Thus CBT should form a core area of study in a graduate programme in coaching psychology.

CBT is grounded in the notion that emotions and behaviours result (primarily, though not entirely) from cognitive processes and that it is possible for human beings to purposefully modify such processes in order to achieve different ways of feeling and behaving. CBT does not exclusively focus on cognitions, it is a comprehensive theory of human behaviour that proposes a 'biopsychosocial' explanation as to how human beings come to feel and act as they do, that is a combination of biological, psychological, and social factors are involved (for discusion on these points, see Froggatt, 2006). In this sense CBT is a generic term that encompasses a great number of approaches and applications including psychotherapeutic applications such as Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) and Cognitive Therapy (CT).

Applications of CBT have changed over time. Originally used almost exclusively to treat mental health problems (Rachman, 1997), CBT has now been adapted and empirically validated for use in a range of areas including sports and performance psychology, organisational psychology, health psychology and latterly coaching psychology. Each of these different applications requires a specialled adaptation of CBT for optimal use in different populations who have different linguistic nuances, frames of reference and different goals. Just as the language of a cognitive-behavioural organisational psychologist may not resonate for the socially phobic client, the language of cognitive-behavioural clinical or counselling work may not resonate for the coaching client and may well alienate them.

Although there is a wealth of literature associated with cognitive-behavioural therapy in the treatment of anxiety, stress or depression, more work needs to be done in developing positively-languaged coaching-specific adaptations of CBT. Some of the

literature on cognitive-behavioural coaching (CBC) draws heavily on cognitive-behavioural approaches to counselling for stress or perfectionism and defeating dysfunctional thinking patterns and uses language more akin to counselling than coaching (e.g. Neenan & Dryden, 2002) – rather than using the non-pathological orientation and language of goal attainment and coaching. (For more recent work that incorporates a more positively-languaged approach to the use of CBC, see Neenan, 2006; for an interesting example of the application of REBT to executive coaching, see Grieger & Fralick, 2007; and for a useful general overview of CBC, see Williams, Edgerton & Palmer, 2010.) Whilst the CBC literature to date has been an important start in this domain, we will need a greater depth and breath in this literature as an agenda for teaching coaching psychology develops.

6. Goal theory
A commitment to goal setting and the pursuit of specifically defined outcomes as agreed with clients is the core of coaching psychology (BPS, 2006). Thus the study of goal theory should be a central part of the teaching of coaching psychology. Goal theory is represented in a large and diverse body of literature (Locke & Latham, 2002) much of which has direct relevance for the teaching of coaching psychology.

Most commercial coach training organisations teach little in the way of goal theory, often simply focusing on the need to set so-called SMART goals. Yet there are well over 20 different categories of goals that can be used in coaching including learning goals, performance goals, distal goals and self-concordant goals, with indications and contraindications well documented in the goal literature (for discussion of goal theory and applications in executive coaching, see Grant, 2006). In addition, the psychological goal literature includes in-depth discussions about a range of controversies in goal setting (e.g. Locke & Latham, 2009; Ordóñez et al., 2009), knowledge of which should be an essential part of a graduate coaching psychology programme.

7. Change theory
Coaching is about creating purposeful, positive change and so change theory has a vital place in the teaching of coaching psychology. There is a substantial change theory literature ranging from models that focus almost exclusively on the individual (intra-personal), to relational (inter-personal) and systemic theories of change, and there are a wide range of validated techniques drawn from such models (Abraham & Michie, 2008). Most theories of change were not developed for coaching purposes, rather they were developed in relation to the adoption of heath behaviours, organisational change or psychotherapy, and to date there has been little work done adapting models of change for use in the coaching context (Grant 2010).

Some of the models of change that may usefully inform the teaching of coaching psychology include the Transtheoretical Model of Change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982), Intentional Change Theory (Boyatzis, 2006), Transition Models of change (e.g. Bridges, 1986; Williams, 1999), Social Learning/Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977), Theories of Reasoned Action and Planned Behaviour (e.g. Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and a range of organisational change approaches including Kotter (1996) and Lewin (1947), in addition to acceptance-based or paradoxical models of change (e.g. Quinn, Spreitzer & Brown, 2000).

8. Systemic theory as applied to coaching
Although much coaching takes place on an individualistic basis (Ward, 2008), systemic theory has long been influential in coaching practice (e.g. Kilburg, 1996b; O'Neil, 2000). Indeed, whether it be a work situation, organisational context or family structure, coaching clients are always part of a system. The systems in which coaching clients live and work have a significant impact on their ability to achieve their goals. To ignore

systemic issues in coaching is to ignore factors that significantly effect the clients chances of success (for a comprehensive view on systems theory in coaching, see Cavanagh, 2006).

In addition, there is a growing interest in using group-based coaching in organisational settings to help increase the flow of information needed to solve complex problems and complete complex tasks in the situations of ambiguity and uncertainly that characterise much contemporary organisational life (e.g. Anderson, Anderson & Mayo, 2008; Arrow & Henry, 2010; Clutterbuck, 2007), and systemic theory can usefully inform group coaching processes. Thus a theoretical understanding of the major systemic theories is a vital component of a rounded coaching psychology programme.

The inclusion of approaches such as general systems theory (e.g. Von Bertalanffy, 1968) and complexity theory (Waldrop, 1992) will help students of coaching psychology develop their understanding of groups and complex human systems, particularly in relation to group and team dynamics (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). Also of particular relevance for coaching are systemic issues related to learning organisations (Senge, 1990), self-organisation, leadership and control (Wheatley, 1999), and engaging with change in complex adaptive systems (Stacey, 2000).

9. Core applied coaching skills
Although 'there is nothing as practical as a good theory' (Lewin, 1952, p.169), coaching psychology is essentially an applied discipline, and thus applied coaching skills should be a core part of a coaching psychology programme. Issues of relevance here include active listening and attending skills; questioning and communicating effectively; facilitating learning through helping clients design actions that help them attain agreed-upon coaching goals; contracting; managing process and accountability; and appropriately challenging clients to keep them on track. In addition it will be impor-

tant to include instruction in the use of coaching skills in relation to skills, performance and developmental coaching as well as remedial coaching.

Applied skills are important, but practice should not be isolated from theory. An important part of a coaching psychology education is the explicit linking of coaching practice to theoretical frameworks through a case conceptualisation or case formulation process – and case conceptualisation should lie at the heart of applied coaching skills within a coaching psychology programme (for discussion, see Lane & Corrie, 2009). In addition, as part of their education in coaching psychology students should learn a variety of methodologies for structuring coaching sessions and have opportunities to develop their applied skills through supervised role plays and case studies. Ideally, students would learn through supervised role that a good supervisor can bring foster both personal and professional insight, and the importance of engaging in a supervision process should be should be emphasised throughout the programme.

10. Applications of coaching psychology to specialised areas of practice
Coaching is essentially a methodology for facilitating positive change. Such change has a specific focus including (but not limited to): executive coaching, workplace coaching, health coaching, sales coaching, life coaching, and peak performance coaching, and many of these applications of coaching require some specialised knowledge. Further, coaching is utilised as a change methodology in a wide range of commercial, professional and organisational contexts. Many of these will have specific associated knowledge domains with attendant jargon, assumptions and practices which the coach needs to be aware of – for example, coaching in the legal profession without being aware of the terminology used to describe the different roles lawyers adopt may significantly undermine the credibility of one's coaching services. Therefore, a

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graduate programme in coaching psychology should ideally prepare students by delivering any specialised knowledge required to work in specific areas of practice.

A research agenda for scholarship into the teaching of coaching psychology

Thus far this paper has discussed broad issues related to the development of an agenda for teaching coaching psychology. But self-reflection should also be part of the agenda for teaching coaching psychology – scholarship into the teaching of coaching psychology must also be an important part of the agenda. As yet there has been very little work in this area.

Research questions that could inform such scholarship could include: What are the most effective methods for teaching coaching psychology? Are there differences between those students who come to their studies of coaching psychology with a background in psychology compared to those without prior psychology in terms of academic performance and performance as a coach? How does learning coaching psychology change or develop students? Given that coaching can be an effective methodology for personal change, and studying psychology can facilitate personal insight, does studying coaching psychology enhance or accelerate students' own personal development? If so in what way? The limited research in this area suggests that studying coaching psychology can indeed have a positive impact on students' academic performance and personal insight (Grant, 2008). Further research and scholarship in these areas will be benefit both the teaching and professional practice of coaching psychology.

Summary

Whilst the research and practice of coaching psychology has developed considerably over the past 10 years, a formal framework for the teaching of coaching psychology has not as yet been widely discussed in the literature. Some of the core areas in the teaching of coaching psychology that are in clear alignment with existing APS and BPS definitions of coaching psychology and should form the core of an education in coaching psychology include; an evidence-based approach to practice; ethical principles; professional models of practice; mental health issues in coaching; cognitive-behavioural theory as applied to coaching; goal theory; change theory; systemic theory; core applied coaching skills and their application to skills, performance, developmental and remedial coaching; and applications of coaching psychology to specialised areas of practice. These are in addition to specialist areas of theory such as applied positive psychology, solution-focused approaches, cognitive-developmental, narrative, psychodynamic and Gestalt approaches. Coaching psychology as a psychological sub-discipline is well on the way to developing a coherent area of research and practice. It now needs to develop and formalise a body of teachable knowledge that can sustain and advance this new and vibrant area of behavioural science.

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Educating coaching psychologists: Responses from the field

Michael Cavanagh, Stephen Palmer et al.

This paper responds to Grant (this issue), Developing an agenda for teaching coaching psychology. Representatives of key stakeholder groups were asked to respond to the issues raised in Grant's article. These groups included practicing coaching psychologists, coaches, coach educators, Professional bodies in coaching psychology and corporate purchasers of coaching. An agenda for training is intimately bound up with issues of identity for coaching psychology. It raises the questions of how we define ourselves and our relationship to the world. Our respondents also focused on four key questions.

1. *Purpose/Agenda – What is the curricula trying to achieve and for whom?*
2. *Contextual issues – important considerations beyond psychology that might shape training in coaching psychology education.*
3. *Curriculum content – topic areas, theories, models, approaches and perspectives.*
4. *Teaching process – Considerations about how the curriculum should be taught.*

A range of perspectives are brought to bear on these questions. The diversity of responses reflect the reality of working in a diverse world. This is not something to be overcome, but embraced by coaching psychology. Any discussion of the training of coaching psychologists should include multiple models of training, and multiple curricula. In this way we reflect the adaptive quality of the coaching conversation, and its ability to incorporate cross-disciplinary insights and understandings. This is what gives coaching its unique responsiveness to the emerging needs of our clients.

Keywords: *Coaching psychology; teaching coaching psychology; coach training; evidence-based coaching; cross-disciplinary.*

Introduction

Michael Cavanagh & Stephen Palmer

(Co-ordinating editors, *ICPR*)

The foregoing article by Grant entitled 'Developing an agenda for teaching coaching psychology', represents the first in a new series of articles where some of the unfinished questions in coaching psychology can be discussed and debated. For this first discussion, the international co-editors have invited members of the coaching psychology world to pen responses of between 250 to 1000 words to the issues and ideas put forward in Grant's article. We are pleased to say that the response to our invitation was outstanding, and we present these now in the following response article.

Before we begin to outline the more contentious issues raised and responded to by our authors, we should state that the primary response to Grant's paper was one of positive support. Perhaps it is not surprising that one of the founders of education in coaching psychology should have given such thoughtful and coverage to the main issues in the field. The opportunity to discuss and reflect on these issues was appreciated by the authors.

That being said, our invited authors did raise a number of issues and concerns to consider in designing, populating and delivering a coaching psychology curriculum. Table 1 summarises the main issues identified for discussion by the commentators. We have listed these issues under four headings:

1. Purpose/Agenda – What is the curricula trying to achieve and for whom?
2. Contextual issues – Important considerations beyond psychology that might shape training in coaching psychology education.

3. Curriculum content – Topic areas, theories, models, approaches and perspectives
4. Teaching process – Considerations about how the curriculum should be taught.

Of course, there is a close association and overlap between these categories, and some of the issues raised could easily be listed under more than one heading. Nevertheless, the above four categories may be a useful way of highlighting the main areas of agreement and tension in designing a coaching psychology curricula.

As can be seen from Table 1, there are emerging areas for further discussion that appear important in the development of a curriculum for coaching psychology. A number of authors have commented on the need to be clear about what it is that we are trying to achieve in training coaching psychologists – what purpose do we bring to this undertaking? How we define coaching psychology and its relationship to other forms of coaching, and other specialties in psychology remain unfinished questions in the minds of many. For example, the boundary between coaching and therapy remains fuzzy (Cavanagh, 2005), in particular life coaching.

The training of undergraduate psychology students in coaching psychology as part of their first degree was also covered and has been reported elsewhere (Palmer, 2008; Spaten & Hansen, 2009). What we teach undergraduate students will differ from the postgraduate training that is necessary to obtain a national Practitioner Psychologist registration or accreditation. At City University London, the psychology students are introduced to coaching psychology in their final year and it is usually the first time on their degree programme they experience some skills development in addition to psychological theory and research.

The possible lack of clarity about the definition of coaching psychology is unsurprising, given the historical context of coaching psychology although the professional bodies do all publish a definition or description. As an area of professional practice for psychologists, coaching psychology is young, and it is still emerging. A number of our contributors have commented on this, and warned against fixing in stone a coaching psychology curriculum based on a premature closure on the question of what is the theory base and practice of coaching psychology.

To attempt to articulate an agenda for training in coaching psychology, is to embark on a journey of self-definition. Our training expresses who we are, and who we aspire to be. It is formative of ourselves as practitioners and as a profession. All of our contributors are in some way grappling with this crucial question – who are we and what do we offer the world.

Dr Angela Hetherington (Chair, BPS Special Group in Coaching Psychology)
'Teaching coaching psychology' addresses a key issue in the development of psychological coaching. Whilst the article focuses on the training and teaching of practitioners, it has significant implications on the final assessment of the competency and conduct of professional coaching psychologists. The accreditation of coaching psychologists is of major concern globally. Whilst many coaching associations in general seek to define the core qualifying criteria of recognised coaches, it is likely that ultimately coaching psychologists – as a distinct group – will have a set of requirements identified and defined by the Health Professionals Council (HPC). Teaching organisations are likely to assume a pivotal role in influencing the qualifying criteria for coaching psychologists by determining the underlying teaching material.

It can be expected that training and teaching courses may finally be accredited by the HPC. Teaching institutions have a window of opportunity to develop and

Table 1: Main areas of comment by our invited reviewers.

Area for discussion	Identified issue	Heatherington	Zarris	Passmore	Lane & Corrie	Odendaal	Stelter	Spaten	Whydrow	Barbour	Rauan & Eversman	Kemp	Saiz & De la Osa Serna	O'Riordan	Nicholson
Purpose/ Agenda	Need for clarity about the purpose of the teaching agenda			●	●		●				●	●			
	Definition of coaching psychology		●	●		●			●		●				
	The emergence of coaching psychologists as a fully recognised area of professional practice is clearly necessary		●						●						
	Need to create structures that underpin professionalisation of coaching psychology		●												
	Cross disciplinary nature of coaching				●						●				●
	Training of non-psychologists in psychology								●		●	●			
Contextual issues	Need to be clear about the context in which coaching psychology has arisen			●	●		●								
	Need to maintain flexibility and difference in education/danger of premature rush to content				●		●		●						
	Implications for assessment of competencies	●													
	Legislative landscape					●									
	Utility for purchasers									●					
	Engagement with wider coaching community		●												
	Changing nature of professions				●		●								
	Role of the teaching organisations in influencing the Health Professions Council (UK)	●													
	Role of organisational clients			●											
	Relationship between postgraduate and undergraduate courses													●	

Table 1: Main areas of comment by our invited reviewers *(continued).*

Area for discussion	Identified issue	Heatherington	Zarris	Passmore	Lane & Corrie	Odendaal	Stelter	Spaten	Whydrow	Barbour	Rauan & Eversman	Kemp	Saiz & De la Osa Serna	O'Riordan	Nicholson
Curriculum content	Boundary between coaching and mental health			●					●						
	Need to deal with complexity and ambiguity				●		●								
	Need for coaching to be evidence-based			●											
	Ethical behaviour									●					
	Leadership and positive organisational scholarship									●					
	Training in psychometrics and assessment		●			●									
	Importance of social psychology												●		
	Coaching and meaning making						●								
	Working with beliefs values and attitudes												●		
	Team coaching/organisational psychology												●		
	Greater emphasis on applied skills needed.							●							
	Need to develop critical thinking and problem solving skills														●
	Industrial experience as an important part of training	●													
Teaching process	Importance of reflective practice			●			●					●			
	Qualification and experience of the teacher			●							●	●			
	Need to include multiple teaching modalities						●	●			●	●			
	Use of coach assessment evidence to support a teaching agenda														●
	Supervision and lifelong learning										●				
	Multiculturally sensitive teaching					●							●		

design course content that can be assured to equip practitioners with the knowledge, skills and experience to practice effectively. Scientific, evidence-based, ethical, theoretical and practical content will serve not only to train the coaching psychologist but will assist in differentiating and marketing the service of coaching psychology in an increasingly harsh economic climate.

A major requirement of the training itself might be argued to be first hand industrial experience, which could allow a route for other professionals to change career; thus accommodating diversity of professional background whilst creating measurable, coherent and validated training requirements.

A major concern for teaching institutions and accrediting organisations is the protection of the public from malpractice. Appropriate postgraduate qualifications based on rigorous, stringent training requirements will provide the public with a major means of selection and delineation of competent practitioners who can evidence their training and experience. Teaching institutions are also well placed to deliver continuing professional development which can serve to complement prior training and to assure the public of coaching psychologists who are clearly committed to lifelong learning.

Peter Zarris (National Convenor,
Australian Psychological Society Interest
Group in Coaching Psychology)
As a practitioner for some 25 years now, one of the interesting challenges I have had beyond independently maintaining professional standards and ensuring my own professional development is in defining myself to my client base, which in my situation is the corporate world.

Most commonly I describe myself as a psychologist. It is indeed the occupation I put in my exit and entry documentation when I travel overseas. But is 'psychologist' adequate? I often also call myself an organisational psychologist and more recently a psychologist who coaches.

Currently in this country I cannot as yet call myself a coaching psychologist, although as an Honorary Vice President of the Society for Coaching Psychology I can do it in some places overseas.

Having now been in the role of the Chair of the Australian Psychological Society Interest Group of Coaching Psychology (APS IGCP) for some three-and-a-half years, I've spent a vast majority of that time pondering the question of 'who are we?'. It is a vexed question that challenges some of our more militant and active members, and also challenges the broader coaching and psychological communities. For a long period of time I've felt that our role was seen to be on the periphery of mainstream psychology. Whilst our membership numbers have waned recently, we are still the second largest interest group in the APS. Yet, as the National Convener of the group, I often felt that we were out of mind and out of sight, and to some degree distanced from the core issues challenging the APS.

This view changed dramatically recently when the APS became very interested (and indeed involved) in assisting us with a response to a draft Standards Australia handbook outlining guidelines to coaching in the workplace. The advent of this document (which was as a result of broad consultation with a variety of stakeholders including business, government, academia and other professional bodies) reignited the core debate within the discipline of coaching psychology.

In my view the core debate is always about identity and purpose. What is the role of psychology in coaching? Is coaching psychology an independent and discrete discipline within psychology or is it merely a subset of established disciplines (as represented by colleges within the APS) such as counselling psychology or organisational psychology?

I have personally reached the viewpoint that we need to make a decision about whether coaching psychology is indeed a unique discipline. I personally feel, as a prac-

titioner of some 25 years (reinforced by my time as the National Chair within the interest group), that it is a unique discipline. However, as an emerging discipline in its infancy we have yet to accurately define and describe it both within psychology, but importantly also within the broader coaching community. I base my views about the uniqueness of coaching psychology on the fact that I have conducted counselling, I have undertaken a variety of functions under the general discipline of organisational psychology (including training, developmental feedback, psychological testing and leadership development activities) and my professional experience tells me that this is both a different and unique activity, but also a crucial, highly effective and important one.

I believe that the main challenge is not that coaching psychology is not unique and important, but that as yet we have not undertaken the requisite research and created the required disciplines and structures to be an independent discipline.

Let me tackle the second issue first. When I refer to the requisite disciplines and structures I refer to the need to create the structures that other established sub-disciplines of psychology have. This would include a formally registered Coaching Psychology Masters; a College of Coaching Psychology; and an established reputable international peer-review journal, which indeed we are well down the road of having created. The *International Coaching Psychology Review* is one such a journal that we co-edit with the BPS, although it is yet to reach the international distribution levels or indeed the status we hope for it.

The main hurdles to creating the required disciplines and structures are, I believe, two-fold. Firstly the confidence and the conviction that coaching psychology is a unique discipline and to be able to not only define this, but to describe it in a manner that makes sense to both psychological and non-psychological communities. Secondly the other challenge is the amount of work

required. As many of the practitioners in this space are already giving an increasing amount of time voluntarily to run interest groups and other activities then finding the resources (both people and time) to be able to create a college, an international community of coaching psychologists, encourage greater research (via liaison with the requisite universities), and support a tertiary institution to create a Masters in Coaching Psychology is a major challenge. Without this work the concept that coaching psychology is an independent discipline will not become a reality.

This now returns me to my first point, and that is the ability of coaching psychologists to clearly define and describe what it is that we do and how that makes us different from other branches of psychology and mainstream coaching. Of course, this would be much simpler if we achieved the professional disciplines required to be a profession. Another important point to make here is that once we have clearly defined ourselves and what coaching psychology does and coaching psychologists do then we can take a more active and perhaps a leadership role within the industry, which I think is absolutely crucial.

This brings us back to the original question that the article raises. What is required to develop and formalise a body of teachable knowledge that can sustain and advance this new area of behavioural science? I fully endorse the framework presented by the author as a wonderful starting point in this process. If one believes that coaching psychology will march towards becoming an independent profession that can make a difference in both the corporate world and in the lives of individuals, it is a fundamental step forward. As a practitioner primarily in the corporate space I have watched with great dismay and concern regarding the effects of poorly thought out strategies, poor ethics in business and an elementary lack of understanding of how to achieve and sustain high performance in organisations. We as a discipline (by 'we' I mean psychology) have

blatantly lost the argument on the best way to run an organisation. We do not have a voice at the table despite, in my opinion, having as much and probably more to offer than any other discipline in making organisations more effective and a healthier place to work.

Now another wonderful opportunity presents itself. Coaching has taken a great foothold in organisations. People have accepted coaching very widely, and managers and leaders seek out a coach to assist them in sustaining high performance and improving their organisational effectiveness. Coaches are increasingly having a privileged place as trusted advisors for organisational leaders. But do all coaches have the requisite training, skill, knowledge and capability to be able to provide sound factual evidence to support the advice they are giving?

The professional standards that psychology sets itself are in my opinion second to none. The converging opportunities to both have a seat at the table as trusted advisors for organisations and individuals, but also to set the standards in coaching to the level required for it to become a profession, have arrived. Rather than spending our time looking down our noses at the professional capabilities and indeed the standards non-psychologists set themselves, our responsibility is to role model and demonstrate those standards. One of the steps in this is the creation of learning institutions; a place where we can teach coaching psychology and contribute towards creating a profession of coaching psychology. Once this is achieved we can lead the way and assist coaching more broadly to become professionalised and to have interventions and methodologies that are evidence-based, supported by research and reflect the highest levels of professional standards.

Across the entire psychological profession it is crucial that we accept coaching psychology for what in my opinion it is, and that is as a crucial independent branch of psychology. Once we have done this we must then turn our attention to supporting the various structures such as academic research, academic programmes and peer review journals that mean we will create the profession and meet the converging opportunity to make the professional difference that our profession really offers.

It is after all what we do best.

Dr Jonathan Passmore (Coaching Psychology Unit, University of East London, UK)
Introduction
The paper by Grant raises a number of important questions for those who teach coaching psychology. The authors are right that for continued progress those who are responsible for developing programmes, their validation and teaching should begin to look at what is being taught and come together with a view to sharing and learning between institutions. This short paper aims to respond to some of the issues and themes raised in the paper by Grant in his paper on coaching psychology teaching. Rather than respond point by point to the issues raised by Grant, this paper takes a Socratic approach to the teaching of coaching psychology. It asks who, what, where, when and why coaching psychology?

Reflexivity
In positioning this paper it is worth explaining briefly the position of the author. The author originally trained as an occupational psychologist and is at the time of writing the director of a UK university coaching psychology unit based within a large UK school of psychology. The school offers a comprehensive range of BPS-accredited programmes.

Who?
The first question we believe should be considered is who is coaching psychology for? In writing our masters programme at the University of East London we adopted a model drawn from other UK BPS-accredited programmes which led to chartership.

Specifically we looked at the model for occupational psychology as a comparable framework. Under this model students with a BPS-recognised undergraduate degree in psychology are eligible to apply for an occupational psychology postgraduate qualification. This programme is accredited by the BPS and is the first stage in the route to occupational psychology chartership. For those without a BPS-recognised degree, many universities offer a parallel (but different) award. The teaching content and assessment are the same but students secure a different award and one which is not recognised by the BPS.

While we recognised there was on-going debate about whether this was fair and equitable, we took the view that the BPS position had been adopted and applied to other domains. If our ultimate aim was to gain chartered recognition status for coaching psychologists', our best hope as a profession in the UK was to follow the model set in other areas of practice.

We saw the chartership model developing through a one-year full-time degree (or two-years' part-time). This first year of formal study and assessment would be followed (as in occupational psychology) through two years' of reflective coaching practice, assessed by a supervisor and BPS assessor. On completion of both stages of training the practitioner could apply for BPS-recognised chartership status as a chartered coaching psychologist.

A second question of who, was who should be eligible to teach coaching psychology? We held the view that the teaching team should be predominately chartered psychologists, who are registered with the BPS and Health Professions Council (HPC). Again in deciding this aspect we drew from the BPS model of what was expected of other chartered programmes in the UK.

Given the previous adoption of this model in other areas of UK accreted psychology training, we still believe this is the right route to move forward for the SGCP for coaching psychology in the UK.

What?

The 'what' question considers the content of the programme. What should coaching psychology consist of in teaching terms? More fundamentally, what is coaching psychology? In defining coaching psychology we again reflected on how others had defined their disciplines of psychology. While coaching psychology appears to have taken its own pathway. Grant and Palmer (2002) originally defined coaching psychology as:

> 'Coaching psychology is for enhancing performance in work and personal life domains with normal, non-clinical populations, underpinned by models of coaching grounded in established therapeutic approaches.'

This was subsequently revised to:

> 'Coaching psychology is for enhancing well-being and performance in personal life and work domains, underpinned by models of coaching grounded in established adult learning or psychological approaches.'
> (Adapted Grant & Palmer, 2002.)

Both definitions imply that coaching psychology practice is different from other coaching practice. This view was true in 2002, when coaching psychology championed evidence-based practice, and coaching conferences still offered sessions on 'crystal healing coaching'. However, in 2011 this argument has largely been won. Most respected coaches would acknowledge the value of an evidence-based approach. Thus in 2011, I favour a different definition, one which is more akin to those in other branches of psychology such as the definitions of occupational or health psychology which focus on the study of the domain as opposed to a unique way of practice. An alternative definition is:

> 'Coaching psychology is the scientific study of behaviour, cognitive and emotion within coaching practice to deepen our understanding and enhance our practice within coaching.'

I believe all coaching should be evidenced based and all good coach training should teach evidenced-based practice. Coaches need to learn key skills and know why these

skills are useful. They need to learn a number of alternative models, so they are able to select an approach, model or tool to meet their client's needs, as opposed to doing what they always do. Further all coaches need to learn about ethics, ethical decision making, mental health and psychological conditions as well as how to refer appropriate to other professionals. All coaches should also have a basic understanding of the domain in which they are working – so for organisational coaches this means an understanding of organisations, leadership and strategy, for health coaches this would mean an understanding of the health system and common presenting issues. All coaches should also have a basic understanding of human psychology, specific adult learning, behaviour change models and how individuals make sense of the self.

What is distinctive about psychologically focused coaching programmes is the emphasis they place on the science behind coaching practice. This may include exploring how coaches make sense of the psychological dimensions of their client, understand the research which underpins their practice as well as contributing through psychological methods to that research base.

When
The 'when' question concerns when should individuals learn about coaching. I think there is a role for coach training at level 3 or 4, as well as at level 5 (graduate) and level 7 to 9 (postgraduate. However, for those of us who support chartership we should not sell coaching psychology short. Coaching is a skill, but is also has (and is developing) a unique science base. The study of this science is the opportunity for coaching psychology to move from level 3 to 5 to level 7 to 9. In terms of the progress to chartership we would suggest a foundation level of study (Masters degree) follow by a period of reflective practice to acquire and apply high level skills, which mirror the developmental journey of occupational psychologists and takes practitioners to a doctoral level of practice; a level

of practice which is underpinned by a detailed scientific knowledge of the domain.

Where?
While coaching is a valuable skill and can clearly be taught by many at various levels, for the development of coaching psychology as a chartered profession in the UK, the study of the discipline should be at accredited centres (mainly universities) who are able to offer an academic psychological environment suitable for doctoral level study.

However, learning should not either start or stop at this point. Coaching psychology should aim to be a high level profession, akin to clinical psychology or medicine. High quality professions such as doctors, surgeons and others look to specialist providers to continue their ongoing development through short and long courses and areas of advanced technical knowledge. Continuous Professional Development is thus a key component of practice for a chartered practitioner, with reflection and learning continuing through their career.

Why?
The last question is why coaching psychology? The research evidence suggests that acquiring and deploying coaching skills can be useful for managers in developing their staff. There is also evidence that the help of an internal or external trained coach also helps managers in improving their own performance. Good coaches are well trained, but for coaching to become a profession, coaching needs a science (evidence) base. The role of coaching psychologists is the study of the science of coaching and the sharing of this knowledge their research papers and other publications. Coaching psychology courses should be both training great coaches and equipping their students with the knowledge and skills to understand and contribute the development of this evidence base, which informs the wider profession. Coaching psychology's role is thus to dig the well of evidence-based knowledge and to continue

to replenish this well, through research, a well from which other practitioners can draw during their own training.

Conclusions

This short paper has set out thoughts on five themes; who, what, where, when and why. The paper may be contentious. It has deliberately set out to follow an existing pathway which has been established in the UK for chartered status in other domains. For many of us who set out at the start of this journey in the UK in 2002 and who attended the first UK-based coaching psychology conference hosted at IBM, London, chartership was our holy grail. For those of us in the UK, let us not let that dream of an equal, but separate, chartered status and a division slip from our hand, just because it is difficult to attain.

Prof. David A. Lane (Professional Development Foundation and Middlesex University Institute of Work Based Learning) and **Dr Sarah Corrie** (Professional Development Foundation and Royal Holloway University of London

We welcome Tony's article on developing an agenda for teaching coaching psychology as a timely debate for our emergent profession. We share the view that if coaching psychology is to establish itself as a credible profession, then it must be underpinned by a robust educational framework. In this brief response, we aim to contribute to the debate by highlighting what we see as a central consideration for developing a systematic training strategy.

Before there can be any collective agreement on what form the training of coaching psychologists should take, it is first necessary to be clear about what the teaching agenda is aiming to achieve. Without agreement on the purpose, or purposes, of such training the debate cannot proceed in any systematic fashion.

Clarity around core areas of study is important and we would agree with Tony that the 10 areas identified represent a potentially fruitful foundation for coach training programmes. However, there is a context in which the call for an educational framework is occurring. As this context will ultimately shape decisions about content, it is important to understand its influence.

Coaching psychology has emerged during an era in which practitioners of all disciplines are affected by the same rapid changes and rising uncertainties as the clients whom they are attempting to guide and support. The nature of knowledge, evidence, and what it means to be a professional are increasingly open to negotiation and coaches face the challenge of having to be flexible, adaptive and adept at managing change, whilst simultaneously coping with demands for greater co-ordination, consistency and control (Corrie, Drake & Lane, 2010). Our clients face similar issues and as coaches we frequently find ourselves operating outside of performance, developmental and remedial coaching. We find ourselves in unknown areas of transformation that call for a degree of comfort in working with ambiguous spaces, with the tensions that arise and seeing in these ideas that emerge out of the conversations in ways that could not have been predicted.

In such a climate, it makes sense to consider the agenda for training at the level of over-arching (higher order) competences before focusing on specific methods of practice. This would organise the debate around matters such as the professional identity of coaching psychologists; how best to equip them for challenges that we cannot yet predict; how individuals should go about developing a robust knowledge management strategy in the face of rapidly increasing amounts of information; how to make sense of clients' needs in ways that are accurate and effective (see Corrie & Lane, 2010) and how to make effective, localised decisions with increasingly decentralised, globalised and unpredictable information.

In previous work (Lane & Corrie, 2006; Corrie & Lane, 2009) we looked at what it

means to be a professional practitioner in the context of psychologists' identities as scientist-practitioners and made the case that four over-arching or meta-competences are critical for effective practice in the current climate. These are: rigorous thinking, case conceptualisation, creativity and critical evaluation of our practice. The notion of the 'informed-practitioner' (Stober & Grant, 2006) would appear to represent a similar spirit of enquiry and one which offers a potentially useful framework for identifying those meta-competences that coaching psychologists will increasingly need to effectively negotiate the work place.

In a professional, social and economic climate that tends to privilege clearly operationalised goals and tangible results over journeys of discovery, it would be understandable but regrettable if the debate became prematurely organised around content (theories, models and techniques) at the expense of broader questions relating to professional identity, and the meta-competences needed to equip coaching psychologists for a rapidly changing world.

As a growing inter-disciplinary arena it is unlikely that the field can devise a single educational framework capable of meeting the needs of all those who seek to become coaching psychologists. On one level, this poses a significant challenge to those seeking to develop a systematic approach to training. However, viewed from another perspective, it presents us with a unique opportunity to seek fresh ideas, engage in inter-disciplinary dialogue and explore innovative approaches to teaching and learning. We hope that collectively, coaching psychologists might prove willing to engage in the debate at this level before attempting to define content based on theory and skills.

Dr Aletta Odendaal (University of Johannesburg, South Africa)
The coaching industry in South Africa has grown exponentially and the coaching marketplace is becoming increasingly complex with growing numbers of available coaches, who are inexperienced, trained in proprietary coaching models with little or no foundation in psychological theory and lack the appropriate knowledge and skills. Part of the problem lies in the fact that the coaching industry in South Africa is highly fragmented and diverse with no single professional body or sets of standards and qualifications to guide buyers of coaching services. The proposed agenda for the teaching of coaching psychology, therefore, comes at a crucial time in the development of coaching psychology in South Africa. The comments made in this response are, therefore, from a South African perspective based on personal interpretation of regulatory documents and is not a reflection of the policy or opinion of the university at which the author is employed or the professional body she represents.

The development of coaching psychology in South Africa has followed global trends with a key driver the establishment of a Special Group in Coaching Psychology in 2007 within the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA) Interest Group of Consulting Psychology, with a subsequent name change in 2010 to the Interest Group in Coaching and Consulting Psychology (IGCCP). The IGCCP has been instrumental in obtaining a dedicated coaching psychology track in the Annual SIOPSA conference and has since engaged in strategic partnerships *with similar interest groups internationally to promote the development of coaching psychology* as an emerging theoretical and applied sub-discipline of psychology.

The IGCCP is currently engaging with prominent stakeholders to debate the boundaries between coaching, the study of the psychology of coaching and the professionalisation of coaching psychology. Key to the debate is the acceptance of the definition of coaching psychology of the APS and BPS as a working definition. An internal stakeholder analysis conducted in November 2010 revealed the necessity to develop a

working definition or description that is relevant to the regulatory and practice frameworks in South Africa (Odendaal & Le Roux, 2010). The working definition proposed by the authors is especially relevant to the South African context in that a clear distinction is made between coaching psychology and counselling and clinical work. The inclusion of the short statement that excludes the direct treatment of mental illness or abnormal levels of distress further supports statutory requirements in South Africa in that 'the evaluation of behaviour…the use of psychological methods or practice aimed at aiding persons or groups in the adjustment of personality, emotional or behavioural problems or at the promotion of positive personality change, growth and development, and the identification and evaluation of personality dynamics and personality functioning according to scientific psychological methods…' are seen as a psychological act and can only be performed by a registered psychologist (Regulation 993 in *Government Gazette* No. 31433, 2 (a) – (i), 16 September 2008).

The regulation, defining the scope of practice of the profession of psychology, has further huge implication for the teaching of coaching psychology to non-psychologists in that 'psychology means the profession of a person registered under the Act as a psychologist, psychometrist, registered counsellor, psychotechnician or in any other category of registration as may be established by the Health Professions Council of South Africa – HPCSA' (Health Professions Act 56 of 1974, as amended by Act No. 29 of 2007). The HPCSA are the Standard Generating Body (SGB) for Psychology and mandated to set the minimum standards of education and training for registration to ensure that the interests of the public are protected. Against this background the study of postgraduate coaching psychology with the aim of registering as a Coaching Psychologist is, therefore, restricted to an appropriate undergraduate and Honours degree in psychology or those who are registered as a psychologist.

An additional factor that complicates the debate regarding the teaching of the psychology of coaching is the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF, 2007) that requires a major on undergraduate level in either psychology or behavioural sciences depending the designator or qualifier of the postgraduate course. It is for this reason that several courses in the psychology of coaching are included as separate modules within a qualification or presented as extra-curricular courses that are not credit bearing towards a formal qualification – this is, however, a complex debate that is indeed worthy of a separate discussion and not the focus of this paper. I am, therefore, in full support of the statement made by the authors that the psychology of coaching should be seen as distinct from the development of the profession of coaching psychology.

Towards an agenda for teaching coaching psychology
1. The inclusion of cross-cultural coaching
The previous discussion alluded to the contextual issues influencing the agenda for coaching psychology in South Africa and against that background I am in strong support of the core areas and electives as proposed by the authors of the article. The discussion in the article highlights the breadth and depth of knowledge and skill required in the teaching of coaching psychology. Furthermore, the higher education legislative landscape in South Africa supports the fostering of critical thinking skills and the inclusion of applied skills within a qualification.

In addition to the regulatory context is it also important to acknowledge the rich multi-cultural context of South Africa. South Africa is a nation of over 47 million people of diverse origins, cultures, languages and beliefs. According to Statistics South Africa (2006) Africans are in the majority at 37.7 million, making up 79.5 per cent of the total population. The White population is estimated at 4.4 million (9.2 per cent), the

Coloured[1] population at 4.2 million (8.9 per cent) and the Indian/Asian population at 1.2 million (2.5 per cent). While more than three-quarters of South Africa's population is Black African, this category is, however, not culturally nor linguistically homogenous. This has huge implication for teaching coaching psychology as specific competencies may be required to coach across cultures. Here I wish to highlight those competencies which are particularly relevant and necessary to work with heterogeneous clients, where the coachee has a different background to the coach.

Culture plays an enormous role in shaping human behaviour and findings of many studies in cross-cultural psychology have challenged traditionally held views about psychological processes making culture a major topic of relevance in the teaching of coaching psychology (for a detailed discussion on the development of cross-cultural psychology and the influence on psychology in general see Matsumoto, 2001, and Segall et al., 1999). The inclusion of cultural orientation frameworks into the agenda for the teaching of coaching psychology (e.g. GLOBE study – House et al., 2004; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Rosinski, 2003; Trompenaars, 1994) will provide a systematic approach to clarify the nature of cultural differences as well as similarities. Also of particular relevance for coaching are ethnocentric and ethnorelative behaviours as related to the dynamics of cross-cultural interactions as well as the development of intercultural competence (Bennett, 2004; Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2003).

2. Psychometrics in coaching as core area of study
Given the regulatory and multicultural setting in South Africa as well as the expanding range of psychological assessment tools available to coaches is it important to also include within a curriculum on coaching psychology the use of psychomet-

rics and psychological tools in coaching. This is indeed covered within the article by referring to examples of additional areas of study, specifically 'measurement in coaching including issues related to multi-rater feedback'. The argument is that given the fact that we focus on coaching psychology and the possible development of a recognised specialised area of practice, psychological assessment are often cited as a core differentiator and should, therefore, form part of the core curriculum and not an elective. In this regard reference can be made to different accreditation and certification requirements around the world that provide guidelines on appropriate standards to have required knowledge and practical skills in administration, interpretation and feedback to use assessments responsibly and ethically (refer to the British Psychological Society (2006), International Test Commission (2000) and the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (2006) guidelines on psychological testing).

This in this area of study the onus is not only on test users to be familiar with the specific instrument in use but also to be exposed to various kinds of instruments and measuring devices available to coaches, how to choose which instrument to use, what they measure and their role in the coaching context, the psychometric properties of the test and the standards that are required for reliability and validity as well as the equivalence of an instrument in order for it to be applied cross-culturally (for discussions on these points see, for example, Palmer & Whybrow, 2007; Passmore, 2008; Peltier, 2010; Van de Vijver & Rothman, 2004).

To conclude, the proposed core areas of study as well as the electives based on specialist areas of practice can be seen as the first step towards the formalisation of a body of teachable knowledge that can sustain and advance the professional development of coaching psychology. The proposed agenda

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[1] The term Coloured is used to refer to people of mixed racial descent and is used by the South African government as part of its official racial categorisation scheme.

for the teaching of coaching psychology should, therefore, be considered as a benchmark against which local qualifications can be compared for content and international consistency and possibly even accreditation.

Reinhard Stelter (Coaching Psychology Unit, University of Copenhagen)

Unlike the Anglo-Saxon curriculum tradition that takes a pragmatic focus on the how of teaching, the German-based approach of *Bildung* and didactics (Westbury, Hopmann & Riquarts, 2000) puts a foundational focus on the *what and why* of teaching. From this perspective the pedagogical enterprise will take its starting point from a normative position. This didactical foundation for teaching coaching psychology is the main objective of my response to this systematic and exciting article. The two following questions stimulate my further reflections here:

1. What might be the central point of departure when teaching coaching psychology?
2. Why should we take this as an appropriate point of departure?

In answering these questions from a normative didactical position I will take the *societal pre-requisites of coaching and coaching psychology* as the central point of departure for the curriculum. The justification for this position is socio-historically oriented: namely that over the last two decades coaching and coaching psychology has become a prominent phenomenon in our societies. In that sense the societal changes that have given rise to the importance of coaching can be considered as the foundational prerequisite of a coaching psychology curriculum.

This raises the following question: What has happened in our societies that seem to make coaching and coaching psychology indispensible? I have the following answers:

- We live in a time of complexity in all segments of our society, both in relation to economics and in relation to our civil society. Every individual has to adapt to rapid changes. Shifting social and personal challenges demand flexibility and adjustment to new and ever changing situations.
- In our societies with a post-traditional order, self-identity is reflexive. Following Giddens (1991) identity, self-reflexivity and self-development are central issues for every individual in our society.
- The complexity of these societal changes and challenges asks for a new definition of knowledge, a knowledge that is now formed in concrete contexts and in relation to the specific precondition of the situation.
- The contextual understanding of knowledge calls for new forms of learning and development. With reference to Wenger (1998) learning has the best conditions in a community of practice, in an environment where a group of people or professionals share a common interest and are able to co-operate by developing knowledge that is relevant and useful in the context they live or work in.

From this societal perspective, coaching psychologists seek to support people in their processes of self-reflection and in handling challenging work and life situations by searching for meaning, by developing new knowledge, and finally by working towards renewed action strategies. This objective describes the didactical basis or the *what and why* for teaching coaching psychology. In my understanding a coaching psychology curriculum should be organised around this objective. To be able to encourage and support the coachee's process of self-reflection the concept of meaning-making appears to be very central (Stelter, 2007). Coaching psychology students should develop an in-depth understanding of how clients make meaning in their life and/or work. Meaning-making is understood as an individual and experiential process of making sense of the world on the one hand and as a social, inter-active and joint process in specific communities of practice on the other.

From that point of departure many paths can be taken, and many intervention theories can be included. The selection of curriculum content is dependent on what can help future coaching psychologists best in providing services for clients that have to handle challenges typical for organisations or societal contexts that often are complex and that do not invite for simple and straight-forward answers.

Dr Ole Michael Spaten (Coaching Psychology Research Unit, Aalborg University Denmark)

This paper will comment on some of the core areas presented by Developing an Agenda for Teaching Coaching Psychology (DATCP), and discuss a further expansion taking off from the Danish training programme (Spaten et al., 2009). The 10 core areas of study, creates a remarkable framework for future research and teaching of coaching psychology. Nevertheless, within the framework of the 10 core areas, applied skills are only prominent in two of the core ideas, whereas number nine would benefit from some elaboration. In our graduate programme active participation and practice is much more imperial, and on this basis, following headings will be stretched: Learning by teaching, Learning by experience, Learning by doing, and Learning by the zone. They need to be further developed in order to continue the development of the teaching agenda in coaching psychology.

The Agenda for Teaching Coaching Psychology
The focus of this commentary will be grounded in teaching experiences. Denmark first embedded coaching psychology in graduate training from 2007 at the University of Aalborg, CPU as the requirement to obtain the Masters degree in psychology, (Spaten et al., 2008). We are credited in this publication's article (DATCP) as the review pinpoints the present state of worldwide agenda for teaching coaching psychology growing fast since early 2000 (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2006).

Our approach at Aalborg University is in general aligned by its pragmatic, multi-theoretical integrative approach (Passmore, 2007), but has a strong foundation in cognitive behavioural theory (DATCP, Core area 5). Some important constituents in our Danish programme might be included in other programmes worldwide, and add to a general discussion about the teaching of coaching psychology. Four of them follow below.

Learning by teaching
Alongside theoretical lectures done by faculty our students are individually assigned to present parts of the theoretical examination requirements to peer students and faculty. During teaching of coaching psychology knowledge is accumulated in the form of lectures and reading. This highly active and involving process of learning by teaching (Tang, Hernandez & Adams, 2004) has been shown to increase learning in other domains, and is continued during workshops over three semesters.

Learning by experience
Our coaching psychology modules are based on the application of 'Action-Reflection-Learning' principles (Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1987). Sessions include students experience and plenary reflections about the perspective as a coach as well as understood from the 'client perspective', prompting tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1983) to the foreground of the learning. A systematic employment of a 'coaching checklist' (Spaten, 2008) provides additionally the coaches with an understanding and awareness of the importance of continuous improvement of coaching skills and personal development as a coach.

Learning by doing
During the beginning phase, master coaches practice coaching with the newcomers as audience, and the apprenticeship continues as the novice students become more and more experienced members engaging like in a 'community of practice', (Lave et al., 1991). Learning progresses with the

student's weekly role-playing 'learning-by-doing' sessions, which are individually supervised and understood as the cornerstone of students training. These sessions provides the students with opportunities to practise the role of coach and coachee. The form of the sessions constitutes the basis for personal development and the necessary work with the students own skills (Dreyfus et al., 1987) which is considered as a condition for subsequent successful practice. In the article (DATCP, *ICPR*) research about how learning to coach might develop students personally is suggested. Earlier coaching research indicated that students social and emotional skills were enhanced alongside their clinical skills by participating in the coaching psychology programme at Aalborg University (Spaten & Hansen, 2009), which will be expanded in the future.

Learning by the zone
The supervised role plays and case studies which (DATCP, *ICPR*) describes in detail (p.24) account for an essential part of the Coaching Psychology programme in Denmark (Spaten & Hansen, 2009). The role plays serve different aspects of learning:

The role plays endeavour their theoretical comprehension in a practical frame; for example, the coaches develop their understanding of coaching from a practical and theoretical point of view. The role plays provide a 'secure zone' for the students to practice and develop their coaching skills, since they are among peers and in a safe environment. The role plays are being supervised, and the learning environment is appreciative, future oriented (AI) and performance enhancing (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2009), not 'error focused'. We learned that it provides the students with an appetite for learning more and improvement of their coaching skills (Spaten, 2010).

The Agenda for Teaching Coaching Psychology at Aalborg University
The modules of coaching psychology at Aalborg University are a comprehensive

course over 18 months. In relation to the 10 core areas in (DATCP) the content of the first and fundamental semester will be shortly outlined below.

1. Fundamental coaching skills – ethics, empathy and awareness.
   This first module gives a historical sketch, and defines coaching psychology (as we hold on to BPS definition cited in Palmer & Whybrow, 2006). Additionally basic coaching skills and ethics, empathy and awareness (Rogers, 1995) in relation to the practice of coaching psychology will be delineated. This module covers core area one and two in (DATCP) (Core 1, 2) plus more.

2. Coaching Psychology: Structure, roles, expectations and feedback.
   The structure of a coaching session from the beginning to the end is outlined and trained. Roles and expectations for coach and coachee are clarified (Core 5, 9). The use of a checklist is introduced as a feedback instrument designed for the peer-learning groups (Spaten et al., 2008).

3. Methods and models in psychological coaching
   Discussion of several coaching psychology traditions, such as psychodynamic coaching, systemic coaching, solution-focused coaching, etc. (Core 6, 7, 8), and of the Scientist-Practitioner Model (Lane & Corrie, 2006) which we stay behind (Core 3). Training of different methods and models, for example, SPACE, etc. (Palmer & Gyllensten, 2008).

4. Client sessions I: Problem definition
   We gather information to obtain a detailed and specific description of the client's problem using essential questions of where, who, what and how. It is an action-reflection-learning module with training individually and in pairs to conceptualise

and distinguish between thoughts, emotions, body and behaviour (Core 5).

5. Client sessions II: Problem analysis
   Students practice in using client data for problem identification and analysis. They are trained to analyse thoughts and emotions and to measure strength and belief (Core 5). The module includes also role-playing and checklist assessment of student's coaching skills.

6. Client sessions III: Goals and coping.
   This module focuses on how to use the collected client data to establish realistic goals for the client and train her problem solving skills. Furthermore, we educate the students in making good homework design (Core 5). Finally we use our checklist to assess the students coaching skills in small groups.

7. Final session: How to maintain new skills.
   To preserve new gained skills we provide work for cognitive reframing, apply lessons from positive psychology, optimistic explanatory style, and the weighting of benefits. Finally the module is supplied by integration of homework exercises and how to sum up experiences and make prospective evaluation.

Final remarks – Core area 4 is covered during a psychology student's Bachelor degree and BA Psych, and is the *one and only* entry to Denmark's graduate psychology programmes. So there will be no teaching coaching psychology to non-psychologists at university. Core area 10 is covered at the next (8th) semester. Moreover, the students at graduate level appear to be more scientifically and personally grounded and prepared for the coaching psychology training (Spaten, 2010).

Conclusion

The important discussion of the development of teaching coaching psychology has now taken its onset and this comment on

(DATCP, *ICPR*) could be viewed as a very first Danish contribution in relation to the 10 core areas of teaching. Four headings has been stretched out: Learning by teaching, Learning by experience, Learning by doing, and Learning by the zone, as well as the agenda for teaching coaching psychology at Aalborg University, Denmark. Viewing how the discussion will develop will be interesting and the knowledge contributing to the best future way of teaching coaching psychology.

Dr Alison Whybrow (i-coach Academy Ltd)
The paper, 'Developing an Agenda for Teaching Coaching Psychology', presents a useful discussion that articulates one possible educational pathway that would suit those wishing to understand the practice of coaching from psychological perspective. As career pathways for coaching psychologists are carved within the respective national professional psychology bodies, the development of a curriculum that supports the emergence of coaching psychologists as a fully recognised area of professional practice is clearly necessary. A revised definition of coaching psychology is offered which defines a mental health boundary for coaching psychologists to be mindful of in their work. This definition firmly places coaching psychology in a non-clinical mould, further removing the medical model from the frame of relevance for practicing coaching psychologists.

The principles presented within this paper are worth a closer look.

First, that the development of coaching psychology has in reality, been an emerging international project. There is much evidence pointing to the international nature of this development. This paper does seem to suggest that greater drawing together around a common definition and a common core curriculum for teaching coaching psychology would be useful. My own view is that maintaining flexibility and allowing diversity is important. Creating something that is too tightly defined is less

likely to be relevant across diverse national contexts. Thus, the definition of coaching psychology offered is incredibly useful, it would be likely to be counterproductive if those involved with developing the profession of coaching psychology felt it important that one definition be adopted by all. A core coaching psychology curriculum is likely to be useful, although, once again, there is a strong argument for local flexibility. Whilst there are perhaps more research papers that outline the efficacy of Cognitive Behavioural Coaching (CBC) as an intervention, I would suggest that we need to proceed with caution. I find it hard to imagine a coaching psychology programme that would not included CBC, however the current research base may not necessarily be due to the efficacy of CBC in comparison to interventions underpinned by other psychological approaches.

Second, that it is appropriate to educate all-comers on postgraduate psychology programmes is again welcomed. There is no reason why people without an undergraduate degree in psychology that qualifies them, for example, for full APS or BPS membership cannot participate fully in education programmes that are designed to give a grounding at a postgraduate level in coaching psychological theory and practice. Separating the educational programme from the qualification route is common in the UK for organisational/occupational psychology programmes. However, the question of what a non-psychologist would then be able to lay claim to would come into focus. National requirements for the regulation and registration of practicing psychologists would clearly be paramount.

Third, that attention is paid to developing the critical thinking skills of coaching psychology practitioners, rather than a 'simple how to' is refreshing. I would build on this further. In my view the application of theory in practice is particularly relevant in order to understand the theory-in-action. Reflective practice, or the informed practi-

tioner approach described in this paper would be a crucial core component. A programme that supports deconstruction and integration so that coaching psychologists with diverse experience can build the skills of reflective practice and life-long learning as part of their development towards professional competence as a psychologist would strengthen both the qualification and the profession.

This is not the end of the debate!

Bob Barbour (Director, People & Culture, Lion Nathan National Foods)
Grant's article calling for discussion on the development of an agenda for teaching coaching psychology provides a welcome stimulus to the development and professionalisation of coaching psychology. As an organisational purchaser of coaching services for over 10 years it has often been challenging, given the plethora of individuals (with very diverse experience, training and educational qualifications) offering their services as coaches, to be confident that the potential coach will do a good job for both the coachees and for the organisation. Some of the prospective coaches often seem to have more in common with the quackery and snake oil salesmen who seemed to abound in the medical field in the 18th and 19th centuries than the professional and ethical 'informed practitioner' which Grant suggests should be the model for coaching psychology.

Our goals as an organisation in seeking a coach to work with one or more of our people are quite simple: we are interested in change and in the achievement of goals. We need coaches who can help individuals to achieve their desired goals, goals which also help organisations to achieve sustainable success.

We ideally look for coaches who can demonstrate that they have successfully applied a researched model in their coaching practice over a number of years, who can support their approach by articulating the related theories and the sources of

evidence, and who appear to embody the constructive and ethical behaviours which increase the likelihood of them being successful change agents. Few meet these criteria but the numbers are slowly increasing. We increasingly seek coaches who have relevant educational qualifications, such as the Masters in Coaching Psychology from Sydney University. Unfortunately this all too often means that we turn to the same small field of qualified people who meet the criteria.

As a result I strongly welcome the establishment and expansion of an educational framework for coaching psychology and support the core concepts, theory and skills approach suggested by Grant. This will not only advance the practice of coaching psychology as Grant suggests, it will also enable purchasers of coaching services to make informed decisions about which coaches to engage and how best to work with them.

I would suggest that in applying coaching psychology to executive and workplace coaching the agenda should be expanded to encompass the work of researchers such as Luthans, Youssef, Avolio, Gardiner and Walumbwa in the field of positive organisational scholarship/positive organisational behaviours, including authentic leadership (Gardiner, Avolio & Walumbwa (2005); Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007)). Insights from this research are beginning to influence the strategies employed by organisations to develop behaviours and capabilities which they believe add value. An understanding of this field would help coaches to gain important contextual insights on the role of executive and workplace coaching from an organisational strategy perspective.

I would also recommend that the role of organisational clients and related issues of aligned goals and confidentiality also be included in the agenda. The approach suggested by Sherman and Freas (2004) of triangular meetings to kick-off and close out coaching engagements has been used, for example, by my organisation for a number of years. These meetings ensure that the coach, coachee and organisational client (usually the coachee's leader and a member of the People & Culture (HR) team) have a common understanding of the coaching process and of the developmental goals. They also enable the coach to gain some further insight into potential systemic issues within the workplace which may impact the coachee's development goals.

Christopher Rauen (Chairman of the Board of the German Federal Association Coaching Association) and **Dr Julia Eversmann** (Department of Psychology, University of Osnabrück, Germany)

Coaching is cross-disciplinary and it is possible to learn coaching psychology without becoming a psychologist. We absolutely agree with these statements and with the majority of statement proposed by the main paper. Just as well we do consider postgraduate studies in coaching psychology as necessary and reasonable, since they adapt to the diversity in the coaching field. Notwithstanding it is unquestionable from our perspective as coaches, lecturer and chair of the German Federal Association of Executive Coaching (DBVC) that there should be a standard teaching agenda in coaching psychology to guarantee a high quality in the professional field. However, prior to designing such a teaching agenda for coaching psychology it is certainly more than required to define several key issues we are going to highlight below.

Accurate definition of coaching psychology
Coaching psychology is applied to different areas such as athletic coaching, life coaching, health coaching, business coaching or executive coaching. Before we start discussing a full range agenda it is necessary to discuss whether or not it would make sense to incorporate all areas of applied coaching. In accordance with the author we suggest that the first step should be to further define the already existing defi-

nition of coaching psychology and its target areas. As the author mentioned, early definitions were aimed at distinguishing coaching psychology from the work of counseling and clinical psychologists. This is necessary considering the fact that mental health issues are exposed in coaching processes quite often. Concerning the development of a teaching agenda the focus on delineation would be to narrow. Moreover a working definition of coaching psychology should encircle and refine the aims and principles of Coaching Psychology.

Coaching psychologist or psychological coach?

Coaching psychology is cross-disciplinary and not directed solely towards psychologists. This raises the question of the job title which should be gained at the end of the postgraduate course in coaching psychology. Coaching psychologist or psychological coach? Besides semantic problems this might also entail professional challenge. Can a non-psychologist become a coaching psychologist? What does it imply for a teaching agenda? Concerning their professional and scientific knowledge should a coaching psychologist be on a par with a clinical or a personnel psychologist? From our point of view it would be an illusion to assume that psychologists could lay exclusive claim to authority in the coaching discipline. It would also be absurd in light of the cross disciplinary understanding of coaching psychology. A pragmatic consequence for a teaching agenda would be, for example, a common trunk where psychological and scientific basics are taught.

Individual learning

Conceptualising coaching psychology as cross disciplinary postgraduate studies individual learning should be one of the teaching methods. Coaching itself is considered to be a tool which focuses on individual learning and processes of insight gained by changes of perspectives. In coherence with its self-conception a teaching agenda of coaching psychology on the one hand should include individualised modules due

to its cross disciplinary character. Individualised modules might compensate different levels of entry requirements the students will bring with them. MBA alumni might have a different precognition than psychologists do. Therefore, a modular nature would come up to the individual interests, knowledge and professional background. In addition individual learning means that the students should experience the process of coaching themselves from the perspective as coaches as well as clients. One way to realise this could be for instance an obligatory supervision which accompanies the learning process. However, supervision is not sufficient to ensure an individualised learning of coaching psychology.

Finally we would recommend to the overall nature of such a teaching agenda. We suggest a cross-disciplinary postgraduate course in coaching psychology with an accurately defined range of application. Different levels of entry requirements should be accommodated by providing a common trunk of basic psychological and scientific knowledge. After passing through the common trunk the possibility to specialise in a specific application area as executive coaching, health coaching or life coaching should be offered. This could be realised by a modular nature of the teaching agenda, which should include teaching methods as individual learning and supervision.

However, before rushing into detail several questions have to be answered concerning aims, principles and benchmarks of coaching psychology. A teaching agenda of coaching psychology has to meet the challenge of incorporating both the advantages of a postgraduate course and the advantages of its praxis.

Travis J. Kemp, PhD (Managing Director, The Teleran Group Pty. Ltd and Adjunct Senior Lecturer, Coaching Psychology Unit, University of Sydney)
As the discipline of coaching psychology continues to develop, the author has further

stimulated this development with what arguably may be a pivotal and defining discourse for this emerging field of practice.

To date, as the author rightfully highlights, there has been little attention committed to expanding our understanding of the teaching of coaching psychology. Aside from the commendable curriculum design and delivery efforts of a selected group of practicing academics and coaching psychologists, little understanding has been gleaned about the Androgogy (the science of adult learning; Knowles, 1984), or the contingent phenomenology necessary for the development of efficacious, ethical and professional practitioners of coaching.

Indeed, the author hints at the many and complex challenges associated with teaching coaching psychology to a diverse population of non-psychologists, generalist psychologists and specialist-psychologists. However, of particular interest to me are the broader issues of curriculum and faculty. As a registered secondary school and adult Educator, in addition to being a registered and endorsed Organisational, Counselling and Sport and Exercise Psychologist, I see the potential absence of expert input from the fields of education, teaching and androgogical science within this emergent dialogue. Indeed, the common assumption that one's extensive knowledge of and experience within, a specialised field of research constitutes adequate credentials to endorse one's ability to teach novice or developing practitioners is, to many professional educators, nonsensical at best.

Specifically, three core challenges face those who teach coaching psychology.

What should we teach?

Within the potential for a crowded and demanding curriculum, what subject matter must be taught, in what proportion and for what purpose within coaching psychology programmes? Are we producing competent beginning practitioners with a 'basic technique' of coaching delivery or are we establishing a contextual foundation of

knowledge on which to build practical skills within supervised practice 'on the job'? Or, are we indeed attempting to provide a blend of these? If we are creating a 'learning laboratory' within the curriculum, how is this being purposefully managed to ascertain and meet the level of learner?

Like all curricula, this will continue to evolve and develop and our best intentions will continue to stretch the boundaries of what 'must' be learnt versus what 'could' be learnt. In the present paper under review, the author has argued for core subject matter including evidence-based approaches and mental health issues in coaching. However, the emergent and parallel process of personal insight and growth and professional development as a practitioner is also vitally important. The importance of introspection and self-understanding in the practice of coaching has been highlighted previously (Kemp, 2006) and would appear of primary importance to achieving an appropriately rounded coaching psychology curriculum. Simply, coaching psychology educators must continue to strive to achieve balance within the curriculum between content and process, knowledge and mastery, experience and understanding.

How should it be taught and by whom?

Clearly, the extensive body of evidence-based knowledge that underpins the field of education and educational psychology must be applied to the teaching of coaching psychology. The extent of this knowledge necessitates teachers of coaching psychology to not only familiarise themselves with the diverse range of teaching and learning methods and processes that exist, but by also progressively developing their formal knowledge, teaching expertise and curriculum design capability to provide the most effective learning environments for their students. For those amongst us who are researchers and practitioners, we must ask ourselves if we have the requisite understanding of androgogical methodologies and curriculum design to effectively facilitate

progressive and effective learning experiences for our students. Whilst this question may be confronting for some, it should not be seen as an affront to our existing faculty, rather a call for our own reflective and introspective practice to take a new developmental turn.

The incorporation of scientist-practitioner and metacognitive (Flavell, 1976) frameworks within existing teaching methods is vital to delivering introspective, ethical and reflective beginning practitioners of coaching psychology.

To whom should it be taught?

What is taught, how and by whom must be followed by a robust dialogue and examination of the final question, to whom? Curriculum structure and design may be markedly different for those completing a post-psychologist registration sequence than a student completing a postgraduate specialisation following a generalist or alternate profession undergraduate programme. What is achievable from learning, development, skill acquisition and mastery may be significantly different as may be the level of competence of practitioners to work at various levels across the mental health continuum from floundering to flourishing.

Indeed, as a core element of this dialogue, the opportunity to explore the creation of a 'para-professional' in coaching psychology may add rich opportunities and insights into the characteristics that distinguish coaching psychologists from non-psychologist coaches. Whilst Stober and Grant's (2006) eloquent argument for an informed-practitioner approach to professional coaching may admirably meet the needs of the non-psychologist coach, is this adequate for the practice of coaching psychology by registered psychologists? By actively embracing and engaging with this dialogue we also serve to enrich the philosophical foundations of our emerging discipline.

Coaching psychology is uniquely positioned to lead the development of both research and practice in the broader coaching industry. By building on our professional foundations and expertise in human growth, learning, development and change, we find ourselves in a position of privileged responsibility to continue to raise the quality, standards and practice of all coaching practitioners, regardless of their professional foundations. By deepening and extending our emerging body of knowledge and our methods of imparting and sharing this knowledge to beginning practitioners, we will also continue to build on the evidence-based foundations that guide our profession as psychologists.

Miguel García Sáiz (Social Psychology Dept, Complutense University of Madrid, Spain) and **Juan Carlos de la Osa Serna** (General Manager, Leading Change)
Coaching processes involve brief personal encounters between a coach and his clients/coachees, as individuals or as a team. The way these relationships progress have implications for both of them, for the close environment of the clients and, of course, for the overall coaching process, whatever it is the kind of coaching we're talking about (executive coaching, corporate coaching, life coaching, and so on). So, every good coach should be conscious of, and able to optimise, the psychosocial variables affecting the whole coaching process. In this sense, social psychology offers a well-grounded body of knowledge, both from the theoretical and the empirical perspectives (e.g. Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2010; Baron, Branscombe & Byrne, 2009; DeLamater & Myers, 2011; Hogg & Vaughan, 2008; Myers, 2010).

The coach has to identify and manage in a proper way the personal and cultural diversity of his/her clients, and must be able to work with his/her own and clients' beliefs, values and attitudes.

From an interpersonal point of view, processes like social perception and social cognition (implications of *non-verbal communication, attribution* or the development of

personal impressions; the use of *categories, schemas, stereotypes* or *heuristics*) may condition in a decisive way social interactions (and coaching is one of them). Thus, the coach should master the competencies required to manage them through the coaching sessions regarding the goals. Not to mention the need to cope with those factors and characteristics that bring about *prejudice* and *discrimination* from *diversity* in race, gender, age, sexual orientation, physical attractiveness…of the coachees.

It's also important for the coach and for the coaching situation to consider different factors associated with *social influence*. Some of them are related to the 'social structure' of coaching situation: coach and clients' *roles* (*prescribed, perceived* and *performed* by both of them), the *status* assigned to those roles and the established *norms*, as well as *conformity* processes. Other ones refer to different kinds of *persuasion* or even variables involved in *interpersonal attraction* processes which can facilitate or alter the coaching relation.

At a different level, team coaching demands the coach the mastering of knowledge and skills from *Group Psychology*. Thus, there are several key processes derived from group dynamics, specially important in teams' performance and outputs: *group composition effects; group structure; group motivation (social facilitation* and *social loafing)* performance oriented; *group polarisation* and *group thinking* in group decision making; *normalisation, conformity* and *innovation* in intragroup influence; *leadership; intergroup relations.*

Talking about executive or corporative coaching, knowledge and skills from *Organisational Psychology* are essential: *organisational culture* and *climate; organisational socialisation; power, management* and *leadership;* internal and external *communication; decision making; conflict management* (e.g. Drake, 2008; Furnham, 2005).

Undoubtedly, all of these areas from *Social Psychology* enrich coaches' education and training. They provide them an important theoretical and empirical base developed through decades of research, which

can substantially improve coaching processes. We considered this view when we proposed a postgraduate coaching programme at the Faculty of Psychology of Complutense University of Madrid (Spain), together with consulting firm Leading Change, and so we gave them an appropriate space between the contents of the course.

Dr Siobhain O'Riordan (Coaching Psychology Unit, City University London, UK; Chair, Society for Coaching Psychology) To further establish and underpin the professional pathway and routes towards becoming a coaching psychologist an appropriate educational and teaching framework is needed. Currently there is an abundance of providers offering courses related to coaching, coaching psychology and/or the psychology of coaching. This can often create confusion for the potential buyer or student attempting to select the best way forward to meet their individual or organisational learning and development requirements. Also it is important not to overlook the needs of the coachee in this debate.

The key issue for me in this discussion is whether or not the postgraduate study of coaching psychology should be open to all. Two key questions this perhaps raises are: *how important is having a psychology degree for those wishing to work within the practice and/or science of coaching psychology?* And taken a step further *does this proposition diminish the importance of a psychology degree in relation to other specialisms within psychology such as health or sports and exercise?* The second question is, of course, outside of the scope of this response.

As highlighted in the article by Grant some university programmes are now including a coaching psychology module or component at undergraduate level. Having had the opportunity to lecture on psychology and coaching psychology modules within a university context (as well as deliver training at a graduate and postgraduate level on coaching, coaching psychology and psychological coaching programmes) my

view is that the main psychological approaches, methods, issues and debates taught at an undergraduate level are both relevant to and inform the field of coaching psychology. Indeed it would at face value appear to be difficult to make a decision on how we might cherry pick content from an undergraduate psychology programme to develop an offering that adequately covers the principles, key skills and learning outcomes if the route for coaching psychologists commenced at a postgraduate only level. In a nutshell perhaps this is where the differentiation for me takes place between coaching psychology and psychological coaching, in that the latter is those embarking upon their studies and training at a postgraduate level.

Molly Nicholson (Psychologist and coaching consultant to a major Australian bank)
More than the transfer of knowledge
The value of the teaching agenda proposed in this paper is the emphasis placed on the cultivation of skills not typically encountered in routine 'how to coach' training programmes. While coaches need to have an array of theories, tools and techniques they can draw on, it is more important that they can critically evaluate, and thoughtfully apply, these theories, tools and techniques. Accordingly, in creating an agenda for teaching coaching psychology, we must be mindful to develop practitioners who are skilled in problem solving and critical thinking, and who can evaluate and utilise research to meet the needs of their clients. I propose that what is needed is an education that is not solely about the transfer of knowledge, but one which also develops in students the ability to think critically about knowledge. Accordingly, I strongly support the inclusion of 'foundations of an evidence-based approach to practice' and 'professional models of practice' as core areas of study in coaching psychology. I am supportive of the 'informed practitioner' model proposed in this article, however, note that the coaching industry must still ensure

that there is a sufficient research base from which practitioners can draw.

Think beyond the initial qualification
The following two questions are key for me when meeting with a potential coaching provider: (1) How does the coach continue to learn and develop?; and (2) What kind of supervision is the coach engaged in?

It is crucial for coaches (psychologists and non-psychologists) to take a lifelong approach to their learning and development. Beyond the initial qualification, coaches must be committed to continuing to develop themselves through reading widely, attending professional development activities such as workshops and conferences, and engaging in supervision. Accordingly, an education in coaching psychology must aim to encourage in students a belief in the importance of lifelong learning. This represents a challenge for educators as this requires the cultivation of a specific mindset.

Key to the selection of ongoing development activities is a coach's honest, realistic and critical reflection upon their current skills, experience, and expertise. As noted in the article, coaching is cross-disciplinary, and I encourage coaches to think broadly about the different bodies of knowledge (e.g. education, business, philosophy) that could inform their practice.

Understanding context is crucial
It is imperative that we recognise the importance of the coachee's context. I concur with the author that specialised areas of coaching practice (e.g. executive coaching) require specialised knowledge. I encourage those who wish to work within specialised areas of practice to reflect on what knowledge they need to acquire to effectively meet the needs of their clients. With executive coaching, what comes to mind for me is organisational knowledge (e.g. organisational structures, systems and processes, organisational power and politics), business acumen (e.g. current business trends, issues and events) and leadership.

Is coaching the right intervention?

In this article it is proposed that we need to develop in coaches the ability to determine which coaching methodology is most appropriate for the specific situation at hand. I agree, but propose that there is an important step before this: determining whether coaching is the right intervention for the client. This has implications for an education in coaching psychology – students need to explore the similarities and differences between coaching and other developmental approaches (e.g. mentoring and training). Coaches need to be able to work with the individual (and the sponsoring organisation where appropriate) to determine the client's needs and explore whether coaching is indeed the right intervention. This issue also touches on ethical principles – as it implies that a coach needs to have the best interests of the client in mind, and be willing to potentially put these needs before their own financial interests.

Conclusions
Michael Cavanagh & Stephen Palmer

The question definition – who are we as coaching psychologists and what is it that we offer the world, is perhaps the crucial question to grapple with as we think of setting agendas for the training of coaching psychologists. However, it is not an easy question, particularly when we place coaching psychology in the context of an increasingly complex world.

One of the features that makes coaching such an important and popular intervention is its ability to work with emergent issues in new and innovative ways (Cavanagh, 2006, Grant & Cavanagh, 2010). The adaptive quality of the coaching conversation, and its ability to incorporate cross-discliplinary insights and understandings, is what gives coaching its unique responsiveness to the emerging needs of our clients (Cavanagh & Grant, 2010).

The coaching engagement is itself a complex adaptive system, and is ideally suited to work in situations where ongoing, iterative processes are needed to meet the needs of clients as they unfold in unpredictable and novel ways (Cavanagh, 2006). The challenge for coaching psychology is how to remain flexible, and responsive, while integrating understandings drawn from a range of disciplines and practices, and all the while retaining the rigour of practice and reflection we hold to be important as psychologists. This is no small challenge, and one for which there are few role models.

This challenge raises questions about the status and applicability of an evidence base in coaching (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006). What does evidence-based practice mean as we work with clients on new and unique issues? What does professional practice look like as we adapt what we know to on-off interventions? The common understanding of evidence-based practice, with its assumptions of predictability and linear causality, struggles in the context of modern systems understandings. This has significant impacts for our understanding of what coaching psychology brings to the world, and for the nature of professional practice.

Similarly, as can be seen in the contributions of several of our commentators, the model of education we chose will be intimately related to the way that we understand ourselves and our relation to this complex world. What place do top-down information transfer models of education have in a modern coaching curriculum? Is development about knowing more, knowing how, or a knowing that is able to encompass and integrate more of the world (making meaning). The value we place on experience, and the types of pedagogical processes we employ will depend on our answers to the questions of who are we and what is the nature of our offering to the world.

It is hard to discuss the teaching of coaching psychology in isolation from the developing profession, accreditation of psychology programmes, state registration of psychologists and the service end-users. Any

profession, whether its accountancy, nursing, psychotherapy or psychology, is legally and possibly culturally bound or constrained (or liberated) by the country or state in which it is practised. The commentators highlighted some of the issues involved. For example, in South Africa Industrial and Organisational Psychology is recognised as an independent registration category whereas in the UK the Health Professions Council (HPC) has registration for Occupational Psychologists. And the other titles such as Industrial Psychologist are not protected in the UK. (Currently anybody can call themselves a coaching psychologist or psychologist in the UK including non-psychologists as long as they do not use a protected title or imply that they qualified to use a protected title.) Therefore, the development within a country of a profession or in this case a sub-discipline or domain of an existing profession such as psychology and coaching psychology respectively will be influenced by the existing systems that are often very resistant to change. Unlike coaching, psychology in many countries is already a licensed or a registered profession and this is very likely to impact upon how coaching psychology as a professional area of practice will develop in any particular country. In the UK this is likely to mean that non-psychologists will be unable to receive a 'coaching psychology' qualification award from attending BPS or HPC accredited coaching psychology courses as historical structure and regulations impact upon the present even if students attend the same training programme. Like the other psychological sub-disciplines, coaching psychology may be defined differently in different countries too, adapting to the local societal needs, culture and legal requirements. Coaching psychology will need to address similar, yet different challenges, that counselling psychology has faced with many accrediting professional bodies and training programmes in counselling/psychotherapy in existence and a totally independent accredited route for the training of psychologists.

We can take the coaching out of coaching psychology but not the psychology out of the registration of coaching psychologists and this may impact upon what is taught on accredited training programmes.

Thankfully, one trap we can avoid, as we attempt to answer or ponder these questions, is the trap that says we have to have one answer to this question that holds true now and ever after. If we live in a dynamic and unfolding world, the question of who we are can be dynamic and unfolding. Without doubt this raises tensions and ambiguities that we do not have to face with a static orthodox definition of coaching psychology. However, as history and science tell us – the greatest discoveries are made when we turn toward the tension, dilemma and paradox. If we can stand within this ambiguity, we will discover who we are in the unfolding conversation.

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Responses to international commentary on the development of teaching coaching psychology

Anthony M. Grant

The international coaching psychology community is turning its attention to the development of an agenda for teaching coaching psychology. Discussion about the teaching of coaching psychology will occasion the international coaching psychology community to reflect and possibly redefine itself, its boundaries and its relationship with the broader coaching industry as well as its and its relationship to the boarder psychological enterprise. Such a process may be challenging, but essential as an agenda for the development of coaching psychology emerges.

Keywords: *Coaching psychology; teaching coaching psychology; coach training; evidence-based coaching.*

I AM DELIGHTED that there is overwhelming international agreement on the need to turn our collective attention to the development of an agenda for the teaching of coaching psychology, and I thank the various authors for their positive and thoughtful responses. As the international nature of the commentaries indicate, coaching psychology has travelled a long way in the past 10 or 11 years. However, the purposeful development of a teaching agenda may well raise more questions than answers, and the respondents have highlighted many of these. Such questions (and I have outlined a few below) will be challenging. Some of these questions will strike to the heart of what it means to be a psychologist in this day and age. Certainly, discussion about the teaching of coaching psychology will occasion the international coaching psychology community to reflect and possibly redefine itself, its boundaries and its relationship with the broader coaching industry.

Definitions with flexibility and consistency

I wholeheartedly agree with the idea that a certain flexibility in delineating the boundaries and definition of coaching psychology and the content of teaching programmes is important. But at the same time we do need a measure of consistency so that we all have a broad common understanding at local and global levels of what we mean by 'coaching psychology'. I would suggest that definitions do not necessarily cast concepts in stone, rather they can provide a framework around which ongoing discussions can take place, and of course definitions provide an important platform for the operalisation of concepts. This is a vital touchstone in a discipline such as coaching that frequently operates in complex ambiguous spaces where coaches need to be flexible and adaptive, and such a touchstone is also critical as we continue to develop the discipline of coaching psychology and continue to contribute to the broader coaching industry.

However, if we are truly concerned with the development of both the coaching industry (i.e. coaches who are not psychologists) *and* the development of coaching psychology as a sub-discipline of psychology we are faced here with a real dilemma.

The dilemma of development

Many would argue that a level of personal maturity and life/work experience is an important part of the foundation on which a coaching career can be built. Indeed, the average student in the Masters of Coaching Psychology or Organisational Coaching programmes at the University of Sydney is a

mid-career professional (who is not a psychologist) with some considerable leadership or management experience; with prior exposure to coaching either as a coach or a coachee; who is looking to further develop their theoretical frameworks and practical skills in coaching and coaching psychology, and this mature-age, mid-career non-psychologist professional demographic is representative of the coaching industry in general (Grant & Zackon, 2004).

This is not to say that those in their early 20s who have just finished an undergraduate degree in psychology cannot make good coaches or coaching psychologists. Rather as yet there is no clearly defined or commonplace route by which young psychology undergraduates can undergo the postgraduate training and the internship necessary for them to develop the practical life/work experience and development needed to operate as a professional coaching psychologist.

Further, at present, psychologists are not seen by some sections of the market as having a wide range of uniquely valuable skills within the coaching industry (Bono et al., 2009); non-psychologists tend to be prized just as highly, if not more highly in some arenas than psychologist coaches by the purchasers of coaching services. How are we going to deal with these issues?

This question then becomes a poignant one of how a coaching psychologist is different from a coach who has completed a masters degree in the psychology of coaching or organisational coaching, but who is not a psychologist? What are the skills and competencies that distinguish these two groups? These are difficult questions – but questions that must be addressed at some point.

Moving forward

We also need to push further for formal recognition of coaching psychology within established professional bodies such as the Australian Psychological Society (APS), the British Psychological Society (BPS) or government bodies such as the Health Professions Council (HPC).

Given the convoluted politics of professions, the conservatism of university psychology departments, the measured bureaucracy of government and regulators, and the fact that most people involved in the development of coaching psychology do so by generously volunteering their personal time, official recognition is probably some considerable distance away. However, I believe that APS, BPS and Government HPC routes by which coaching psychology can be formally recognised will be important in the long term if coaching psychology is to continue its growth, and that the development of an agenda for teaching coaching psychology needs to take this into account. The skills, knowledge and competencies outlined in the BPS Discussion Paper on Subject Benchmarks for Coaching Psychology (BPS, 2006) provide a good starting point. We will need to consider such issues as we move forward in this debate.

Who teaches – and how?

Some respondents raised issues related to the teaching of coaching psychology and the need to ensure solid teaching practices. Whilst I completely agree with the call to utilise androgogical methodologies to ensure optimal learning, the issue of teaching lecturers to be effective educators in university settings is not unique to coaching psychology. It is astounding that in most universities little or no attention is paid to training lecturers to teach. It is assumed that the acquisition of a PhD is in itself sufficient preparation to teach. Indeed, many kindergarten staff have more training in teaching than university lecturers! I would like to think that as coaches we can bring fresh perspectives to university teaching, incorporating coaching methodologies into our teaching practice.

Interesting conversations ahead

As we jointly develop an agenda for teaching coaching psychology we will necessarily define and then redefine the nature of coaching psychology, and those new under-

Anthony M. Grant

standings will in turn shape the teaching agenda and the way coaching psychology is taught, recognised and practiced. It is true that coaching psychology is well on the way to developing a coherent area of research and practice. It is true that we now need to develop and formalise a body of teachable knowledge that can sustain and advance this new and vibrant area of behavioural science. It is also true that in doing so we will need to explore who we are, our place within the boarder psychological enterprise and our relationship to the coaching industry in general.

In these uncertain but exciting times, as an agenda for teaching coaching psychology emerges, one thing is clear – there will be some very interesting conversations on the road ahead!

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Book Review

Reviewed by Carmel O'Neill

COACHING and coaching psychology's future, to a certain extent, is related to other disciplines. Historically, it might be said that coaching has been an interdisciplinary eclectic field. It has been built from theory, research and practice in adult education, social psychology, sports psychology, therapy, clinical and other fields. The concept of formulation has a long history in clinical and therapeutic contexts. Corrie and Lane's premise here is that formulation has a significant role to play across all forms of psychological practice including coaching. For practitioners who work with client's stories, they position formulation as a co-constructed narrative between the client and the practitioner. Clients' stories are created as a way of exploring and managing issues. Stories have a beginning (the situation), a middle (decisions; options) and an end (actions; outcomes). Formulation is understood here as a way of generating possible solutions through creative and challenging thinking and rich and powerful questioning.

The challenge for the practitioner lies in honouring the client's stories while supporting and facilitating change through psychological insights. The shared framework for the client's narrative and learning journey is centred around establishing the purpose (of the work) the perspectives (which informs it) and the process (used to ensure effective outcomes).

Corrie and Lane's book, *Constructing Stories, Telling Tales: A Guide to Formulation in Applied Psychology,* is a comprehensive overview of the concept of formulation in all its complexities. The purpose of their book is to serve as a guide to understanding the systematic and appropriate use of formulation to applied psychological practices. To facilitate this purpose, the authors have built a formulation framework within which practitioners can consider tailoring to a particular context.

The book is divided into four parts: (1) Formulation; An introduction to key debates and a framework for developing a systematic approach; (2) Working with purpose, perspective and process: elaborating the framework to enhance your approach; (3) The many facets of formulation: an interdisciplinary perspective; and (4) Implications for the future.

Throughout the book there are discussion questions which could be used in a variety of contexts or just treated as important questions to reflect on. There are exercises, at the end of the Introduction and the first five chapters, which are designed to help practitioners to reflect on the relevant issues and concepts in both theoretical and practical circumstances. Exercises seven and eight follow later chapters (Chapter 15 and the Conclusion). These graded and thought-provoking questions may require practitioners to go beyond what is explicitly described in the text to being able to generate, for themselves, new purposes, perspectives and processes.

In Part 3 a number of professionals have contributed to the discussion and exploration of formulation and what it has meant to each guest contributor to work with purpose, perspective and process in their own disciplines.

Chapter 1 is a chapter of Introductions – to the concept of formulation; to its historical context and to some of the issues, debates and challenges inherent in this complex task of formulation.

Chapter 2 provides a rationale for using formulation as a means for building a shared framework within which rich, coherent, collaborative and accurate thinking provides possible solutions. The uniqueness of the client's narrative begins with the authors' distinction between a 'story' and 'a tale'. For their purposes here, a 'story' is described as a compilation of a number of tales interlaced to produce a central theme. In contrast, a 'tale' is defined as a single explanatory account (for example, a particular theory or a single morality tale that directs us to action).

The first step in the co-construction of the client's story begins with identifying the purpose. According to Corrie and Lane (2010) there are four essential elements underpinning the purpose of the work: (1) Understanding the question you wish to explore; (2) The expectations of stakeholders; (3) Clarifying stakeholders's roles; and (4) Appreciating the wider context. By closely examining these elements, the reader is told that formulation thus becomes a 'particular type of story' (p.21) with its own specific features qualified by the particular context from which it takes its meaning. Taken together, these elements are said to create the boundaries for the practitioner's work. Consideration of such questions (Who owns the formulation? Which formulation will be more effective for the client?) underpins the importance of recognising that the story belongs to the client. The co-constructed journey begins by articulating and recognising choices made. Although this is not a 'how-to' book, Corrie and Lane have provided pathways to effective formulations by illustrating how the Purpose, Perspectives, and Process model (Corrie & Lane, 2010) may be one useful framework for this task.

Part 2 elaborates the framework (purpose, perspective and process) in greater detail. Chapter 3 highlights the importance of acknowledging dominant prevailing levels of influence that affect the practitioner's definition of purpose. These local, national and global contexts are said to have far-reaching implications for the professional practitioner and for the client's needs (Corrie & Lane, 2010). The chapter concludes with a useful exercise that may orientate the reader to critically reflect on defining the professional purpose of one's work.

Perspectives (beliefs, models, meaning, values and ethics) and their role in the construction of the client's stories are described in considerable detail in Chapter 4. The five perspectives in this chapter are classed as 'tales' since it is asserted here that their inherent assumptions will have both positive and negative implications for the client. Practitioners' perspectives, their professional backgrounds, and tacit knowledge and beliefs on human nature, all influence the approach to the enquiry (Corrie & Lane, 2010). Clients too, bring their own perspectives. Finally, some perspectives are prescribed by the context itself. Taken together these perspectives will inform the journey undertaken. What is important is recognising 'which' perspective and 'why' and acknowledging the consequences and implications of using one particular perspective. These five perspectives: (1) formulation derived from diagnostic classification; (2) the formulation of the scientist-practitioner; (3) formulation as a theoretically-driven account; (4) strategic formulation; and (5) formulation and its role as a means of social control, and some of the dilemmas and implications attributed to them, are laid out concisely in this chapter.

Having identified the purpose and perspective, the process structures (How will we get there?) are put in place. In Chapter 5, and following the formulation framework, the authors lay out three approaches which they assert will facilitate the process of enquiry: Story Motif (conversational frame); DEFINE (scientist-practitioner frame); and Canonical story structure (narrative frame). The assertion is also made that client facilitation begins with the practitioner's understanding of the very nature of stories. While coaching from a narrative perspective is

clearly described here (Drake, chapter 11) it would have been useful to have read how the practitioner might facilitate the client's understanding of stories and their meaning-making. Notwithstanding the assumption that 'human beings have an innate tendency for story schema' (p133) some stories may be difficult to share or articulate. A reference here to potential pitfalls associated with developmental coaching, from the perspectives of both the client and the practitioner (for example, Bachkirova, 2007; Laske, 1999b) would also have been beneficial. Chapter 5 concludes with questions designed to help the reader conduct a personal audit across all three different story processes.

Part 3: For the purpose of growing our vocabulary of (and our perspectives on) formulation the authors invited guest contributions from different professions and perspectives. In Chapter 6, the authors not only introduce these different approaches to formulation but identify a number of recurring themes which they ask the reader to consider in their own reading of the chapters. These are said to underpin 'a coherent "thread" between the different approaches to formulation' (p148). These (themes) are: (1) the theme that the story and the context are inseparable; (2) the theme that the responsibility lies with the practitioner in undertaking formulation with the client; and questions of; (3) what makes a good story; (4) who owns the story; (5) what function does the story serve; and (6) being able and willing to accept the uncertainty that human endeavours bring. These themes are discussed at length in Chapter 15 and provide a useful review to the complexities surrounding formulation.

Michael Sheath (Chapter 7) highlights the dilemmas facing the practitioner when working with 'individuals who may be difficult to like' (p.172). In his work with child sex offenders, Sheath argues that formulation, if it has to have any value, must be grounded in scientific rigour but coupled with humanistic engagement. In the case of

children at risk of exclusion, Peggy Gosling (Chapter 8) explores formulation in the light of her work and describes how formulation and the Common Assessment Framework have succeeded in highlighting the analytic process where evidence was linked to both purpose and perspective.

Formulation is explored from a cognitive-behaviour therapy perspective by David Leigh-Smith (Chapter 9). Here, Leigh-Smith draws attention to the apparent elusiveness of the concept of formulation within a cognitive-behaviour therapy approach. Some of these reasons already resonate with Corrie and Lane's (2010) treatment of this issue (for example, see Chapter 1). Leigh-Smith describes the role supervisors might play by using formulation as a monitor of progress.

Existential formulations are discussed in Chapter 10 by Michael Worrell. The approach to formulation here is one which is removed from descriptive and explanatory accounts to one of 'nuanced descriptive understanding' (p.223) (existential therapeutic approach). This approach places formulation as an aspect of the total client-therapist relationship. Worrell offers a number of possibilities for existential formulations.

From a coaching perspective, David Drake (Chapter 11) stresses the importance engaging with coachees from a narrative approach to formulation. Working from this narrative base and with 'a mindful way of being' (p.243) the coaching engagement becomes a dynamic and co-created discovery process. The coachee discovers new possibilities and new stories.

In Chapter 12, and as a writer, Bryan Rostron focuses on the scope of fiction – and the importance of acknowledging that there is 'no one way to tell a story' (p.262). The story's perspective will have implications for the story's characters, the kind of information provided, the very nature of the story and the story's readers. Formulation, in this context, should not be defined by the precision, the formality or methodological constraints of the professional practitioners.

Simon Callow (Chapter 13) describes the task facing actors when formulating character (s) for their performances. The actor looks through the available evidence for logic and meaning and a sense of coherence related to the character to be portrayed. It is from this formulation that the story of the character is constructed and played out on the stage.

The subject of successful character interpretation is one of several topics discussed in Chapter 14. The authors, in conversation with the actors Prunella Scales and Timothy West, discuss the issues which allow the actor to act with confidence, belief, integrity and in service to the writer and the audience. Callow (Chapter 13), Scales and West, as actors, describe how issues such as formal and informal research, textual and contextual boundaries and audience perceptions require considerable navigational skills if the story's integrity is to be maintained. Corrie and Lane (2010) have pointed to similar dilemmas in the practitioner's work with the client's stories.

Creating stories for complex times (Chapter 15) highlights the importance of being able to balance the professional needs of the practitioner while allowing for the emergent and transformative story of the client to develop. Formulation is also an iterative process in which the practitioner's own story can be created through learning greater reflective skills (Alan Durrant, Epilogue).

There is a limited amount of literature available dealing with the concept of formulation. This book covering formulation and its practical application is, therefore, very welcome.

For this reader a single 'tale' emerges: 'to mindfully and artfully work with what emerges – within the practitioner, the client and the field – as the client's stories are narrated' (Drake, 2008b, in Corrie & Lane, 2010, p.342).

This book will be a valuable addition to a reflective thinking tool kit.

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1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology: UK Event

Jennifer Liston-Smith, Haley Lancaster & Yvonne McAdam

Hosted by the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) and held at City University, London, 14–15 December, 2010.

THE British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology hosted 280 delegates in London in December, to launch the 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology, which continues around the world during 2011 and 2012.

Dr David Drake, USA/Australia

The congress developed as a consequence of collaborations between global coaching psychology bodies in: UK, Australia, Denmark, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

The UK event covered wide-ranging themes in coaching psychology, including working with complexity and change; wisdom; adult development; leadership; health, well-being, happiness and motivation; diversity and sustainability; coaching psychology models and psychometrics; supervision and corporate case studies.

Prof. Alex Linley, UK

Vicky Ellam-Dyson, UK; Congress Chair for UK Event

An award for Distinguished Contribution to Coaching Psychology was presented to Dr Siobhain O'Riordan, with special commendations to Dr Tatiana Bachkirova and Dr Jonathan Passmore. Keynote speakers included Julie Allan, Prof. Michael Cavanagh, Dr David Drake, Prof. David Lane, Dr Ho Law, Prof. Alex Linley, Dr Siobhain O'Riordan, Prof. Stephen Palmer, Dr Jonathan Passmore, Dr Alison Whybrow and Peter Zarris.

Delegate feedback suggests participants particularly valued the blend of rigorous evidence-based practice and research with an upbeat, accessible, open-minded atmosphere.

Prof. Stephen Palmer, UK; Co-chair of Congress Scientific Committee

A world café event during the closing stages enabled face-to-face international dialogue to round off the event. Conversations explored taking coaching psychology forward in the global context with topics such as professional standards, visibility of psychology in the field of coaching, and defining the strengths of coaching psychology. Giving symbolic shape to the intention to 'think globally, act locally', the café summary was handed to Swedish delegates to continue the conversation around the world.

Prof. David Lane, UK; Dr Michael Cavanagh, Australia

Further planned events in 2011 are: South Africa/Southern Hemisphere event, May; Ireland, June; Sweden, September; and Spain, October. Dates to be confirmed in 2012 are: Netherlands, January; Australia and New Zealand, February; and Italy, May. Israel and also the Nordic countries are planning events with dates to be confirmed.

Anders Myszak, Denmark

Dr Kristina Gyllensten, Sweden

Prof. Stephen Palmer and Prof. Michael Cavanagh, the UK and Australian Co-ordinating Editors of the *International Coaching Psychology Review*, called for more research and knowledge sharing through the publication which is published by the British Psychological Society with an International Editorial Advisory Board.

Prof. Dr Reinhard Stelter, Denmark

Details of events hosted by the Special Group in Coaching Psychology, and details of SGCP publications, can be found at: www.sgcp.org.uk

Details of on-going international events of the 1st International Coaching Psychology Congress can be found at:

www.coachingpsychologycongress.org

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1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology

A series of global events taking place during 2010-2011

The 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology (ICCP) has a key aim of bringing the global Coaching Psychology community together. The countries currently involved in the ICCP include: Australia, Denmark, Ireland, Israel, Netherlands, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, UK.

The strategic partners will promote and hold a congress event in their own region. The UK event took place in December 2010 and was a great success, with delegates and speakers attending from over 20 different countries.

Events currently announced for 2011:

26th-27th May 2011: Southern Hemisphere Event hosted by the Society of Industrial and Organisational Psychology South Africa's Coaching and Consulting Interest Group:
Johannesburg

18th June 2011: Ireland Event hosted by the Irish Psychological Society's Division of Work and Organisational Psychology Coaching Psychology Group:
Dublin

16th September 2011: Sweden Event hosted by Coaching Psychologists Sweden:
Stockholm

11th and 12th October 2011: Spain Event hosted by Onsejo General De Colegios Oficiales de Psicologos/Col.Legi Oficial de Psicolegs De Catalunya (Copc):
Barcelona

For details of these events and future events, and to find out more about the countries participating in the steering committee visit the website:

www.coachingpsychologycongress.org

Special Group in Coaching Psychology News

Angela Hetherington

I AM PLEASED to assume the role of Chair of the SGCP for 2011 and wish our membership a successful, healthy and, of course, prosperous new year.

The highlight of the year for the SGCP was the launch of the 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology, held at City University, London. The SGCP was delighted to host the congress and to work all the more collaboratively with the IGCP as a strategic partner. The congress attracted nearly 300 delegates from around the world and will continue on an international basis in 2011 and 2012. You will see more detail about the UK event in the separate report in this issue of *ICPR*.

During the UK Congress event, an award for Distinguished Contribution to Coaching Psychology was presented to Dr Siobhain O'Riordan, with special commendations to Dr Tatiana Bachkirova and Dr Jonathan Passmore.

The Congress's success in the UK was achieved through the leadership of the Congress Chair, Vicky Ellam-Dyson and the Congress Committee. Haley Lancaster and Yvonne McAdam were also pivotal in promoting and marketing the congress to achieve such successful attendance and media visibility.

The SGCP sub-committees have worked tirelessly to develop a new revised SGCP website which offers an informative communication medium, supported by Facebook, Linkedin and Twitter. It markets the SGCP through a range of core activities including:
- An online list of SGCP members of chartered psychologist status, linked to the *Directory of Chartered Psychologists*.
- Access to CPD, training courses and conferences.
- Workshop webinars.
- A coaching psychology forum.
- A network of regional peer practice groups.

SGCP's two peer-reviewed publications, the *International Coaching Psychology Review* and *The Coaching Psychologist*, continue to grow both in terms of contributions and readership. Both are abstracted in leading databases and remain the main sites for publishing coaching psychology papers.

The SGCP continues to negotiate with the Society and the HPC to gain accreditation for coaching psychologists. It is in the process of formulating a 'Register for Psychologists' with the Society. The Register will pave the way for recognition by the HPC. Accreditation will continue to be a core objective of 2011. The SGCP draws on the resources of the Society to support its activity in respect of publications, communications, training and development – providing members with added benefits.

The SGCP, through the Representative Council and the PPB, has over the year worked to influence policy and practice in the broader field of psychology, both providing expert opinion on consultation documents and communicating Society policies and opportunities through to the SGCP membership.

Dr Ho Law, Past Chair, has worked with the SGCP to develop a comprehensive business strategy which reflects the broader goals of the Society and the current economic and political climate. In particular, this year has seen increased emphasis placed on the market for coaching. There has been increased activity aimed at engaging the

consumer and creating a more commercially sensitive orientation within the SGCP. It is intended this focus will continue over 2011, with an increased application of media technology and PR.

Given the relatively transient membership of the committees, the continuity of the SGCP is dependant on the supportive, collegiate and team orientation of the executive committee, the main committee, sub-committees and the Society team. A significant amount of effort, expertise and skills has been applied by the SGCP membership and, in particular, the sub-committee Chairs and has been crucial to its success over the year.

Details of events hosted by the SGCP, and details of SGCP publications, can be found at: www.sgcp.org.uk

Details of on-going international events of the 1st International Coaching Psychology Congress can be found at: www.coaching-psychologycongress.org

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Prof. Stephen Palmer presenting
Dr Siobhain O'Riordan with her award.
Photograph by Ofer Atad.

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology News

Peter Zarris

Greetings IGCP & SGCP Members.

I T HAS BEEN a very eventful three months for the IGCP and a very exciting time for coaching psychology globally.

In what will be my last year in the role as National Convener I can look back at the last three years with great satisfaction about where the group is and what we've achieved, but also noting that there is much work to be done moving forward.

Nonetheless it is a great time for reflection and a great opportunity to review where the group and the broader profession is at.

The International Congress of Coaching Psychology

The first ICCP conference was conducted in London in December and can only be described as a resounding success.

There is now an international community of coaching psychologists and there will be a series of events being conducted over the next 12 months which I strongly encourage you to attend if you can.

This, however, is our first opportunity to create an international alliance and clearly moves us one step closer to the possibility of a coaching psychology profession.

For those of you who see their future in coaching it is a great opportunity for you to become involved in the latest internationally. From my own perspective we owe a great debt of gratitude to Stephen Palmer, Vicki Ellam-Dyson and the SGCP team for organising the first ICCP event in London in December 2010; and to Aletta Odenaal and Anna Rosa le Roux for organising the Southern Hemisphere event in Johannesburg.

We owe them our support and I hope you can attend in May. If you are interested please see: www.siopsa.org.za/

Standards Australia

We have continued to be a stakeholder in the Standards Australia and we are very close to having the first draft of the *Handbook of Coaching at Work* published some time in the next few months. We have been engaging with the various colleges and with the APS on this initiative, and I must give my thanks to both Michael Cavanaugh and to the APS subcommittee on psychological testing for their work.

My own belief is that the publishing of Australian Standards will strengthen the profession and provide great career opportunities for us all.

Australian ICCP Event

Whilst I will not be in the role of Chair at the time, I do believe that there is strong committee support for an international congress event in Australia around February to March next year. This will be run as a concurrent event with our 2012 symposium and provides an outstanding opportunity for you all to meet our international colleagues.

I think the transformation of the group from running symposiums to being involved in truly international events is an outstanding step forward and holds us all in good stead.

Professional Development

As many of you will know there are changes to professional development requirements, particularly with the Australian Psychological Registration Board.

We have examined these new requirements and are currently reviewing our approach to professional development and hope to adjust our future development events to reflect these changing requirements.

Research Grants

I'm happy to be able to announce that we will be providing research grants to the best article published in each *International Coaching Psychology Review* publication.

This is a great opportunity not only to be able to undertake research, but potentially to be able to receive a $500 reward for having 'the best' article published.

We strongly encourage you to consider undertaking research in this area and are proud to be able to provide these awards to 'incentivise' you to do so.

Future

It's going to be another fantastic year moving forward as we become part of the international community of coaching psychology with the rollout of Standards Australia and with our continuing commitment to your professional development.

We strongly need your continuing support and encouragement to continue to provide these events.

Best wishes.

Peter Zarris
National Convenor, IGCP.
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4. Online submission process

(1) All manuscripts must be submitted to a Co-ordinating Editor by e-mail to:
Stephen Palmer (UK): dr.palmer@btinternet.com
Michael Cavanagh (Australia): michaelc@psych.usyd.edu.au

(2) The submission must include the following as separate files:
- Title page consisting of manuscript title, authors' full names and affiliations, name and address for corresponding author.
- Abstract.
- Full manuscript omitting authors' names and affiliations. Figures and tables can be attached separately if necessary.

5. Manuscript requirements

- Contributions must be typed in double spacing with wide margins. All sheets must be numbered.
- Tables should be typed in double spacing, each on a separate page with a self-explanatory title. Tables should be comprehensible without reference to the text. They should be placed at the end of the manuscript with their approximate locations indicated in the text.
- Figures can be included at the end of the document or attached as separate files, carefully labelled in initial capital/lower case lettering with symbols in a form consistent with text use. Unnecessary background patterns, lines and shading should be avoided. Captions should be listed on a separate page. The resolution of digital images must be at least 300 dpi.
- For articles containing original scientific research, a structured abstract of up to 250 words should be included with the headings: Objectives, Design, Methods, Results, Conclusions. Review articles should use these headings: Purpose, Methods, Results, Conclusions.
- Overall, the presentation of papers should conform to the British Psychological Society's Style Guide (available at www.bps.org.uk/publications/publications_home.cfm in PDF format). Non-discriminatory language should be used throughout. Spelling should be Anglicised when appropriate. Text should be concise and written for an international readership of applied psychologists. Sensationalist and unsubstantiated views are discouraged. Abbreviations, acronyms and unfamiliar specialist terms should be explained in the text on first use.
- Particular care should be taken to ensure that references are accurate and complete. Give all journal titles in full. Referencing should follow BPS formats. For example:
Billington, T. (2000). *Separating, losing and excluding children: Narratives of difference*. London: Routledge/Falmer.
Elliott, J.G. (2000). Dynamic assessment in educational contexts: Purpose and promise. In C. Lidz & J.G. Elliott (Eds.), *Dynamic assessment: Prevailing models and applications* (pp.713–740). New York: J.A.I. Press.
Palmer, S. & Whybrow, A. (2006). The coaching psychology movement and its development within the British Psychological Society. *International Coaching Psychology Review 1*(1), 5–11.
- SI units must be used for all measurements, rounded off to practical values if appropriate, with the Imperial equivalent in parentheses.
- In normal circumstances, effect size should be incorporated.
- Authors are requested to avoid the use of sexist language.
- Authors are responsible for acquiring written permission to publish lengthy quotations, illustrations, etc. for which they do not own copyright.

6. Brief reports

These should be limited to 1000 words and may include research studies and theoretical, critical or review comments whose essential contribution can be made briefly. A summary of not more than 50 words should be provided.

7. Publication ethics

BPS Code of Conduct – Code of Conduct, Ethical Principles and Guidelines.
Principles of Publishing – Principle of Publishing.

8. Supplementary data

Supplementary data too extensive for publication may be deposited with the British Library Document Supply Centre. Such material includes numerical data, computer programs, fuller details of case studies and experimental techniques. The material should be submitted to the Editor together with the article, for simultaneous refereeing.

9. Post acceptance

PDF page proofs are sent to authors via e-mail for correction of print but not for rewriting or the introduction of new material.

10. Copyright

To protect authors and publications against unauthorised reproduction of articles, The British Psychological Society requires copyright to be assigned to itself as publisher, on the express condition that authors may use their own material at any time without permission. On acceptance of a paper, authors will be requested to sign an appropriate assignment of copyright form.

11. Checklist of requirements

- Abstract (100–200 words).
- Title page (include title, authors' names, affiliations, full contact details).
- Full article text (double-spaced with numbered pages and anonymised).
- References (see above). Authors are responsible for bibliographic accuracy and must check every reference in the manuscript and proofread again in the page proofs.
- Tables, figures, captions placed at the end of the article or attached as separate files.

Contents

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